POST-SECONDARY GOVERNANCE
OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION:
A SASKATCHEWAN STUDY

A Thesis Submitted to the College of
Graduate Studies and Research
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy
in the Department of Educational Administration
University of Saskatchewan
Saskatoon

By
Kabini F. Sanga
Spring 1997

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UNIVERSITY OF SASKATCHEWAN
College of Graduate Studies and Research
SUMMARY OF DISSERTATION

Submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the

DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

by

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to describe and evaluate the nature and governance of international education in two Saskatchewan post-secondary institutions: the Saskatchewan Institute of Applied Science and Technology (SIAST) and the University of Saskatchewan (U of S).

The study used Leginsky and Andrews' (1994) theoretical framework to describe international education and a governance model derived from the general literature to examine academic governance. Moreover, Etzioni's (1988) deontological model was used to evaluate the governance of international education in the two institutions. The study was premised on two assumptions. First, international activities have diverse but related underlying goals which fundamentally drive the strategies used and set the tasks for "going international." Second, the governance of international education in post-secondary institutions is complex.

A case study approach was adopted with the institutions being examined as two distinct cases. Data were obtained from interviews and documents. The interviews used chain samples of 15 SIAST and 26 U of S respondents. In both institutions, the respondent groups represented a cross-section of interests within the organizations.

In regard to the nature of international education, it was suggested that international education in the two Saskatchewan post-secondary institutions was driven by competing underlying philosophical orientations. The sources and degrees of support for these orientations varied. The findings showed that international education at SIAST predominantly involved the multi-activity technical assistance project. The university situation was more complex. Moreover, it was noted that the governance model used at SIAST was different from that employed by the U of S. The SIAST model reflected a
bureaucratic perspective of governance, whereas the U of S model was more complex and represented a myriad of different perspectives of academic governance. In general both SIAST and U of S models of governance seemed to be efficient and to reflect a moral sensitivity.

It was noted that the Leginsky and Andrews' (1994) framework served as a useful point of departure for organizing the data and understanding international education. The model for academic governance used in the study captured the plurality of post-secondary contexts. Etzioni's (1988) model for policy analysis was useful for assessing a complex phenomenon in a pluralistic context.

Areas for further research were suggested and implications for theory and practice were discussed.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Completing this project in Saskatchewan was part of a larger assignment in life's pilgrimage. For the researcher, the Saskatoon commitment was not easy, yet St. Paul's victory acclamation is hereby affirmed: "I have fought the good fight, I have finished the race [this race, for now!], I have kept the faith [italics added]" (2 Timothy, 4:7).

Many people have been instrumental in the completion of this thesis. Special gratitude and thanks are given to Dr. Larry Sackney for his advice, encouragement and support. Appreciation is offered to committee members, Dr. Vivian Hajnal, Dr. Patrick Renihan, Dr. Roy Wagner and Dr. Keith Walker for their assistance and support. A word of appreciation is also given to Dr. Peter Murphy who took time off to be the external examiner.

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CHAPTER 1
THE NATURE OF THE STUDY

This chapter presents the background to the study and the purpose of the inquiry. It also introduces the problem statement and the research questions that guided the study. Additionally, the chapter describes the significance of the study, the conceptual framework, and the basic assumptions, delimitations, limitations, and operational definitions.

Background to the Study

Recent years have seen a heightened interest in internationalizing post-secondary education. In Canada, this emerging development has been widely noted (Wagner & Yerbury, 1989; Dodds, 1994; Lougheed & Wasilewski, 1994; Leginsky & Andrews, 1994; Berry, 1994; AUCC, 1995). It would appear that this renewed interest in international education is premised on one fundamental belief. According to Lougheed and Wasilewski (1994), "higher education and government officials [in Canada] alike agree that universities who look beyond their own borders will benefit - and will provide an important service to their communities" (pp. 7-8). In other words, it would seem that there is a basic supposition that when Canadian post-secondary institutions "go international," this is likely to lead to a better life for the present and future citizens of Canada.

Aside from the rhetoric of "going international," the actuality of internationalizing post-secondary education is confronted by contradictory pressures. Kerr (1991) draws attention to the seeming contradictions between internationalizing learning against the interest of nation states to use post-secondary institutions for their own selected purposes. Leginsky and Andrews (1994) draw attention to the ideological differences of policies on international education in post-secondary institutions. Moreover, Reghenzani (1992)
reminds us of the varying conceptions of internationalization. At the administrative level, these pressures are problematic.

These seeming contradictions are not made any easier, given the rapid environmental changes affecting post-secondary education today. As noted by Gagliano (1992), the nations of the world have become economically, socially, and politically interdependent. It would seem that these rapid changes have caught post-secondary institutions off guard. In complementing such a view, Berry (1994) notes that technological advancements in recent years have driven these changes, to the extent that post-secondary institutions have yet to come to grips with the impact.

The need for post-secondary institutions to internationalize has become one of the realities facing institutions of higher education today. Even in the face of shrinking budgets, pressures for external accountability, and politically correct priorities, "going international," in rhetorical terms at least, has become imperative for post-secondary institutions. Somewhat unfortunately, as observed by Gagliano (1992), "on the whole, however, far too many . . . universities and colleges are still woefully under-equipped to successfully undertake the international activities that have been recently inserted into their institutional mission statements" (p. 327). From a governance perspective, such a situation is less than desirable. Gagliano continues: "On too many campuses, international priorities and projects derive from the accidents of history, ad hoc targets of opportunity, and the serendipity of available funding. They betray no guiding institutional strategy, no synergistic logic, no effective internal coordination or quality control" (p. 328). It would, therefore, appear that the need exists for attention to be given to some of the realities faced by campuses for "going international." From a moral perspective, further attention is needed, given the complexity of the subject, and the political nature of post-secondary educational governance.
In Canada, the process of internationalizing post-secondary education is undergoing rapid changes. Like other jurisdictions, the impetus to internationalize Canadian post-secondary education is largely driven by external forces. Alberta's economically-laden policy statement (Alberta Advanced Education, 1990) is a case in point. It states:

International education makes an effective contribution to the achievement of Alberta's economic growth and diversification goals. Alberta post-secondary institutions have a wealth of experience and expertise which can be brought to bear on Alberta's international development objectives as well as for commercial purposes . . . . promotion of our educational services to other countries enhances Alberta's visibility abroad and increases opportunities for the involvement of our institutions in international activities. (p. 1)

Meanwhile, the empirical research needed to guide the development of internationalization of Canadian post-secondary institutions continues to lag (AUCC, 1995; Potvin, 1989; Leginsky & Andrews, 1994). Francis (1993) of the British Columbia Centre for International Education attributes this to the relative youth of international education as a research area. According to Francis:

Internationalization is not a subject to which extensive research has been directed, and only recently has mention of internationalization begun to appear, to any significant degree, in the academic literature. The relative youth of the subject is a probable explanation for the fact that very few texts addressing internationalization were located. (p. 9)

A computer search by the researcher revealed that for the 1993-94 period, no Canadian doctoral dissertations were done on international education at the post-secondary level. In contrast, in the United States, a number of doctoral dissertations were devoted to international education in post-secondary institutions. The dissertations covered a wide range of studies, including descriptive analysis of international education in post-secondary institutions (Liu, 1993; Krane, 1994; Barker, 1995), administration of post-secondary
international education (Emerson, 1994; Gruber, 1995), international education and organizational culture (Kee, 1993), leadership in international education (Reimer, 1993) and priorities in international education (Bolter, 1994).

The lack of dissertation research in Canada is likely to be disadvantageous. Among other things, an absence of direction for international education in post-secondary institutions is evident. Rather than be guided by the American experience and data on international education, Canada needs to generate its own research. Also, as echoed by Wagner and Yerbury (1989), practical considerations and issues of ethics in international education need attention. In addition, sensitivity to other cultures (Shute, 1989), and to issues of quality, rationale and governance of international education (AUCC, 1995) need attention. This national scenario was reflected in the Saskatchewan situation, wherein, internationalization of post-secondary institutions continued to be encouraged, but without empirical research and adequate discussion on its practice. It was against this background that the present study was undertaken.

**Purpose of the Study**

The general purpose of this study was to understand the nature and governance of international education in two Saskatchewan post-secondary institutions. Particular focus was given to the nature of international education, how the institutions organized the governance of international activities, and the adequacy of these governance arrangements. In order to achieve the stated purpose, this study examined how international activities were governed at the Saskatchewan Institute of Applied Science and Technology (SIAST) and the University of Saskatchewan (U of S). Combining a study of two distinct types of post-secondary institutions was necessary to fill a gap in the North American research on international education. Francis (1993) draws attention to this gap as follows:

In much of the literature, particularly studies that highlight a single institution, the line is virtually opaque: rarely does a publication
simultaneously examine internationalization in colleges and universities. One or the other is featured, with the balance of the literature focusing on college internationalization. However, in some of the more general literature, there is nothing discernible to suggest that the information is more relevant to one institution than another: hence the translucent line. (p. 11)

It was expected that in the end this study would be descriptive in its presentation of the nature of international education and the governance of international education in the two Saskatchewan post-secondary institutions. Additionally, the study tested the conceptual framework and models relating to the nature of governance of international education. Lastly, the study evaluated the governance of international education.

**Statement of the Problem**

What was the nature and adequacy of international education and the institutional governance for international education in the Saskatchewan post-secondary institutions: the Saskatchewan Institute of Applied Science and Technology, and the University of Saskatchewan?

**Research Questions**

Consistent with the purpose and the problem statement, the study was guided by three generic sets of questions.

1. What was the nature of international education in the two Saskatchewan post-secondary institutions?
   a. What overriding philosophical orientations drove international education?
   b. In what international activities did these institutions participate?

2. How were international education initiatives governed in the two Saskatchewan post-secondary institutions?
   a. What, if any, overall institutional governance models were used? Why?
b. What governance roles were played, how and why?

3. How adequate was the governance of international education initiatives in the two Saskatchewan post-secondary institutions?
   a. How well did governance meet the goals of organizational efficiency?
   b. To what extent did governance reflect a concern for moral considerations?

A subsidiary question (Question #4) was to consider the adequacy of the existing models in describing and assessing international education.

**Significance of the Study**

There were three primary considerations which gave significance to this study. First, according to Potvin (1989), there is a general absence of research data on international education in Canadian post-secondary institutions. Yet, in spite of this, interest in international education has grown rapidly (Wagner & Yerbury, 1989; Francis, 1993; Lougheed & Wasilewski, 1994). Moreover, internationalization of Canadian higher education continues to be called for (Berry, 1994; Leginsky & Andrews, 1994). In Saskatchewan, pressure for internationalizing the institution can be seen in the following statement to the University of Saskatchewan Senate: "The Subcommittee on International Affairs believes that, in spite of current constraints on financial resources, the University of Saskatchewan should strive to continue its involvement in international development" (University of Saskatchewan, 1987, p. 4). Similarly, for SIAST, a statement in the preamble to the policy on international education reads: "due to . . . increasing global interdependence, activities that enable participation in the global economy are worthy objectives for [SIAST]" (SIAST International Policy, 1995, p. 1).

The extent to which these statements are fully grasped by stakeholders, and their implications at the institutional level are far from completely understood. Yet, like other post-secondary institutions in Canada, Saskatchewan institutions are working towards increasing their participation in international education. The stark reality is that Potvin's
concern underlines an obstacle to the maximization of rewards in international education. This study was expected to fill the gap between practice and research by contributing towards knowledge on the nature of international education in post-secondary institutions.

Second, this study was important for improving our understanding of institutional governance of international activities. Wagner & Yerbury (1989), in reference to Canadian institutions, noted that "there are major theoretical and practical impediments to effective university participation in international education" (p. 11). Additionally, it appears that while emphasis has traditionally researched the impacts of internationalization on recipient institutions, the effects on donor institutions have not been adequately studied. In recognition of this, the study was useful for informing, clarifying and articulating the situation of institutional governance of international activities. From the cases, the study showed why some governance models were more successful than others. From an examination of the nature and adequacy of institutional governance of international activities in the Saskatchewan post-secondary institutions, it was anticipated that opportunities would arise to develop new and better approaches to the governance of international education.

Third, from a change perspective, an examination of institutional governance was timely because of global challenges facing post-secondary education today. This was particularly necessary because of the need for a moral dimension to balance governance considerations within a highly political context. This need is reflected by Manahan, Garland and Bettis (1985) in the following quote:

Advocates of change recognize that if high-quality academic programs are to be achieved or sustained in our current environment of shrinking resources, governance systems must be responsive and sensitive to the multiplicity of educational goals within the institution's mission statement. Public college and university leaders must recognize the need for a renewed commitment to re-examine the campus governance and decision-making process and structure to assure continued maintenance of its authority,
effectiveness, and autonomy. (p. 37)

To summarize, the following contributed toward making this study important: the need for research data on international education in Canada, the impetus to develop adequate empirical data on institutional governance of international education, and the goal to keep abreast with the changing context in the governance of post-secondary institutions.

**Conceptual Framework**

In research, a conceptual framework serves to guide the search for meanings. For this particular study, the central task of a conceptual framework was to navigate the search for patterns and relationships that describe and explain the nature and adequacy of the governance of international education. In the following paragraphs, the conceptual framework for international education and the model for academic governance are presented. The framework for international education is based on Leginsky and Andrews (1994) while the model for governance as outlined in Figure 1 on page 12 was drawn from the general literature. As a subset of this governance model, Etzioni's (1988) deontological policy analysis model was used to examine the morality of governance.

**International Education**

The conceptual framework which guided the examination of international education in this study was based on Leginsky and Andrews (1994). According to these authors, international education can be approached from four perspectives: (1) as development education, (2) as global education, (3) as economic development, and (4) as organizational development. Each of these perspectives represents an overriding philosophical orientation. Consequently, the underlying assumptions for each perspective differs. Because of this, it is possible to determine the predominant reason(s) for particular international initiatives. From the underlying goals, it is possible to ascertain the central theme of an international activity, and the specific task(s) for the institution. In Table 1,
the researcher offers an expanded summary of Leginsky and Andrews' model of the four perspectives of international education.

A number of considerations supported the choice of this framework. For instance, the framework recognizes and integrates the diverse perspectives of international education. Various international activities, with their different philosophical orientations are, therefore, embraced in a single representation. The capacity to accommodate both particularistic and multiplistic views of international education increases the power and utility of the framework. Consequently, the power to accommodate multiple perspectives makes the framework useful for a macro level description of international education in a number of different types of post-secondary institutions. Additionally, the framework allows for a multi-level analysis of international education. Accordingly, international education can be examined at the level of the schools, colleges and universities. For this study, however, the analysis was limited to international education at the college and university levels.

**Academic Governance**

This study was based on the assumption that post-secondary institutions perform a diverse number of functions. As a result, diversity in internal governance has become inevitable (Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, 1973). When international education as advocated by Leginsky and Andrews (1994) is taken into account, the complexity and variety of the subject matter makes diversity in governance seem desirable. Consequently, a model for governance needs to be placed against a backdrop of the four common approaches to academic governance. Represented in the Figure on page 11, the common approaches to governance are: (1) the bureaucratic approach, (2) the collegial approach, (3) the political approach, and (4) the organized anarchy approach. A detailed description is made of these approaches to academic governance in the next chapter. At this point, however, it is suffice to state that each approach upholds a particular view of post-secondary institutions. As a result, the goals and the strategies for governance will reflect
Table 1

**Perspectives of International Education**

(Adapted from Leginsky & Andrews, 1994).

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<th>Education</th>
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<tr>
<td>Development Education</td>
<td>Global Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>Central concept</td>
<td>Interdependence of peoples &amp; nations</td>
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<td>Less developed nations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic assumptions</td>
<td>Education for development, Modernize to develop</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Integrated peoples, Education is responsible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task for institution</td>
<td>Provide expertise to help needy nations</td>
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<td>Examples of specific activities</td>
<td>Technical assistance projects</td>
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the perspectives of each approach. Ultimately, it may be said that academic governance of post-secondary institutions does not follow a single model, but is always influenced by the varied functions performed on campuses today.

Against this backdrop of plurality of the governance context, the governance of international education initiatives is likely to be complex. This complexity is due in part to the diversity of the phenomenon under investigation, coupled with the elaborate nature of post-secondary institutions. Consequently, the need exists for the question of adequacy of governance to be approached from a view which encompasses, rather than ignores a problematic context. To this end, Etzioni's (1988) value-perspective to policy analysis was offered as a model for evaluating the adequacy of governance.

![Diagram of governance approaches]

**Figure.** Four approaches to academic governance.

**Morality of governance.** Etzioni explains a basic assumption of his deontological paradigm as follows:
The deontological paradigm evolved here assumes that people have at least some significant involvement in the community (neoclassicists would say "surrender of sovereignty"), a sense of shared identity, and a commitment to values, a sense that "we are members of one another." Hence, adhering to shared values is often a matter not of expedient conformity but of internalization of moral values, at least in part [italics added]. (p. 5)

Etzioni believes that organizational actors are not free-standing individuals, but individuals acting within a collective. Etzioni (1988) suggests that as members of a group, organizational actors pursue two or more goals: seeking pleasure, hence the need for efficiency; and seeking to abide by their moral commitments. In seeking to enhance economy and efficiency, organizations must, therefore, attend to goals, structures, procedures and regulations. But, concerns for organizational efficiency need to be balanced with concerns for morality and values. Consequently, the need exists for organizations to embrace the following: shared values; the needs of members; concerns for means, not just ends; "ought to" questions; notions of inclusivity, and empowerment. It is this view of reality, a rational approach to governance within a value-laden community, that forms the basis for an assessment of governance of international education. It must be noted, however, that Etzioni represents a communitarian perspective of evaluating policy. On its own, a communitarian value system is partial. Consequently, O'toole (1993), suggests that the good society is one which recognizes the complexities of change due to the tensions between competing value systems: libertarianism, corporativism, egalitarianism and communitarianism. The study did not use O'toole's full model in evaluating the governance of international education.

**Summary of Framework and Models**

To summarize, this study utilized a conceptual framework premised on Leginsky and Andrews' (1994) perspective of international education. Specifically, this framework was used to organize the literature review and formed a basis for examining the nature of
international education in two of the post-secondary institutions in Saskatchewan. According to Leginsky and Andrews international education is classified into four dimensions of emphasis: development education-oriented activities, global education-oriented activities, economic development-oriented activities, and organizational development-oriented activities. In the next chapter, a detailed description of the conceptual framework on international education is presented.

Additionally, this study employed the governance model espoused as the Figure on page 11 to examine the governance of international education. Within this governance template, Etzioni's (1988) deontological policy analysis model was used to assess the adequacy of the governance of international education in the two Saskatchewan post-secondary institutions. The study sought to delineate the governance models used and the roles played by institutional participants.

Assumptions

This study was based on a number of underlying assumptions. It was assumed that by soliciting the opinions of key institutional actors in international activities from two of Saskatchewan's post-secondary institutions, insights into the nature of international education and institutional governance of international activities in the institutions would be obtained. As well, it was assumed that the participating actors in international education initiatives were able to provide information which would appropriately serve the purposes of the study.

It was further assumed that the approach taken in this study was appropriate, and would render the study valid. This study was intended to examine the nature and adequacy of institutional governance of international activities in two Saskatchewan post-secondary institutions. Case studies of these two institutions were, therefore, undertaken. For these case studies, the principal data gathering methods were a semi-structured interview and document analysis. Both individually and collectively, these data collection methods
were assumed to be appropriate. As well, it was assumed that information which was obtained from the analysis of all collected data was valid. Another assumption was that quotes from the interview data were representative of the findings of the study.

Finally, it was assumed that the conceptual framework and models that were used in the study were appropriate to accommodate the realities of the contexts under scrutiny.

**Delimitations of the Study**

The following statements of delimitation of the study need to be made. It is important to note that this study was set within a time-place context. In this regard, it was a study undertaken in 1996 of international education in two Saskatchewan post-secondary institutions. When this study was conducted, post-secondary education was undergoing serious and widespread review with implications for international education. Additionally, the study was delimited to the nature and adequacy of institutional governance of international education initiatives at SIAST and the U of S.

This study was also delimited to a case study of two Saskatchewan post-secondary institutions. By its nature, a case study explores the particulars of a given situation, hence, this study was not intended to be representative of the situation in other post-secondary institutions in the province of Saskatchewan or elsewhere. Consequently, it may be said that this study was delimited to the study approach and the methodology used.

Finally, the study was delimited to the participation of key institutional actors. In this instance, only key institutional participants were interviewed. These groups included administrators, deliverers of programs, and students. Non-institutional actors in international education were excluded.

**Limitations of the Study**

The study was limited in a number of ways. The participation of samples of institutional stakeholders could have resulted in a biased view of the nature and adequacy of the governance of international activities. Subsequently, a comprehensive exploration into
the nature and adequacy of institutional governance of international activities on the basis of
the opinions of a limited number of actors was itself a limitation. Recognizing this, the
researcher took care to reduce sampling biases.

An additional limitation was related to the research approach used. This study
comprised two case studies of international education at the SIAST and the U of S.
Additionally, the primary data gathering methods were restricted to two qualitative
instruments: semi-structured interviews and document analysis. From a quantitative
research paradigm, it may be stated that the research approach and the data gathering
methods adopted were limiting factors. Additionally, the adequacy of documentary
evidence was limited to the availability of, and accessibility to relevant documents.

Furthermore, the study was limited in that individual international activities such as
the International Studies program, were not evaluated.

**Definitions**

In this study, the following key terms have been used as defined:

**International Education** - King & Fersh (1989) define International Education as "all
programs, projects, studies, and activities that help individuals to learn and care more about
the world beyond their community and to transcend their culture-conditioned ethnocentric
perspectives, perceptions, and behavior" (p. 28). Leginsky and Andrews (1994) define
international education in terms of underlying philosophical orientations. Both the multi-
activity nature of international education and its varying philosophical motives are
important. Hence, the term international education was used in this study as defined by
King & Fersh as well as Leginsky & Andrews.

**Post-secondary education** - McGechaen and Person (1986) use the term post-secondary
education to refer to "all learning activities undertaken after completing secondary
education" (p. 23). In a general sense, post-secondary refers to tertiary education. In this
study, the term post-secondary education was used to include education provided by universities and colleges.

**Actors** - At the micro level, actors are individuals or groups that have a stake in a policy issue, and affect or are impacted by the governance of such a policy. The term actors was used interchangeably with "stakeholders."

**Governance** - According to Baldridge (1971), governance is defined as "the complex of structures and processes that determines the critical decisions and sets the long-range policies" (p. 71). The term governance was used in this study to refer to structures, roles, and processes by which goals are translated into policies and actions.

**Adequacy** - The term adequacy was used to refer to the extent to which governance considerations were considered efficient and moral.

For convenience, the following abbreviations were used in the study:

Saskatchewan Institute of Applied Science and Technology (SIAST).

University of Saskatchewan (U of S).

Saskatchewan Institute of Applied Science and Technology International Services (SIAST International Services).

University of Saskatchewan International (U of S International or USI).

**About the Author**

The researcher is a citizen of the South Pacific nation of the Solomon Islands. At the time this study was conducted, the researcher was an international student at the University of Saskatchewan. In one sense, education for the researcher has always been international. The researcher obtained his primary education from "expatriate" Christian missionaries and secondary education from British colonial teachers in Solomon Islands boarding schools. For his undergraduate degree, the researcher studied at the Fiji-based University of the South Pacific, where the majority of the lecturers then were non-Pacific
Islanders. In 1991, the researcher completed a Master of Education degree at the University of Regina, Canada.

The researcher has worked as an educational administrator at various levels in the Solomon Islands: a High School, the Ministry of Education and the School of Education at the Solomon Islands College of Higher Education. For the researcher, a common denominator at all levels of administration had been international education. The subject of this study was therefore of much interest to the researcher. Moreover, it was noted that the background of the researcher was influenced by social, cultural and historical considerations. These positions had their own idiosyncrasies which, undoubtedly, would have influenced this study.

**Thesis Organization**

The thesis is divided into eight chapters. The first three chapters present an overview of the study, a review of pertinent literature relating to international education and post-secondary governance, and the research design. Chapter 4 is a description of the institutional contexts of SIAST and the U of S. Chapter 5 is an individual case report for the SIAST, while Chapter 6 comprises the case report for the U of S. Chapter 7 constitutes the comparative analyses for the two cases, and Chapter 8 contains a summary of the findings, conclusions and discussions of implications for theory, research and practice.
CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter examines selected literature dealing with the two principal concepts of international education and academic governance. To set the context for the study, selected literature relating to four philosophical approaches to international education is discussed. This is followed by an analysis of the typologies of international activities in post-secondary institutions. Finally, the concept of post-secondary academic governance is examined. Particular attention is given to the literature dealing with the governance of international activities in post-secondary institutions.

Approaches to International Education

International education is a broad and far-reaching research subject, hence, innumerable ways of looking at the concept exist. Three examples are given. Hughes-Weiner (1987) offers a systems analysis of international education. In his model, Hughes-Weiner contends that international education makes up four key concepts: global education, cultural education, inter-cultural relations, and development education. Warner (1992), on the other hand, suggests three approaches to international education: (1) the market model for global competition, (2) the liberal model for global cooperation, and (3) the social transformation model for critical social analysis. According to Warner, his approach to international education allows for the particular goals and priorities of international activities to be identified.

The final example is from Leginsky & Andrews (1994). These two authors offer four approaches: (1) international education as development education, (2) international
education as global education, (3) international education as economic development, and (4) international education as organizational development. According to these authors, particular international education activities and the strategies they follow can be placed philosophically. This is not to suggest that particular international education initiatives are discrete, but rather that international activities are usually driven by certain overriding philosophies. These philosophies in turn drive the goals of the activities and strategies adopted. It is this realization that forms the basis for using Leginsky and Andrews' model in this study.

Moreover, Leginsky and Andrews' philosophical approach to international education allows for a multi-dimensional perspective to the subject. In other words, different domains or levels of international education can be accommodated. This is unlike Hughes-Weiner's model with its limited focus on curriculum, or Warner's model which tends to limit itself to economic, social and political orientations, but ignores organizational and personal orientations. Furthermore, Leginsky and Andrews' approach allows for international education to be examined at the level of schools, colleges and universities.

It is on the basis of these stated strengths that Leginsky and Andrews' (1994) approach to international education was deemed to be more conducive for a macro level description of the subject. As a result, the review of the literature was based on these authors' framework for international education as outlined in the previous chapter. In the first part of this chapter, each of the four perspectives of international education are reviewed. The review covers the central concept of each perspective, the goals of international education within the perspectives, the primary task for post-secondary education and a brief critique of the perspective.

**International Education as Development Education**

A historical examination of international education is likely to show that during the 1970s and 1980s, international education was predominantly perceived as international
development. This perception was rooted in the belief that peoples and nations are fundamentally interdependent, as affirmed by Isbister (1993): "we are not a world of separate nation states, independent of one another; we are one world, completely entangled in one another" (p. 65). In Canada, while the participation of Canadian institutions in international development is relatively recent (MacKinnon, 1985; Morrison, 1986), the basis for this interest is commonly shared with other international education service providers. One provider expresses the challenge of development as follows:

The challenge of development in the broadest sense, is to improve the quality of life. Especially in the world's poor countries, a better quality of life generally calls for higher incomes - but it involves much more. It encompasses, as ends in themselves, better education, higher standards of health and nutrition, less poverty, a cleaner environment, more quality of opportunity, greater individual freedom, and a richer cultural life. (The World Bank, 1991, p. 4)

A widespread rationale for involvement is based on the acceptance that there exists a socio-economic disparity between the peoples of developing nations and those in the developed countries. Given this disparity, Leginsky and Andrews (1994) suggest that a "rationale for international education is founded on the idea of using the skills and knowledge from the developed countries to assist in developing or changing the skills and knowledge of those living in the undeveloped or underdeveloped countries" (p. 3). For post-secondary institutions in the developed countries, international education, therefore, is an opportunity for these institutions to assist the less fortunate developing nations.

This assistance has been offered to the less developed nations in a number of ways. Cookson (1985), notes that development education has been offered to Third World countries for economic growth, for modernization, as distributive justice, and as social transformation. Often, these forms of assistance may include popular education (Oliver, 1987), partnership education (Einsiedel, 1989), or certain types of specific training. Taken
together, these patterns of development activities have become the generic set for
international education for the developed nations. In Canada, efforts by the Canadian
International Development Agency (CIDA), the Canadian University Services Overseas
(CUSO), and other non-government institutions are examples of international education as
development education.

When international education as development education is closely examined, one
 finds that this orientation makes two fundamental assumptions, represented by the human
capital and modernization theories. These theories of development are discussed in the
paragraphs that follow. This discussion is limited only to the central ideas of each theory,
and how these ideas relate to international education as development education. A brief
critical analysis follows each descriptive theory.

**Human capital theory.** Wagner and Yerbury (1989) contend that the human
capital model of development:

- is premised on the assumption that, through individual training and by
upgrading, the productive capacity of the labor force will improve, and thus
it will be possible to achieve Third World development and economic growth.
Education is seen as the essential ingredient for the development of human
capital. (p. 94)

It would appear that within the human capital paradigm, it is often assumed that developing
nations are primitive. Consequently, these nations need to be civilized and be like the
developed societies. To achieve this status, it is argued that individuals and groups within
the developing nations must be trained with the skills necessary to achieve economic
takeoff similar to the developed nations. Unfortunately, Isbister (1993) observes that this
rationale does not often work in practice. According to Isbister:

The insight that human capital is critical is correct; skilled, capable,
energetic people are absolutely central to economic development, certainly
as important as physical capital. But human capital is not a magic key.
Countries that have made significant progress in health, nutrition and
education have benefited, but they have not automatically made the transition
to prosperity. (p. 158)

In affirming the critical nature of human capital, Puttermann (1995) cites an example
wherein development economists have failed to recognize changes that were in progress in
Tanzania on the attainment of political independence. Puttermann argues that "even if
growth in output has been disappointing, the change in the country's collective human
capital stock may have been proceeding steadily, laying a foundation for future growth" (p.
22). Puttermann suggests that human capital should not be understood "merely as a
collection of formal skills but more broadly as a repertoire of material knowledge and
attitudes that takes the societal form of culture" (p. 21). Such an interpretation of human
capital is broader, but has not received the attention needed for a better understanding of it.

Criticisms of the human capital model of development have been wide-ranging. In
referring to the assumption inherent in the human capital model that social change is
essentially endogenous, Roxborough (1979) has this to say:

The model . . . presupposed a closed system, with some catalytic change
occurring within it and then triggering off a sequence of changes which
would produce a transition from traditional to modern . . . . this assumption
of endogenous change is clearly inadmissible for countries of the
Third World. (p. 19)

Roxborough (1979) further rejects the replication of Third World societies along a single,
fixed evolutionary scheme. In Roxborough's view, the social structures of developing
nations vary one from the other. For this reason, "some [Third World] societies have been
able to achieve more rapid economic growth than others in the second half of this century"
(Puttermann, 1995, p. 20). Additionally, the social structures of developing nations are not
homogenous with the western developed nations. To assume strategies implying social
homogeneity may likely be misleading.
In a final example, Saint-Germain (cited by Wagner and Yerbury, 1989), adds:

Criticism of the [human capital] model has focused on the fact that it overestimates the connection between the level of formal education and an improvement in living standards while underestimating individual qualities and environment. Perhaps the most important criticism of this model is that the causes of Third World under-development and economic inertia are assumed to be internal factors within a developing nation, not external international forces. (p. 94)

In summary, a central idea of the human capital theory is the rationale that national development will be experienced in the developing nations when the people of these countries acquire appropriate skills. This belief is rejected for its assumptions of social homogeneity, its exclusion of external contributions to under-development, and its disregard for environmental differences.

Modernization theory. Modernization theory represents several perspectives, a number of which are outlined below. Rostow (1960) speaks of societies undergoing economic development phases. McClelland (1968) introduces the argument of individual psychology and its implications for development. Hagen (1962) focuses on the socio-political considerations in a modern-traditional dichotomy. Others emphasize aspects of culture or values, as in Khan's (1979) Confucian ethic or Harrison's (1993) mental images and development. But, whatever the variation, central to modernization theory is the task of transforming traditional societies.

Within this framework of development theory, a central idea of this model of explaining poverty is the concept of "traditional." Isbister's (1993) commentary on this concept is enlightening:

[The] essence of a traditional society is that it is stagnant and unchanging. Its values are spiritual values, not the values of self-betterment. Its rhythms of life are circular, not linear and progressive; one returns always to the same place. The traditional world is emotionally comfortable, a world
in which each person has a place that is secure, a place in the family
among the pantheon of ancestors. (p. 34)

Isbister (1993) goes on to say that a traditional life, as painted above, is not negative. It is,
however, a holistic life. But, the commentator adds: "from an economic point of view,
however, it is a poor, subsistent life, a life that has no hope of accumulation, income and
wealth" (p. 34). The strategy to alleviate this situation, proponents of modernization theory
would argue, is for Third World societies to change their traditional values for modern
ones. One means to do this, these same proponents would suggest, is through education.

Hence, in McClelland's (1968) view, one of the tasks for education is to teach
Third World people to increase their need to achieve (n Achievement). As with other
modernists, McClelland believes that people in the developing nations are responsible both
for their pitiful socio-economic state, and the likelihood of achieving economic growth. In
his study, McClelland shows the close association between national levels of n
Achievement and economic growth. This psychologist posits that because n Achievement
is not hereditary, people can be taught how to raise this energy. Subsequently, McClelland
suggests that people in the Third World can learn to instill a higher level of n Achievement
in order to stimulate economic growth in their countries.

Two other influential authors of modernization theory are Inkeles and Smith
(1974). These authors place emphasis on personal attitudes, believing that
underdevelopment is a state of mind. Inkeles and Smith's main thesis is that development
is essentially a result of modern behaviors by modern men with modern attitudes.

According to these authors, modern man is defined as follows:

The modern man's character, as it emerges from our study, may be summed
up under four major headings. He is an informed participant citizen; he has a
marked sense of personal efficacy; he is highly independent and autonomous
in his relations to traditional sources of influence, especially when he is making
basic decisions about how to conduct his personal affairs, and he is ready for
new experiences and ideas, that is, he is relatively open-minded and cognitively flexible. (p. 290)

Inkeles and Smith argue that when developing nations modernize their institutions, more and more of their people will attain the characteristics of modern men. The authors explain how this can happen:

Insofar as men change under the influence of modernizing institutions they do so by incorporating the norms implicit in such organizations into their own personality, and by expressing those norms through their own attitudes, values and behavior. In the majority of cases, they do not respond by moving away from, or by reacting against, those norms. (pp. 307-8)

Objections to the modernization theory come mainly from two schools of thought. The loudest critics seem to be the dependency theorists. This group represents a variety of perspectives (Dos Santos, 1993), yet, according to Roxborough (1993), the central insight of dependency theorists is that the development of Third World societies cannot be viewed in isolation from the development of the developed nations. This theme is represented in the following quote by Sunkel and Paz, as cited by Valenzuela and Valenzuela (1993):

Both underdevelopment and development are aspects of the same phenomenon, both are historically simultaneous, both are linked functionally and, therefore, interact and condition each other mutually. This results . . . the division of the world between industrial, advanced or "central" countries, and underdeveloped, backward or "peripheral" countries. (p. 205)

To understand the links more fully, Dos Santos (1993) elaborates on this situation of dependency in the following manner:

In reality we can understand what is happening in the underdeveloped countries only when we see that they develop within a framework of a process of dependent production and reproduction. This system is a dependent one because it reproduces a productive system whose development is limited by those world relations which necessarily lead to: the development of only certain economic sectors, to trade under unequal conditions, to the imposition of relations of super exploitation of the
domestic labor force with a view of dividing the economic surplus thus generated between internal and external forces of domination. (p. 201)

Therefore, it appears that the assumption by modernists that the national society is the unit of analyzing development is rejected. Instead, as noted by Valenzuela and Valenzuela (1993), proponents of dependency theory consider "the global system and its various forms of interaction with national societies as the primary object of inquiry" (p. 211). In this way, underdevelopment can be attributed to external forces. Rather than blaming tradition and culture as the disincentives to development as modernists would argue, Dos Santos (1993) sees such a rationale as one-dimensional and unilineal. Moreover, from a dependency theory perspective, the modernists' position fails to take into account the historical relationships between peoples (Jorgensen, 1971) and nations (Portes, 1993).

In rejecting the modernization argument, dependency theorists offer the need for working towards a new order. Aziz (1978) puts it this way:

What [Third World nations] are seeking is an end to their dependency relationship with the developed world, through fundamental structural changes in international institutions and political power structures and equal opportunities for future progress. The present economic system, based on a mixture of the so-called market system and selective manipulation of that system, discriminates against the poorer and weaker nations. (p. 6)

How such changes are to come about are not clear. Dos Santos (1993) and Wallestein (1993) suggest that a revolution is inevitable. More moderate dependency theorists offer other suggestions. Saint-Germain (1989), for instance, proposed a theory of educational disconnection. According to Saint-Germain, this theory "would make it possible to detach certain activities from the formal educational structure and make them available and profitable to groups expressing particular needs" (p. 21). In this way, he argues,
"education can become an essential activity for individuals trying to control and manage their future, and will no longer be an 'academic' activity removed from daily life" (p. 21).

Speaking specifically of Canadian-funded development projects, Wagner and Yerbury (1989) suggest a social soundness approach. According to these authors, this approach to development emphasizes the transfer of skills and the development of human resources, as opposed to a goals-oriented emphasis. Consequently, the authors argue that a social soundness approach will entail adopting collaborative strategies between all project participants, facilitating the development of local skills and expertise, and stimulating individual and economic development.

Proponents of Marxist theory also disagree with the modernists' rationalization for development. According to modernization theory, the task of government is to identify obstacles to development and devise appropriate policies to overcome these problems. Marxist theory rejects such a view, and instead sees government as an integral part of the social structure of a nation. Accordingly, the Marxist school of thought sees the national state as a focus for attention. This is adequately captured in Isbister's (1993) commentary:

Modern Marxists do not see capitalism in the way dependency theorists do - as a global system with all of the power and the benefit accruing to the core countries and only poverty, underdevelopment and weakness in the Third World. They fully understand that Third World countries are intimately involved in international networks of trade, investment and finance, but they argue nevertheless that there is internal autonomy, that the local capitalist classes may have their own power and not simply be subservient to the international system. (p. 54)

From Isbister's argument, it is evident that for proponents of Marxist theory, development is best understood as a class struggle.

Summary. To summarize, it may be said that international education as international development is based on the realization that there exists a socio-economic
disparity between the developed and the developing nations. Given this situation, the rationale is that the developed nations will use their skills and knowledge to bring about much-needed development in the Third World. This rationale is based on assumptions that are represented by the modernization and human capital theories. Fundamentally, the premise of these theories is that the developing nations are mirror images of the developed societies. This idea is rejected by both dependency and Marxist schools of thought. While international education as development education has slowed down in momentum, its manifestations in the Third World continue to be prevalent.

**International Education as Global Education**

The 1990s have seen a resurgence of international education as global education. This perspective of international education acknowledges, as Berry (1994) puts it: "the times are so tough, and the challenges so great" (p. 40). Berry is of course referring to the rapid changes facing "planet earth." These changes, be they technological, environmental, economic, political or social have resulted in a world-wide crisis-culture (Brameld, 1955; Sharma, Klasek, Harre, Dorn, & Walker, 1991; Urch, 1992). According to Flavin (cited in Sharma et al., 1991), this crisis is evident in the following manner:

This planet is, indeed, at a crisis point if one considers the continuous proliferation of armaments all around the world, the expansion of nuclear destructive capabilities, the danger of environmental disaster as earth's activities threaten the protective ozone barrier, and the foolishness that endangers so much of human's physical and mental resources. (p. 190)

To this list, Ramler (1991) is likely to add, "planet-wide ecological issues [such as] ocean pollution, acid rain, deforestation, toxic waste disposal, and global warming" (p. 44).

Head's (1991) assessment, however, focuses on technological changes and their implications. Head states:

Without our fully realizing it, the world has changed and with it the rules of survival . . . . with this hinge of change and contributing to it is a technological
capacity that is eroding our environmental capital base. That same technological capacity coincidentally informs people world wide that their wretched impoverishment is becoming worse even as the consumption of the wealthy, most of whom reside in the countries of the North, are becoming obscenely excessive. (p. 7)

Other authors too have drawn attention to the changes facing planet earth. Three examples are cited. First, Heilbroner (1992) has pointed to the impact of a globalized market system on nation states. He notes that nation states are becoming more and more powerless in their surveillance and regulation of trans-national corporations. In addition to this, Berry (1994) notes that the decline in the power of nation states also relates to a host of other factors including: information, ideas, people, diseases, and human hazards. Finally, Drucker (1989) espouses the need for global literacy to include computer skills and knowledge of a world without national boundaries.

As alluded to earlier, these changes have led to a global crisis situation. Subsequently, in order to adequately meet the challenges of this crisis situation, global comprehension, sympathy and collaboration are necessary. Wood (1991) expresses this well in his summation of the central goal of global education. He says, "we must recognize that it is central to developing graduates who can cope creatively with the modern interdependent world" (p. 10). Herein lies a rationale for international education as global education. As indicated by Leginsky and Andrews (1994): "a motive for international education may be the circumstances that endanger all participants, and require global understanding and cooperation in order to address global issues" (p. 4). For post-secondary institutions, international education, therefore, is a strategy to enhance individual and institutional affinity with humanity.

Within this perspective of international education, global education has a particular definition. Hanvey's (1976) definition is deemed useful. According to Hanvey, global education is:
learning about those issues that cut across national boundaries and about
the interconnectedness of systems, ecological, cultural, economic, political,
and technological. Global education involves perspectives taking, seeing
things through the eyes, minds, and hearts of others; and it means the
realization that while individuals and groups may view life differently, they
also have common needs and wants. (p. 45)

Farmer (1993) adds to this definition by stressing the affective component of
international education. He distinguishes the two parts of international education as:

education for the acquisition of a global perspective, and for a sense of worldmindedness.

In developing a global perspective, a student will come to understand, for
example, that the global warming threat is truly a global threat and will be
solved only by a global effort . . . . In developing a sense of worldmindedness,
the student goes beyond understanding the global nature of this problem to
being concerned for the welfare of others and for the environment all over
the globe. (p. 53)

Developing a global perspective requires the development of specific skills and values.
Kobus (1983) alludes to this when he states that "global perspective implies dealing with
affective content and stresses student acquisition of competencies which incorporate
essential knowledge, skills, and attitudes" (p. 21). It is to meet these requirements that
Kelleher's (1991) interdependence-diversity paradox may be considered useful. Kelleher
explains his proposition this way:

As an approach to organizing data, the interdependence-diversity paradox
implies an inclusive definition of international education. International education
provides data, concepts, and alternative perspectives that students need to
analyze issues in the contemporary world - a world of cultural, ecological,
economic, and political diversity as well as increasing interdependence. (p. 4)

Lamy (1983) contributes to this discussion by reiterating that the purpose of global
education is to prepare students to meet complex challenges. This is how Lamy envisages
this type of education:
Global perspectives education, when done properly, is innovative—encouraging students to find creative solutions to new and challenging situations; anticipatory rather than reactive; and interdisciplinary, not limited to the social sciences. A global perspectives curriculum attempts to build an understanding and appreciation of public and private actions. (p. 18)

International education as global education is saturated with assumptions. One such assumption relates to the belief in the interconnectedness of peoples and nations. Johnson (1987) raises a concern for international education that is based on the oneness of humankind and the innate goodness of human equality. In Ramler's (1991) perspective, the notion of interconnectedness is exemplified by some of the realities facing peoples and nations today. According to Ramler: "we are witnessing remarkable and widespread population migrations, particularly from unstable to stable areas and from Third World to more affluent regions" (p. 44). Ramler suggests that this situation begs for international approaches to be taken in teaching and curriculum development.

Another underlying assumption of international education as global education relates to the social responsibility people have towards others and themselves. Ramler (1991) espouses this as follows:

Global education has a strong ethical dimension: a value system that calls us to accept responsibility for the well-being of our planet. This value system requires loyalty that, while in the interests of one's particular nation, is not exclusive to that nation: a loyalty that is a commitment beyond national boundaries. (p. 45)

Education is perceived to have a particular obligation, within a social responsibility construct. Gagliano (1992) for example, argues:

Educators should unabashedly advocate the transcendent educational imperative to internationalize: the world is worth knowing about for its own sake; global literacy is required of educated human beings because such understanding relates to the prospects of survival of our earthly habitat and our species. (p. 333)
In support of Gagliano's position, Pacheco (1992) is of the opinion that the pursuit of knowledge and truth obliges students and faculty, particularly in universities, to cross geographical and academic boundaries. This belief is based on a foundational position, embraced by Rash (1988), that education has the capacity to have a positive impact on humanity. Rosenau (1983) argues that this positive impact includes the ability for education to facilitate in students a "delicate and humane use of the senses and an imaginative and disciplined use of intelligence" (p. 35).

The approaches to and the spectrum of international education as global education vary. Peace education, multicultural education, citizenship education, area studies, and international schools are some of the common approaches. The issues of concern often include peace, environment, social justice, literacy and political awareness. In spite of the variations, Anchan (1993) contends that the central theme of global education has not changed. According to Anchan:

While global education has gone through a series of transitional changes, the basic concept has remained the same: interrelationships; international brotherhood and sisterhood; cooperation; just and sustainable development and environment well-being; humanistic respect for traditions, and altruistic approach to a better world. (p. 3)

International education as global education is not free from criticisms. The critics represent a wide range of perspectives from the left and right of the political spectrum. One of the better known criticisms, dependency theory, is perceived as radical by the developed nations. Lamy (1983) explains why this may be so:

The radical [dependency] perspective challenges the idea that every nation-state benefits from global interdependence. Instead, this world view assumes that international interactions are more beneficial for the rich and powerful actors in the global system. The so-called "symmetrical interdependence" that binds nation-states together does not characterize relations between rich and poor nations. The rich dominate the international economic, political, and cultural systems and
thereby take advantage of or control the human and material resources in the developing world. This perspective rejects the capitalist economic models and supports an increase in governmental intervention, at all levels. (pp. 16-17)

In other words, dependency theory doubts the genuineness of a symmetrical relationship between the developed and the developing nations.

**Summary.** The literature points out that international education as global education is perceived in a variety of ways. The emphasis on issues and strategies are consequently different. Yet, as noted by Anchans (1993), the recurring theme remains the interdependence of peoples and nations. Given this central theme, a primary goal of international education is to accept responsibility for the well-being of planet earth. This perspective of international education accepts the responsibility as one which requires a global loyalty and response. Apparently, this suggestion is perceived with suspect by proponents of dependency ideology. In spite of this, international education as global education continues to be promulgated (Falcetta, 1993; Buell, 1993; Sommerness, 1994).

**International Education as Economic Development**

A perspective which appears to be gaining momentum in the developed nations is the orientation of international education as economic development. This route to international education is based on the belief that the world is undergoing rapid economic changes which require that national education systems respond accordingly if they are to adapt to the global changes. Karp (1989) expresses this consciousness in the following manner:

Changes of great magnitude have taken place in international relationships that will require comparable changes in . . . education. A growing interdependence, facilitated by inventions in communications and data processing, has knit individuals and groups together across national boundaries and has led governments into closer collaboration. Although much has been done to call attention to the need to internationalize the curriculum accordingly, the education enterprise . . . has a long way to go to keep abreast of the rapidly
The signs of global change are evident within the economic sphere. For instance, Dodds (1994) draws attention to the increasing dependency of national economies on world trade and global competitiveness. In more specific terms, Karp (1989) notes that some of the changes in the global economic scene include: the international movement of capital, the increased economic collaboration between governments, transnationalization, and communication and technological networks. To these may be added the increasing volume of foreign investment and the presence of foreign students (King & Fersh, 1989). Closer to the Canadian scene, the introduction of NAFTA and its implications for academic institutions have been addressed (Altbach, 1994). At the home front, post-secondary education is also challenged by government and industry. Calls for accountability, tightening of campus budgets, and responsiveness to political agendas are among the common external pressures on Canadian institutions.

In view of these global economic and political changes, the challenge is for education to respond appropriately. This point is explicitly made by Groenings (1987) who notes: "when education lags, the nation's ability to adapt, to progress, and to compete is impeded" (p. 68). The role of education, therefore, is to prepare a broad spectrum of a nation's population for a competitive edge. This relationship between the economy and education is well supported. Commenting on the province of British Columbia, Francis (1993) states:

Global boundaries are becoming increasingly porous. The future of British Columbia, therefore, depends on how competitive we are in the world economy and in the strength of our global literacy in international discourse. Virtually all areas of activity require effective communication with other cultures and global awareness skills. Hence, the education system plays a critical role in the preparation of British Columbians for productive living and working in an increasingly diverse world. (p. 2)
According to Groennings (1987), post-secondary education has a specific task in international education. Groennings states:

Thus in the knowledge-based economy which is also global, the role of our universities and colleges emerge as an underpinning of competitiveness. Higher education becomes the key to our prosperity and to our ability to earn enough to pay for our national defense and public services. It is higher education that is our bedrock in preparing our scientists and engineers, as well as our managers for the global economy. It is also a function of higher education to ensure citizen understanding of the global economic system which is creating vulnerabilities as well as opportunities for our citizens. (p. 65)

Echoing a similar proposition, Calvert, Currie and Larkin (1987) say this of universities:

The universities make major contributions to the economy through their various programs of education, enriching the quality of the human capital resources that are essential to spirited development . . . . Growth in the economy and growth in employment are closely related to the level of education of . . . workforce. The universities occupy a special place in the education systems as teachers of teachers. Advanced education will be critical to the aspiration to win in the tough competition of the marketplace. The quality of education, particularly advanced education, is now and will be a major determinant in attracting business enterprises. (pp. 1-2)

A priority for international education which is perceived from an economic perspective is on preparing the populace for economic participation. Reich (1991) advances an important line of thought in suggesting what this preparation should involve. According to Reich, "the important question - from the standpoint of national wealth - is not which nation's citizens own what, but which nation's citizens learn how to do what" (p. 3). The emphasis is, therefore, on the quality of the human capital. Given this focus, post-secondary institutions are seen as service providers of international education. What the services are, and how these are to be offered are likely to vary. Leginsky and Andrews (1994) note that as an economic activity, international education includes specific programs
that are marketed to firms and foreign students paying for services. To this list may be added: studies related to language, literature and culture; and social, economic, legal and political structures of countries of significance to a province or nation (Calvert, Currie & Larkin, 1987).

International education as economic development implies that education is a business. Subscribing to this position, Gilgan, College, Keays, McGee, Robinson and Scott (1988) call international education an "invisible export" (p. 1). In their commentary of international education as economic development, Leginsky and Andrews (1994) observe that "as a business, international education must adhere to the principles and practices of business administration" (p. 6). But, as these authors accurately note: "these are often vastly different from those of educational administration" (p. 6). This is one of the fundamental criticisms of international education as economic development; it propagates a bottom-line with the goal being profit-making. Haughey (1994) alludes to the resultant value conflicts when he raises the following questions:

Are colleges [and universities] seriously expected to pursue their international objectives through the use of cut-throat exclusionary tactics towards their competitors and buttressed by large capital investments? Who are these college [and university] warriors and from where do they receive their pools of capital? Indeed, these business principles "are often vastly different from those of educational administration (p. 6)." How can educational administrators - if it is possible - cope with these value conflicts? (p. 10)

For the post-secondary educational administrator, the questions posed above by Haughey are useful. The challenge is to work through the benefits as well as the costs of internationalization.

Additionally, international education with a narrow economic focus is detrimental to post-secondary education. This line of argument is particularly applicable for universities,
whose mandates are universal. One author who supports this is Schmidt (cited in Gagliano, 1992):

[The agendas of universities is to] embrace the entire world intellectually, serve the entire world's outstanding students and scholars, and carry forward for the entire world those acts of intellectual discovery, art, and imagination that will continue to transform the world far more than economic and political forces. (p. 326)

Arguably, international education as economic development is constraining, and does not allow for universities to become global institutions with global agendas. A possible strategy to counter a narrow conceptualization of international education as economic development is to integrate and incorporate international education into general education (King & Fersh, 1989). At the institutional level, this may be achieved by beginning with clarifying the purposes of international education, and integrating these into a balanced set of goals of the institution.

**Summary.** It appears that international education as economic development is premised on the need for nations to be competitive in a global market situation. Post-secondary institutions are deemed to have the capacity to service a nation by preparing its citizens for a competitive edge. One of the main criticisms against this view of international education is that it has a narrow, inward-looking economic bias. Consequently, critics point to the contradictory values between international education as a business, and international education as an educational phenomenon. At the institutional level, this translates into difficulties in balancing the global goals of post-secondary institutions, against more parochial ones.

**International Education as Organizational Development**

In a rather narrow sense, international education is also conceived as a vehicle for organizational development. Given the challenges inherent in recent global changes, a great deal seems to be at stake at the institutional level. Hughes (1992) draws attention to one
such concern, in his observation that institutional leadership rests with members "who can think and act with informed grace across ethnic, cultural, linguistic lines" (p. 47). Hughes is, of course, referring to the need for institutional members to be adequately prepared for participation in a rapidly changing world. This changing world, according to Hughes, requires the ability "to navigate difference" (p. 47). International education is, therefore, an opportunity for professional and personal development for institutional members.

Ellington (1992) makes reference to this when he notes that knowledge about teaching and learning in Japan has given him insights about his own American education system. In support of this, King and Fersh (1989) state:

The discovery of others is also the discovery of self; without the combination, training is possible but not education. Learning about and from other peoples and cultures will result not only in our increased knowledge and understanding of them, but also in contrasting perceptions of ourselves. Through involvement and appropriate study, we can be helped to develop desirable qualities of empathy, humility, respect, appreciation, gratitude, humor, and an overall sense of what it is to be human. (p. 29)

It appears that from this perspective of international education, it is not only the individual that benefits, but the institution as well. Such a rationale is based on the belief that a holistically rich individual will make a better member for an organization.

The perceived benefits to an organization for participation in international education are also prevalent. Kissouk (1993) sees international education as an opportunity for cross-cultural and cross-institutional development. Sharing a similar view, Knox (1990) observes that familiarity with international education in a foreign nation has a reverse benefit for the home institution. According to Knox, home institutions can clarify assumptions, stimulate innovations, expand options and anticipate trends as a result of participation in international education.
There is also the likelihood that the home institution may even make some money out of international education activities. This possibility is noted by Ebersole (1989) who sees international education as resource development. Falcetta (1993) agrees with the benefits given above, and adds that the list should also include: exposing students to an international perspective, sharing the institution's expertise with less developed nations, broadening campus and community perspective, generating positive media exposure, and re-stimulating a "can do" attitude on campus. The priority of international education as organizational development is, therefore, to advance the benefits to the organization and its community.

The claims of benefits inherent in this perspective of international education cannot go unchallenged. Two challenges are presented. First, it may be argued that "it is possible for international education to take on cosmetic aspects rather than substantially bridging cultures" (Sharma et al., 1991). In other words, it may well be that the whole organization does not benefit from participation in international education for one reason or another. Moreover, caution should be made that "going international" does not necessarily result in attaining the organizational benefits listed in the preceding paragraphs. As noted by Selltiz and Cook (1962), certain benefits and the extent to realizing these are conditional to environmental factors. Second, proponents of dependency theory are likely to reject international education as organizational development for its rather narrow and colonialistic focus. Arguably, this approach to international education is lineal, and appears to be in favor of organizations in the developed nations. This interpretation of international education only advances, rather than eliminates the underdevelopment of the Third World nations.

**Summary.** It may be stated that while certainly not a common approach in the literature, international education as organizational development is nevertheless upheld. This orientation to international education is premised on the belief that ultimately it is an
organization and its community that benefits from international education. In this approach, the priority is to use international education as a vehicle for promoting organizational development, be it through the professional development of members, or in generating income by marketing expertise. In critiquing this approach, two arguments are put forward. The assumption that an organization automatically benefits from participation in international education is rejected, on the grounds that the relationship between institutional environment and benefits of international education is ignored. Additionally, this approach to international education is rejected for its colonialistic implications.

A Typology of International Education Activities

The complexity and growth of international education activities in post-secondary institutions have posed a challenge for classifying international activities. An examination of the literature reveals that a number of typologies for international activities on college/university campuses have been offered. Speaking of colleges, Emerson (1994) proposes a four-part taxonomy of international education comprising: administrative, instructional, international student services, and outreach components. Within these four categories, may be placed specific international activities such as faculty development, internationalized curriculum, out-of-country study, and community continuing education. Barker (1995) claims that this taxonomy, which appears to be premised on administrative arrangements, can be usefully applied to universities.

Another taxonomy for international activities is offered by Reghenzani (1992), wherein international activities at the university level can be categorized into four dimensions: (1) technical and training projects, (2) inter-institutional agreements, (3) international students and scholars, and (4) international exchange and study abroad. Unlike Emerson's (1994) administrative classification, Reghenzani's is subject-based, hence, his taxonomy does not include international activities relating to an administrative nature.
A further proposition is made by Gruber (1995), who suggests a taxonomic hierarchy of twelve international activities. In descending order, Gruber's list includes: faculty development, internationalizing the curricula, study abroad, international students, administrator development, student exchanges, inter-cultural studies, campus-community programs, area studies, membership in international education consortia, technical assistance projects, and work abroad. Gruber's list is different from the others in that international activities are ranked in order of importance as perceived by faculty and staff. While the three taxonomies for international activities discussed above reflect the kinds of international initiatives within post-secondary institutions, the classifications have not offered a conceptualization which shows the underlying philosophies of the various international activities.

In view of this omission, the typology of international activities that is used in this study is consistent with the conceptual framework espoused in Chapter 1. To reiterate, within this framework, international activities can be classified into four dimensions of emphasis. These are: (1) development education-oriented activities, (2) global education-oriented activities, (3) economic development-oriented activities, and (4) organizational development-oriented activities. For the purposes of this study, international activities that are discussed under any dimension of emphasis are not to be treated as exclusive to that particular orientation. Instead, international activities may in fact reflect and represent various orientations. The placement of particular international activities in one dimension and not another is based on the researcher's judgment of what the primary emphasis may be. This is derived from a sensing of relevant literature, and not from institutional mission statements or goals.

The purpose of the following section was to review the literature related to international activities at post-secondary institutions. While the intention was not to list all conceivable international activities, an attempt was made to outline a representative list of
the kinds of initiatives found on campuses today. The review has a two-part focus. First, the philosophical backgrounds and assumptions underlying each dimension of emphasis are described. Second, descriptions of specific international activities, with a particular attention to their goals and priorities, are then presented.

**Development Education-Oriented International Activities**

International activities that have a development education orientation are usually based on a humanitarian philosophy. This philosophical basis suggests that post-secondary institutions in the developed nations have a responsibility to develop relevant skills and knowledge of those in the developing nations. This idea is represented in a 1986 submission from the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada (AUCC) to the Standing Committee on External Affairs and International Trade, as noted by Morrison (1986):

> Human resource development is a necessary foundation for all facets of economic and social development. It is at the core of linkages between Canadian and Third World universities and the various higher educational programs within Canada that educate and train students from developing countries and prepare our own citizens for development-oriented work. (p. 46)

Recent years have seen a decline in the role of post-secondary institutions in international development education, as non-government and private institutions have assumed greater participation. In spite of this, an examination of international activities in post-secondary institutions has shown that a few initiatives with an orientation to development education can still be found. The most common international activity in this category is the technical assistance project.

**Technical assistance projects.** For a number of decades, post-secondary institutions have worked with international organizations and governments in administering technical assistance projects in the less developed nations. Typically, post-secondary institutions participate in these types of international activities under grants or contracts
from external funding agencies. French (1992) notes that for United States universities, the principal funders have been the Agency for International Development, and the World Bank and its Foundations. In Canada, the primary funding agencies may well be CIDA, directly or through the Association of Canadian Community Colleges (ACCC), the World Bank, and its Foundations. Technical assistance programs often include having international students on campuses in the developed nations, or having faculty and staff delivering consultancy services abroad. Conover's (1994) account of Canadian projects in Indonesia and the Philippines embrace these features of technical assistance. For these kinds of international activities, the focus is on delivering needed services to the developing nations. Technical assistance projects are sometimes referred to as development assistance projects.

**Global Education-Oriented International Activities**

Initiatives within this category of international activities are premised on the rationale that post-secondary education has a responsibility to equip the citizenry with the ability to deal with a nation's global obligations. In education, a nation's obligations include the imperatives of economic, technological, political and environmental changes. According to Rahman and Kopp (1992), the objective of international activities within this orientation is "to work toward a world where knowledge and security begin replacing ignorance and fear as the lubricants of international relations" (p. 5). In the following paragraphs, a number of examples of international activities that lean towards global education are discussed.

**International studies and research.** There are variations in activities within this category. International studies programs have an international perspective, aimed at sensitizing students to human diversity. Global studies programs, however, are aimed at promoting awareness of global concepts such as change, conflict, and interdependence. According to Kobus (1983), the underlying objective of global studies and research is
"student acquisition of competencies which incorporate essential knowledge, skills, and attitudes" (p. 21). The literature seems to suggest that a common strategy in global studies programs is to infuse and integrate global perspectives as opposed to redesigning curriculum and research. International research is aimed at enhancing the flow of knowledge and skills across national boundaries. The common goal of these activities, in essence, is to shift the focus from a parochial emphasis to a broader worldview.

**Outreach programs.** International outreach programs differ in scope, size and strategies. Programs may be offered through seminars, public lectures, summer camps or via electronic means. Often, the focus is on different target groups. Commonly, outreach international activities programs involve community members as resource people. In spite of the various emphasis and strategies, the central tenet in outreach international activities is common. According to Chartock (1991), outreach international activities are premised on the belief that the more members of a community "learn about other cultures, the more they learn about their own and the links that connect all of us" (p. 50). Consequently, the objective of outreach international activities is to bring international community links with education.

**Branch campuses abroad.** While the development of branch campuses abroad is not a result of the globalization movement, it certainly takes on a new significance as the full extent of globalization is being realized. In his 1992 edition of *The Work of Nations*, Reich refers to the nation state as a meaningless fiction, with "no national products or technologies, no national corporations, no national industries" (p. 3). Applying Reich's observation to the development of campuses abroad, Hetcht (1991) suggests that while the traditional goal of campuses abroad has been to meet the requirements set at home, changing situations have necessitated new meanings to emerge. Subsequently, Hetcht argues that campuses abroad are now serving a globalized student body through an international curriculum.
With the three examples discussed above, one can also include student and faculty exchanges, study of foreign languages, and joint educational programs as international activities with a global education orientation. For the purposes of this typology, however, these latter activities are better placed in the other orientations of international education that will follow.

**Economic Development-Oriented International Activities**

International activities that are oriented towards economic development are premised on the underlying belief in an increasing global interdependence of nations. Within this fundamental belief, it is argued that comparable changes need to be made in the education systems of nations. Post-secondary institutions are, therefore, expected to prepare nations to be successful players in a global economy. This is the driving objective, one that can be adequately met only through collaborative efforts between industry, government and post-secondary institutions. But, as noted by Garavalia (1992), this task is not easy. In Garavalia's opinion, development of international competence requires "the linkage between science and technology, economics, politics, social structure, cultural systems, history, legal systems, and language" (p. 148). These various disciplines bring with them multiple meanings and their own hegemony that work against collaboration.

International activities with an economic bias vary considerably. In the following paragraphs, three examples are discussed. These are: specific country or area programs, language programs and corporate leadership programs. This list is representative of the kinds of economically-oriented international activities in some campuses today.

**Area/country studies.** Typically, an area or country study is focused on a particular geographical or cultural region or nation of the world which is of significance to an institution's stakeholders. Though often not the case, the principal goal of area studies is economic advancement for the host institution or nation. This is the case in Garavalia's
(1992) observation of one such program. In describing the goals of the Japan program at the University of Alabama, Garavalia observes:

The main goals of the Japan program are to expand and utilize, simultaneously, the knowledge and talents contained within the institution and facilitate economic development while furthering research and learning which can be applied for the improvement of the quality of life. It strives to demonstrate and, at the same time, reap the rewards of cooperation between industry and academia . . . . the program addresses the immediate need of the private sector while looking for long-term improvement of the economic vitality of the state. (p. 151)

It is obvious from the quote that the altruistic interests of a host institution constitutes a driving force behind area studies.

**Foreign language study.** A language program is typically offered by a post-secondary institution for the adult learner to gain survival linguistic skills in one of a number of languages in as short a period as possible. This type of language study differs from career linguistic studies one is likely to list under global education-oriented international activities. At the University of New York, Garavalia (1992) reports that sixteen languages are offered in its languages immersion program. According to this author, the participants in the New York program vary in backgrounds, needs and aspirations. As well, the strategies used in the program are innovative. For instance, there is an option to take a ten-day foreign language cruise in the Caribbean. It may be observed, however, that the objective of such a program is opportunistic.

**Business education.** Business education is a general term referring to a number of customized services that are developed in response to the globalization of the economy. Garavalia (1992) expresses the need for such types of international activities. According to Garavalia:

Business risks and opportunities increasingly transcend national and cultural boundaries. The new global manager must be able to manage these risks and take advantage of these opportunities. This requires a broader scope of
awareness, clarity of vision and depth of understanding than was the case in the past. It also demands new attitudes, knowledge and skills. (p. 161)

The corporate leaders global program is an example of these custom-tailored activities. The focus of this particular program is to train students and emerging corporate managers to function in international business. In one such program, the training involves academic study at a post-secondary institution and an internship in industry. The objective of the corporate leaders program and other business education programs is to develop cultural awareness and cross-cultural skills necessary for global competition. In the final analysis, the intention is to make money either through training people that will have a competitive edge in a global economy, or, through the provision of specific services for profit.

**Organizational Development-Oriented International Activities**

International activities that are oriented towards organizational development can be traced to the assumption that, ultimately, it is the organization that stands to benefit from internationalization. In other words, a competent organizational member contributes towards making a better organization. Consequently, it may be stated that a prime objective of international activities should be to foster organizational development through cross-institutional and cross-cultural linkages. The kinds of activities within this orientation are wide-ranging. A few examples are presented.

**International Students.** International students and scholars are often considered as resources. Moreover, a popular belief is that having international students and scholars contributes towards a greater academic and cultural richness. It is important to note that a distinction exists between the two populations (Kuhlman, 1992). This description deals with a sub-set of international students: exchange students. As international activities, exchange students programs vary in terms of their administration, admission requirements, length of stay, and funding sources. Merkur'ev (1991) supports student exchanges for
three main reasons. According to Merkur'ev, such programs are useful for the beginning scholar who "can have the opportunity to become acquainted with various scientific schools of thought . . . also become acquainted with the life and culture of other peoples . . . can meet young people from other countries and establish not merely professional but purely personal human contacts" (p. 45). Merkur'ev's position reflects a belief that the individual, and subsequently, the organization gains from having international students on campus and having its own students in foreign campuses.

**Staff and faculty exchanges.** Similar to a student exchange, a staff or faculty exchange is both an end in itself as well as a means for maintaining the international nature of post-secondary education. Speaking to the former rationale, Leginsky and Andrews (1994) cite the example of Albertans gaining professional development opportunities in Singapore. In Leginsky and Andrews' example, both the individual and the Alberta institution stand to benefit from their Singaporean experience. Unfortunately, this argument is weakened by the widespread perception that teaching and research in international education is not linked to tenure or promotion decisions (French, 1992).

On the latter rationale, academic mobility in the form of faculty exchanges is a necessary part of post-secondary education as an international phenomenon. Carter (1992) addresses this point as follows:

We are focused on those faculty who have relatively weaker academic backgrounds in international areas or who desire to pursue international collaboration in their areas of research. This group of faculty generally require faculty development resources that are directed towards faculty exchanges so that they can be introduced to international contexts . . . . faculty in this category need development resources to support the expansion of their level of international competence so that they can pass on their competence to their students. (p. 45)
While the developmental needs in the above descriptions are different, Carter (1992) suggests that the strategies to meet these needs are similar. Among these are the provision of the following: funding for participation in international conferences, release time for development of international curricula, opportunities for interaction and collaboration with visiting scholars, and opportunities for overseas experience for faculty members.

**Joint research and publications.** The parochialism in educational research and publication is well-documented (White, 1990). The need, therefore, exists for collaboration in research and publication across institutional and national boundaries. It would appear that many joint research and publications by faculty members are not governed by formal agreements. Consequently, these initiatives have not received the publicity necessary to sustain them. Klasek (1992) observes that when external funding from government is involved, joint research is often formalized through agreements. Additional to joint research, publication and information exchanges, other strategies for collaboration have been suggested. Merkur'ev (1991) proposes the formation of world scientific research laboratories "for investigating topics of mutual interest" (p. 50). Merkur'ev's proposal is premised on the belief that post-secondary education, particularly universities, "exist and fulfill their higher calling only if they are simultaneously educational and research centers" (p. 49). This position has implications for the self interests of post-secondary institutions such as meeting provincial and national goals.

**Inter-institution networks.** A proposition in support of inter-institution networks is that a post-secondary institution stands to benefit from the free-flowing of relevant information and sharing of skills between and amongst institutions. Such networks take on a number of goals. Rahman and Copp (1992) speak of a university disseminating information regarding international education and services to interested parties locally and internationally. Dias (1994) cites a number of inter-university networks involving: Southern African nations, and the University of Utrecht in the Netherlands; the
University of Pennsylvania (United States) and Universities of Ibadan (Nigeria), Gaborone (Botswana) and Tunis; and a program between 70 universities in 18 countries in the Asia Pacific region. According to Dias, attention in these networks is "focused on universities, through the reinforcement of networks" (p. 105). The author goes on to say:

The approach is innovative in the sense that preference is given to networking than to agreements among individual institutions. One must not forget that in several countries, the universities are the unique institutions able to train researchers, of course, but also to do research. In other words, any scientific and technological development policy in these countries goes necessarily through the reinforcement of university institutions. (p. 105)

Particularly in the developing nations, the autonomy and significance of universities is highlighted through networking arrangements.

**Summary of Typology**

In the preceding pages, a typology of international activities in post-secondary education was reviewed. A classification of the activities was offered under four underlying distinct but related orientations of emphasis. For development education-oriented international activities, a common initiative is the international technical assistance project. For global education-oriented international activities, campus initiatives include international studies and research, foreign languages, outreach programs, and campuses abroad. Under the category of economic development-oriented international activities, a review of the literature shows that campus activities include area studies, foreign language studies, and business education. Within the sphere of organizational development-oriented international activities, the literature suggests such initiatives as student and faculty exchanges, joint research and publications, and inter-institution networks. Table 2 depicts a typology of international education activities.
Table 2

A Typology of International Activities

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<th>Orientation of International Activities</th>
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<td>Development Education</td>
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<td>Campuses abroad</td>
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Post-secondary Governance

According to Baldridge (1971), governance is defined as "the complex of structures and processes that determine the critical decisions and sets the long-range policies" (p. 71). Speaking specifically of post-secondary education, Manahan, Garland, and Bettis (1985) echo this definition in the following quote:

Governance is defined to include the arrangements for decision making by which colleges and universities carry on their work- the procedures by which standards are maintained, and the rules, powers and forces beyond the campus that shape the policies of higher education. (p. 37)

It seems, therefore, that academic governance refers to the interrelationships between roles, structures, and processes by which policy decisions are made.

Given this broad definition of governance, it is necessary to state that for this study, the distinction between internal and external governance needs to be made. Again, the purpose of this study was to examine the nature and adequacy of institutional governance of international activities. Consequently, the level of governance under scrutiny is
principally the internal. The Manitoba University Education Review Commission (1993) distinguishes the two levels of educational governance as follows:

By *external governance* we refer to the set of policy and funding relationships between the universities and colleges and their principal funder, the Government of Manitoba. This relationship is conducted, at present, through the Universities Grants Commission for the universities, and the Department of Education and Training for the community colleges. By *internal governance* we refer to the system by which the universities and colleges conduct their own affairs. (p. 56)

The internal governance of post-secondary education takes on many forms and occurs in many environments. Accepting this as an integral part of the study on governance, the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education (1973) affirms that:

Internal governance in practice has not followed a single consistent theoretical pattern; rather, it has usually related to the particular functions being performed—many diverse functions have given rise to many diverse forms of governance: We consider this diversity in governance both inevitable and to a degree desirable, given the many quite varied functions performed on a complex campus. (p. 14)

The absence of an agreement necessitates that there be a discussion of the theoretical bases of the common approaches to post-secondary educational governance. The following section was, therefore, intended to provide a theoretical foundation within which the governance of international education in Saskatchewan post-secondary education was examined.

**Approaches to Academic Governance**

As organizations, post-secondary institutions share common features with all other organizations. For instance, all organizations have goals, governance structures and processes, as well as diverse roles that are assigned to the various organizational members. On the other hand, as academic organizations, universities and colleges are deemed to be different. Baldridge, Curtis, Ecker, and Riley (1977) share this position as follows:
To summarize, academic organizations have several unique organizational characteristics. They have ambiguous goals, that are often strongly contested. They serve clients who demand a voice in the decision-making process. They have a problematic technology, for in order to serve clients their technology must be holistic and adaptable to individual needs. They are professionalized organizations in which employees demand a large measure of control over institutional decision processes. Finally, they are becoming more and more vulnerable to their environments. (p. 14)

Accepting the foregoing to be a valid description of the nature of post-secondary institutions, it appears difficult to suggest a single model that is adequate to describe the governance of universities and colleges. The following review, therefore, covers literature relating to a number of patterns of academic governance which are deemed relevant for post-secondary education. As these patterns are adequately discussed in the popular literature, this review is confined to an overview of some of the weaknesses and contributions of each governance approach.

**The bureaucratic approach.** The bureaucratic approach to governance is based on Weber's (1947) historic writings on complex organizations. This approach to governance sees organizations as a network of formal collectives with clearly defined goals (Blau & Scott, 1962; Etzioni, 1964), and organized to maximize efficiency (Scott, 1987). According to Weber (1947), maximizing efficiency in complex organizations requires regulating the organization on the principle of "legal rationality." This is why the bureaucratic model is marked by division of labor, specialization, and chains of command and communication. As a result, the focus of attention for this model is on the formal structures of an organization.

In applying Weber's model to post-secondary institutions, Stroup (1966) has confirmed that universities (and colleges) have characteristics that meet the espoused features of bureaucracies. These characteristics include: the use of competence for
appointments and promotions, the use of formal lines of authority and communication, security in the tenure system, and the separation of personal from organizational interests. Stroup's observation is undoubtedly correct, but the bureaucratic model falls short in a number of respects.

According to Scott (1981), the model is limited in its ability to capture the multiple goals of post-secondary education as well as rapid environmental changes affecting governance. Additionally, Baldridge et al. (1985) are of the view that the model does not encompass informal power and influences, or the politics of governance. In spite of these weaknesses, the strength of the bureaucratic model of governance is in its ability to capture the bureaucratic factors and the complex nature of post-secondary institutions. For this study, this approach to governance is likely to be useful in addressing concerns for organizational efficiency.

**The collegial approach.** The collegial approach to academic governance is premised on the concept of "a community of scholars." This concept assumes that post-secondary institutions are made up of faculty that are technically competent to make decisions within such organizations. Millett's (1962) argument adequately captures the essence of this model:

I would argue that there is another concept of organization just as valuable as a tool of analysis and even more useful as a general observation of group and interpersonal behavior. This is the concept of community . . . . the concept of community presupposes an organization in which functions are different and in which specializations must be brought together, in a harmonious way. But this process of bringing together, of coordination, if you will, is achieved not through a structure of super-ordination and subordination of persons and groups but through a dynamic of consensus. (p. 235)

It, therefore, appears that under a collegial approach to governance, the formal structures are de-emphasized, and instead, the collegiality of the organizational members is valued.
Consequently, participation by members in the governance process is deemed necessary. Moreover, this model advocates that particularly in post-secondary education, staff and students need to participate in the governance process.

A number of limitations have been directed at the collegial approach. For instance, the collegial approach ignores variability in member competencies, levels of decision-making, types and sizes of organizations, and organizational cultures. As well, Baldridge et al. (1985) suggest that the model is unrealistic because it does not take into account the political nature of decision-making. The Manitoba University Education Review Commission (1993) extends this position by arguing that "the principle of collegiality should not be extended beyond academic concerns lest it encroach upon operational decisions of an executive nature" (p. 64).

On a positive note, however, the collegial approach recognizes the competence of faculty to contribute in decision-making, particularly on matters of an academic nature. Moreover, Baldridge et al., point out that a major contribution of the collegial approach to governance is "in declaring that simple bureaucratic rule making is not the essence of decision-making" (p. 19). For this study, the collegial approach to governance is advantageous in explaining stakeholder input in governance.

**The political approach.** The political approach to academic governance is based on the assumption that universities and colleges are made up of interest groups with conflicting interests and values (Baldridge, 1971). According to Baldridge, the goal of these interest groups is to influence organizational decisions to their favor. A central tenet of this model is its focus on power and conflict. In his application of university governance on the basis of this model, Baldridge makes the following observation:

Thus the decision model that emerges from an investigation of the university's political dynamics is more open, more dependent on conflict and political action. It is not so systematic or formalistic as most decision theory, but it is probably
closer to the truth in many respects. (p. 192)

In his commentary on this model of governance, Glanville (1986) observes:

A model which views decision making as a bargaining process emphasizes the conflicting aspects of alternatives under consideration. It also highlights the compromise nature of the decision process. In order to understand why a particular alternative is chosen, one needs to be aware of the various parties involved in the decision making process and what their points of view are at the time the decision is made. (pp. 22-23)

The political model of governance has limitations. As a conflict-oriented approach to governance, the model seriously underestimates the influence formal structures and professional ethics have over governance decisions. Moreover, as noted by Baldridge et al. (1985), the political model "[does] not give enough emphasis to long-term decision-making patterns, and it [fails] to consider the way institutional structure may shape and channel political efforts" (p. 24). In spite of these limiting factors, it can be said that the political approach to governance is useful in highlighting the pluralistic nature of organizations, and the potential for conflict as interests are articulated and negotiated. For the purposes of this study, the political approach is useful to examine the plurality of governance and the inherent conflicts.

The organized anarchy approach. This approach to educational governance is based on the assumption that as organizations, post-secondary institutions are organized anarchies (Cohen, March & Olsen, 1972) or loosely-coupled institutions (Weick, 1976). In other words, because universities and colleges have ambiguous goals, poorly defined technologies and divergent interests, the institutions are not as rational or hierarchically lineal as proponents of the bureaucratic model would have us believe. Consequently, the governance process of these institutions can be best described as the "garbage can" decision model. In explaining the central idea of this model, March and Olsen (1976) state:

The garbage can process . . . one in which problems, solutions and participants
move from one choice opportunity to another in such a way that the nature of the choice, the time it takes, and the problems it solves all depend on a relatively complicated intermeshing of the mix of choices available at any one time, the mix of problems that have access to the organization, the mix of solutions looking for problems, and the outside demands on the decision makers. (p. 36)

The garbage can model rejects a rational approach to governance. While both the political and the organized anarchy approaches agree that the basic features of post-secondary institutions are similar, the two models disagree on how goal decisions are reached. In the organized anarchy model decisions are reached as a result of the chance interplay of organizational participants and issues. The political model, however, propagates an elitist and calculation-oriented view of decision-making.

Among the weaknesses of the organized anarchy approach, two may be listed. First, the model places too much emphasis on chance at the cost of human, structural and technological influences. Consequently, manipulative behavior by organizational members may go unnoticed or uncondemned. From a moral perspective, this is not desirable for educational institutions. Second, the perception that the model holds of organizations is problematic for any substantial strategic organizational planning to take place. Again, a lack of strategic planning is not only risky, but undesirable as well. On a positive tone, however, a strength of the organized anarchy model is its ability to encompass situations of organizational uncertainty. For this study, the organized anarchy approach is useful for accommodating flexibility and uncertainty in the governance of international education.

**Governance of international activities.** The literature on the governance of international activities is scant, hence, a comprehensive review is not possible. What follows, however, is a brief examination of the available literature, with a focus on some of the models that have been proposed. In a model describing the process of institutionalizing of international education, Davies (1992) suggests that international education can be viewed along two dimensions. He explains his proposition this way:
Some universities [and colleges] will take abroad international elements in a sporadic, irregular, often knee-jerk way, with many loose ends in terms of procedure structure. Others will develop precise explicit procedures in an ordered and systematic manner. There is thus a spectrum from the ad hoc to the highly systematic. For some universities [and colleges], internationalism is essentially a relatively marginal activity - an interesting and stimulating addendum to a predominantly regional or national focus. For others, internationalism is highly central to their work and permeates every aspect of institutional life. We thus have another spectrum from marginality to centrality. (pp. 187-188)

Davies (1992) combines these two dimensions in a matrix constituting quadrants: (1) ad hoc-marginal, (2) systematic-marginal, (3) ad hoc-central, and (4) central-systematic. The supposition is that international education can be either a marginal or a central activity in an institution's agenda. If international education is marginal, institutional governance can be ad hoc, or systematic. In the same way, if international education is central to an institution's agenda, governance can also be ad hoc or systematic.

In an extension of the Davies model, Van Dijk and Meijer (cited by de Wit, 1995) introduce three dimensions of internationalization: policy, support and implementation. In describing the model, de Wit (1995) explains:

A policy . . . be marginal or priority; the support can be one-sided or interactive; and the implementation can be ad hoc or systematic. This development model . . . an extension of the Davies model which "only considers the design (structural/ad hoc) of the organizational dimension and not the way it is managed (at central level/within the faculties (peripheral) or interactive)." [This] model makes it possible to distinguish different processes of development within an institution. (pp. 23-24)

In terms of how institutions organize themselves in governing international education initiatives, a number of examples have been found in the literature. For instance, Ebersole (1989) claims that governance of international activities is often decentralized.
This particular author observes that colleges commonly place responsibility for international education to one of three units: the instructional unit, the institutional development unit, and the president's office. According to Ebersole, when the instructional unit is responsible, the academic staff appear to be accountable for much of the program administration. At colleges where the institutional development unit administers international activities, a vice-President or a director of development is the major player. Often, the focus of international education is economically driven. Commonly, the president of a college executes direct responsibility for international education. When this happens, Ebersole (1989) notes that "the president retains strong programmatic control" (p. 30).

In another example, Davies (1992) observes three principal patterns: governance by departments, by specially designed centers, and by an international office. According to Davies, departments that are involved in teaching and research, typically have the expertise to educate and administer international students registered in their departments. Moreover, Davies notes that at times, it may be necessary to create specially designed centers to administer industrial research or technology transfer programs. One such program, as described by Garavalia (1992), is the Japan Program at the University of Alabama-Tuscaloosa.

In this particular program, a leadership group comprising high-ranking university and corporate officers are responsible for setting, implementing, and evaluating policies. Such autonomy is based on a need for vigorous entrepreneurial behavior, which is deemed to be beyond the capability of a university department to provide. According to Davies (1992), this third pattern of international offices have become significant ways of generating contracts and intelligence.

Innovative ways of governance have also been noted. In one such example, Kuhlmar. (1992) observes that while international activities have traditionally been
governed under an international office, Internationalizing Student Life Program, of the Michigan State University has not. Instead, this particular program is the responsibility of the Students Services Division through a committee. In another example, Flournoy (1992) records a community-based advisory committee that is responsible for organizing a variety of international activities as part of the outreach program of a rural university. Such innovations are exceptions, as there appears to be a preference in the literature for an institution-wide systematic governance. Alternatively, these innovative approaches may be perceived as sporadic structures within institutions where international education remains a marginal focus.

Another governance arrangement noted by Rahman and Kopp (1992) is seen at the Pennsylvania State University. According to the two authors, internationalization is coordinated under the auspices of a central Office of International Programs. This central office consists of three divisions: The Office of Education Abroad Programs, The Office of International Students, and The Office of International Cooperative Programs. Each of these three divisions have their own areas of focus, tasks, and particular networks, yet at the same time, a central office is needed. Rahman and Kopp (1992) explain why and how this is the case:

[A] central office of international education and programs can serve the greater goal of promoting international education best by acting as a catalyst. The trick is to provide a central focal point for things international, but not to be overbearing; to encourage cooperation, but not to kill initiative; and above all, to exude commitment and conviction that "international" is the way of the future; and then, to facilitate. (p. 16)

A similar sentiment is expressed by Harari (1992) who succinctly outlines the multiple roles of a centralized agency. In a rather lengthy quote, Harari states:

The critical role of a Centre for International Education . . . whatever that unit might be called, is to serve as a catalyst for institutional change in favor
of internationalizing the total institution, especially with respect to its undergraduate education, international linkages with other countries, the stimulation of the internalization of the curriculum, the implementation of quality services to international students coming to campuses, the encouraging of study abroad, the generation of funding and of opportunities for faculty development in the international area. It must strive to provide leadership from the side while providing an endless diversity of routine administrative services . . . it must work closely as an integral part of the faculty with respect to the curriculum . . . as well as to individual faculty members and students to help them fulfill their professional objectives. It must be truly service-oriented and non-turf seeking while striving to create more order and program quality in the myriad of activities . . . It must accent planning as well as innovation . . . be entrepreneurial and generate funds without compromising quality or ethical considerations. (pp. 71-72)

It seems then, that systematic governance for international education is neither centralized nor decentralized, but rather that various structures, roles and processes may be simultaneously at play within an institution. In other words, governance of international education in post-secondary institutions is likely to be messy and disorderly.

Consequently, a rational approach to the subject as reflected in the Davies (1992) and the van Dijk and Meijer (cited by de Wit, 1995) models is constraining for analysis. This is because the models are not likely to encompass a problematic context. Instead, a policy analysis model, espoused by Etzioni (1988) is offered as a basis for examining the adequacy of governance of international education initiatives.

A deontological policy approach. The governance of international education in post-secondary institutions is a complex matter. Often, conflicting conceptualizations of international education make internal governance problematic. As well, the scope of international activities, the number and type of participants, their degree and level of participation, are often wide-ranging. Moreover, the divergent needs of stakeholders are at times in conflict with each other. When these conditions are taken together, the need for an
encompassing analytical framework seems necessary. Consequently, Etzioni's (1988) deontological paradigm to policy analysis is suggested as a suitable framework for such a problematic context. In the following paragraphs, the deontological paradigm is outlined, with a particular focus on its main tenets, and its potential contribution for the analysis of governance.

According to Etzioni (1988), the deontological paradigm is premised on the belief that:

individuals [are] able to act rationally and on their own, advancing their self or "I," but their ability to do so is deeply affected by how well they are anchored within a sound community and sustained by a firm moral and emotional underpinning- a community they perceive as theirs, as the "we," rather than as an imposed, retraining "they." (pp. ix-x)

In other words, it seems that the deontological paradigm embraces individual rationality, yet, this rationality is exercised, influenced, and sustained within the context of a community. This position is different from a purely neoclassical paradigm which champions the maximization of pleasure, without regard for values. From a governance perspective, the deontological paradigm is encompassing, and accommodates the political nature of governance, the influences of affective and normative considerations, as well as concerns for efficiency and effectiveness.

As a paradigm, Etzioni's (1988) deontological approach is based on three fundamental assumptions. First, that individuals pass moral judgments over their urges, and consequently pursue moral commitmens as a cause. This position is contrasted with a neoclassical paradigm which holds that individuals seek to maximize pleasures at all costs. Second, that people seek means largely on the basis of emotions and value judgments, and only secondarily on the basis of logical considerations. This view may be contrasted with a neoclassical one which subscribes that individuals seek the most efficient means to achieve goals. Third, that individuals are members of social collectives, and that it is these social
collectives that significantly shape individual decisions. This position is different from a neoclassical view which suggests that individuals act independently in their choice-making.

From these basic assumptions, measures of adequacy of policy can then be derived, constituting a template for assessing the governance of international education. For instance, if a goal of an international initiative is to maximize economic benefits for an institution, the deontological paradigm requires that the espoused goal, the means to achieve it, and the actual results obtained need to be morally satisfactory. The capacity to offer a values-based balance to policy or governance considerations is an advantage.

Other contributions of the deontological paradigm to policy analysis are also evident in other areas. In the following quote, Etzioni (1988) refers to the limited human ability to make good decisions and the legitimacy of values and morals:

Most times we lack the knowledge needed for sound decision. Hence, we must proceed carefully, ready to reverse course, willing to experiment; in short, humbly. Humility extends beyond the limits of the mind; it is fostered by the deontological assumption that others are to be treated also as ends and not merely as means. We hence become more willing to truly consult (not as a form of manipulation but as a way to form consensus), to take into account the needs of others and of the community, both out of ethical and practical considerations. (p. 244)

Yet another positive contribution of the deontological paradigm is its capacity to treat both structure and power as important elements in any analysis. Etzioni (1988) elaborates on this in the statement:

Suffice is to note here that structural changes, especially toward a more responsive community, require more than knowledge or even consensus; they often entail mobilization of power by those who are keen on change, to overcome the opposition of those committed to the status quo, as reflected in the civil rights . . . not to suggest that those who favor change are . . . in the right and that those opposed are without merit; the point is that structural changes are rarely propelled merely by knowledge, emotion and even values; the exercise of power
(not necessarily force!) is often required. (p. 245)

From the above description, it appears that for policy analysis, the deontological paradigm is useful in accommodating affective-normative issues, the morality of cooperation, and the relationship between structures and power.

**Summary of Post-secondary Governance**

In the preceding sections, a brief overview was made of the concept of and approaches to academic governance of post-secondary education. In a bureaucratic approach to governance, the structural considerations are emphasized. Rationality is championed while innovation and autonomy are not emphasized. In a collegial approach to governance, the technical competence of the faculty is championed. Ideally, participation is encouraged and governance decisions are reached through consensus. Within a political approach, the emphasis is on divergence and conflict. This emphasis assumes that governance is based on contentious and calculated interactions between divergent interests. For an organized anarchy approach, governance is deemed to be the result of a chance encounter of organizational participants and issues. The organized anarchy approach rejects considerations of rational and human influences on governance. Taken together, these four approaches to governance provide a theoretical foundation for examining how international activities are governed in post-secondary education.

Moreover, a review of literature relating to the governance of international activities was undertaken. Two models were discussed. In the Davies (1992) model, international education is said to be either ad hoc-marginal, or central-systematic. In the model by van Dijk and Meijer (cited by de Wit, 1995), internationalization can have policy which is marginal or priority; support which is either one-sided or interactive; and implementation which is either ad hoc or systematic. The literature on structural organizations appears to show a number of approaches including, centralized governance, decentralized patterns, and some innovative arrangements. The complexity of the governance context seems to
point to the inappropriateness of a rational approach to governance. Hence, a deontological policy model was suggested instead. This model is premised on an adherence to moral commitments and the foundational nature of social collectives. The deontological approach is useful in highlighting the importance of values and morals, the inability of humans as decision-makers, and the relationship between structures and power.

**Summary of the Literature Review**

In Chapter 2, literature relating to international education and post-secondary educational governance were reviewed. Using Leginsky and Andrews' (1994) model as a framework for analysis, international education was perceived from four distinct perspectives: as development education, as global education, as economic development, and as organizational development. With this framework, it appeared possible to distinguish the overriding rationale for particular international initiatives. Consequently, it was possible to place specific international activities within their philosophical orientations of emphasis.

For the section on academic governance, the review of the literature covered the various approaches to governance of post-secondary education. This task involved a discussion of the bureaucratic approach, the collegial approach, the political approach, and the organized anarchy approach to educational governance. As well, the Davies (1992) model and the van Dijk and Meijer (cited by de Wit, 1995) model for institutionalizing international education were described. Moreover, specific examples of governance strategies for international education initiatives were identified. The examples from the literature seemed to suggest that governance is predominantly perceived from a rational perspective. This, unfortunately, was a weakness, as it may not adequately capture the realities of campus experiences today. Additionally, a focus on the rational approach to governance ignored the moral dimension of the politics of governance. For a subject matter of numerous contradictions, such an omission is not acceptable. Consequently, a
deontological policy approach, suggested by Etzioni (1988) was advocated. This evaluative model upheld a balance between the rational and moral dimensions of governance. In the next chapter, the research methodology is justified and described.
CHAPTER 3

THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter outlines the research methodology which was used in this study. The chapter begins with a rationalization of the methodology used, followed by a discussion of the case study as a research tool. As well, the chapter describes the research methods and the procedures for data collection and analyses. The chapter ends with a discussion of the notions of validity, quality, generalizability, and ethics.

Rationalization for the Research Methodology

The purpose of this study was to understand the nature and adequacy of governance of international education in two Saskatchewan post-secondary institutions. The task required an in-depth examination of international education at the Saskatchewan Institute of Applied Science and Technology (SIAST) and the University of Saskatchewan (U of S). To this end, the research approach deemed to be most suitable was the case study.

This choice was justified from a number of considerations. First, the subject matter of this study, the "case" for scrutiny, could be distinctly located. Smith (1978) refers to this factor as a bounded system, whereas Yin (1989) calls it a "contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context" (p. 23). The subject matter is, therefore, particularistic. Shaw (cited in Merriam, 1988) explains this as follows: "case studies concentrate attention on the way particular groups of people confront specific problems, taking a holistic view of the situation. They are problem centered, small scale, entrepreneurial endeavors" (p. 11). Subscribing to a similar opinion, Stake (1988) explains:

The case is something deemed worthy of close watch. It has character, it has totality, it has boundaries. It is not something we want to represent by a score. It is not something we want to represent by an array of scores. It is a complex, dynamic system. We want to understand its complexity. (p. 256)
Second, the purpose of the research was to interpret a phenomenon in context. Consequently, it is necessary to look at the context of the research questions. As noted by Yin (1989), "'how' and 'why' questions are likely to favor the use of the case studies" (p. 19). Moreover, the desired end product also needs to be taken into account. For Merriam (1988), the end products of case studies are rich and thick descriptions:

The end product of a case study is a rich, 'thick' description of the phenomenon under study. Thick description ... means the complete, literal description of the incident or entity being investigated. It also means, 'interpreting the meaning of ... data in terms of cultural norms and mores, community values, deep-seated attitudes and notions, and the like'. (p. 11)

Interpreting a phenomenon in context is by no means easy. According to Yin (1989), one reason for this difficulty is "the boundaries between the phenomenon and context are not clearly evident" (p. 23). Consequently, case studies are heuristic. Adelman et al., (cited by Cohen and Manon, 1985), draw attention to this feature:

Case studies, considered as products, may form an archive of descriptive material sufficiently rich to admit subsequent reinterpretation. Given the variety and complexity of educational purposes and environments, there is an obvious value in having a data source for researchers and users whose purpose may be different from our own. (p. 146)

A third way for justifying this methodology related to the information to be obtained. Merriam (1988) argues:

A case study may also be appropriate when information gleaned from participants is not subject to truth or falsity but 'can be subject to scrutiny on the grounds of credibility'. In fact, the aim of a case study 'is not to find the correct or true interpretation of facts, but rather to eliminate erroneous conclusions so that one is left with the best possible, the most compelling, interpretation'. (p. 30)
Such a view that the information to be obtained is subjective is premised on an interpretive view of the social world. As Stake (1994) reiterates, "the study design draw(s) the researcher toward understanding of what is important about the case within its own world, not so much the world of the researcher and theorists, but developing its issues, contexts and interpretations" (p. 242). To achieve this end, Yin (1989) suggests that the use of multiple sources of evidence is necessary.

**The Case Study**

Numerous definitions have been given to the case study. Hofferbert (1974) describes the case study as "an in-depth examination of a particular instance . . . a particular dynamic instance that is, in some essential respects, an example of general . . . behavior" (p. 89). In the words of Adelman, Jenkins, and Kemmis (cited by Merriam, 1988), a case study is "an instance drawn from a class" (p. 10). The idea of a "bounded" system seems to be suggested here. Perhaps, the most technical definition is given by Yin (1989) who suggests that "a case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which multiple sources of evidence are used" (p. 23).

Perhaps Merriam's (1988) synthesis of the case study is the most useful. According to Merriam (1988, pp. 11-13), the case study has four fundamental components:

1. **Particularistic:** the case study has a specific focus be it a situation, an event, a program, or a phenomenon. The case is considered important for its potential to reveal or represent a general pattern.

2. **Descriptive:** the final product of a case study is a rich, thick description of the phenomenon under study; expressed in a variety of ways in order to capture the complexities of a situation.
3. Heuristic: the case study illuminates a reader's understanding of the phenomenon under investigation, providing new meanings, extending a reader's experience, and confirming what is known.

4. Inductive: the case study relies on inductive reasoning; consequently, "discovery of new relationships, concepts, and understanding, rather than verification or predetermined hypotheses, characterizes qualitative case studies" (p. 13).

This study was intended to display all four properties referred to above. The study was particularistic in that it focused on the nature and governance of international education in two Saskatchewan post-secondary institutions. It was descriptive in the sense that the study aimed at providing a rich, thick description of how, and how well each of the named institutions governed international education. As well, the study was heuristic because the "case" has potential for extending a reader's understanding of the subject matter. Finally, the study was inductive as conceptual constructs were derived out of evidences that were presented.

Furthermore, the study was aimed at examining the nature and adequacy of governance of international education in two distinct Saskatchewan institutions. Each of these sites could, therefore, be seen as single case studies. A replication logic, as opposed to a sampling logic, was used. Speaking from a quantitative perspective, Yin (1989) explains the replication logic in this manner:

The replication logic is analogous to that used in multiple experiments. Thus if one has access to only three cases of a rare, clinical syndrome in psychology or medical science, the appropriate research design is the one in which the same results are predicted for each of the three cases . . . . each of these situations, an individual case or subject is considered akin to a single experiment, and the analysis must follow cross-experiment . . . design and logic. (p. 53)
As this was a quasi-qualitative case study (in that a priori frameworks were used), the details of the replication logic as suggested by Yin are not applicable. What is important in his explanation, however, is the centrality of the notion of consistency in the replication logic. Consequently, for a quasi-qualitative study such as this, replication was perceived as the consistency of design and logic used in the various cases that make up the study.

In conclusion, the case study research approach was considered appropriate for an examination of the nature and adequacy of governance of international education in the two Saskatchewan post-secondary institutions.

**Data Collection**

The collection of data in this study was determined by the research questions outlined in Chapter 1. In the following sections, interview and document data are described, together with the processes of data collection.

**Interview Data**

The interview is a common data gathering method in case studies where often interviews are used to complement other methods. In this study, the interview was the primary data gathering method. The purpose of the interview was to obtain a rich description of the subject matter. According to Sherman and Webb (1988), "interviews permit researchers to verify, clarify, or alter . . . to achieve a full understanding of an incident, and to take into account the 'lived' experience of participants" (p. 125).

In order to maximize opportunities for the researcher to "see situations through the eyes of the participants" (Sherman & Webb, 1988, p. 130), open-ended interviews (Yin, 1989) were adopted. According to Yin, an open-ended interview is where key respondents, or more precisely, informants are asked for information or aspects of a matter and their personal opinion or insights into certain occurrences. This is unlike closed-ended interviews wherein respondents are limited to pre-determined questions. The research questions were used to formulate an interview guide which was used by the researcher.
Given that this was a study involving two institutions, it was important that a consideration be given to the replication logic for the interviews. Fowler's (1993) recommendations for standardizing interviewer behavior were followed. These included the way the study was presented, how questions were asked, the manner in which inadequate answers were probed, the way answers were recorded, and how interpersonal aspects of the interview were handled. The important point in paying attention to Fowler's suggestion was to ensure consistency in interviewer behavior. By doing this, the researcher hoped that between-interviewer variance, and between-case treatments were minimized.

The technique used in the study for selecting interviewees was "snowball sampling." This technique was used in order to get a wide cross section of institutional actors in international education. Additionally, it was thought that through snowball sampling, institutional actors who were knowledgeable on international education would be identified. Snowball sampling is a technique wherein the researcher asks the first person interviewed to recommend the next, who then recommends another, and so on. In snowball sampling, the number of interviewees, and the frequency of interviews are determined by the point at which data saturation has been achieved. According to Bogdan and Biklen (1982), this is the point of data collection "where the information you get becomes redundant" (p. 64).

In this study, initial interviews in each of the two Saskatchewan institutions were held with individuals who were identified by the researcher as ones who were primarily responsible for international education in their particular settings. These respondents became the key informants. It was from these individuals that the snowballing process started.

For SIAST, there were two key respondents, while for the U of S there were fifteen altogether. Most of the key respondents for the U of S were Associate Deans from
all the colleges. Two key respondents, however, were non college-based. Only three of
the respondents from the U of S key respondents group were re-interviewed as members of
the general sample group. Except for one of the two SIAST interviews, all the initial
interviews for both institutions were carried out between March 4-28, 1996.

For both SIAST and the U of S, the key respondents were deemed to be
knowledgeable about the nature and governance of international education in their
respective settings. Interviews with these key respondents lasted from forty minutes to an
hour each time. The information sought from the key respondents were two-fold: a list of
the international activities within their jurisdictions, and of institutional participants in these
activities. From these initial interviews the researcher was able to form an overview of
international education within the institutions. In many instances, key respondents also
supplied documentary data to the researcher.

In the general sample group, SIAST had fifteen respondents who were interviewed
between May 25 and June 13, 1996. Of these fifteen, four were senior administrators and
eleven were faculty/staff program deliverers. No students were interviewed although an
informal group discussion was held with three of the six international students at Wascana
Institute. Data from this informal meeting, however, was not incorporated into this study.
The institutional breakdown of SIAST respondents were: Woodland (4), Kelsey (2),
SIAST Secretariat (2), Palliser (1), and Wascana (6). At least one respondent was
interviewed as a skeptical observer of international education.

In the case of the U of S, a total of twenty-six interviews were administered by the
researcher between April 9 and June 31, 1996. All respondents represented a wide cross-
section of the university, with four administrators, twenty faculty/staff program deliverers,
one visiting scholar, and one student. One respondent was a critic of international
education at the U of S.
In both case studies, all interviews were voluntary, and administered by the researcher following the interview guide (Appendix A). The sessions were tape-recorded and lasted between 40-60 minutes. Interviews were held in faculty/staff offices and at times chosen by the respondents. The taped interviews were transcribed by the researcher. Prior to administering the interviews, the interview guide was trial-tested by the researcher with four graduate students in the College of Education at the U of S.

**Documentary Data**

The term "documents" is used in a general sense to refer to printed and other materials relevant for a case study (Merriam, 1988). Yin (1989) offers a list which includes letters, memoranda, communiqués, agendas, announcements, minutes, reports, proposals, evaluations, news clippings and media articles. For the purposes of this study, the term "documents" was used in this general sense in order not to exclude any relevant sources of evidence. Consequently, documents used in this study included forms of data not obtained by interviews or personal observations.

The limitations and advantages of documents appear to be well established. Merriam, for instance, makes the following observations:

Because [documents] are produced for reasons other than research, they may be fragmentary, they may not fit the conceptual framework of the research, and their authenticity may be difficult to determine. On the other hand . . . they are non-reactive- that is, unaffected by the research process . . . . [documents] are a product of the context in which they were produced and therefore grounded in the real world . . . . artifacts cost little or nothing and are often easy to obtain. (p. 109)

The research questions outlined in Chapter 1, together with the conceptual framework guiding the study, were the basis for gathering and selecting documents. While some documents were obtained by the researcher prior to the interviews, most were gathered during the course of the study. Every effort was made by the researcher to collect
relevant documents from the respondents in the two Saskatchewan institutions. Appendix B contains a list of materials used in the documents analysis.

After having identified relevant documents, the researcher assessed their authenticity, coded and catalogued them with reference to the research questions. Appropriate on-going treatment was made of relevant documents along the lines proposed by Bogdan and Biklen (1982). These two authors suggest that document (and other) data analysis should force the researcher to: (1) make decisions that narrow the study, (2) make decisions concerning the type of study to be conducted, (3) develop analytical questions, (4) plan data collection sessions in light of what other data have yielded, (5) write "observer's comments" as one proceeds, (6) write memos to oneself about what one is learning, (7) try out ideas and themes on subjects, (8) explore literature while in the field, and (9) play with metaphors, analogies, and concepts. In analyzing the documentary data, the researcher was guided by Bogdan and Biklin's suggestions, particularly #3, #4, #5, #6 and #7.

**Data Analysis**

Sense-making of data requires appropriate analyses. In defining data analyses, Bogdan and Biklen (1982) state:

Data analysis is the process of systematically searching and arranging the interview transcripts, field notes, and other materials that you accumulate to increase your understanding of them and to enable you to present what you have discovered to others. Analysis involves working with data, organizing it, breaking it into manageable units, synthesizing it, searching for patterns, discovering what is important and what is to be learned, and deciding what you will tell others. (p. 145)

Miles and Huberman (1984) observe that data analysis consists of three concurrent flows of activities. These authors explain the activities as follows:
1. Data Reduction: is the process of selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting, and transforming the "raw" data. This process takes place throughout the life of a qualitative study.

2. Data Display: is an organized assembly of information that permits conclusions to be drawn and actions to be taken. As with data reduction, displays take place throughout the life of a qualitative study.

3. Conclusion Drawing/Verification: is deciding what things mean, noting regularities, patterns, explanations, possible configurations, causal flows and propositions. This process begins while data is collected, but is verified and tested as analysis proceeds.

Data collection and analysis are concurrent activities in qualitative research. Consequently, analysis of documentary data was incorporated with those from the interview data. The research questions formed the basis for the general strategy for data analysis. More importantly, however, the conceptual frameworks used in the study constituted the templates for deductive data analysis.

To recap, research questions 1, 2 and 4 were answered using documentary and interview data. Research question 3, however, was analyzed in a number of ways. First, respondents were asked to suggest the criteria they would use; and using their suggested criteria for assessing the adequacy of governance of international education respondents were then asked to make their own assessment. Second, criteria which were derived from the governance model used in the study also formed a basis for analyses. Consequently, respondents were asked to assess governance on the basis of a number of rational criteria. Then again, respondents were asked to assess governance on the basis of moral considerations. Table 3 outlines the criteria for assessment as derived from the general literature and based on Etzioni's deontological model for evaluating policy.

In addition to the deductive data analysis, inductive methods of data analysis were conducted for both the documentary and interview data. According to Lecompte and
Table 3
Assessment Criteria for Governance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Focus</th>
<th>Criteria</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 3 (a)    | Efficiency | Clarity of goals  
|          |          | Coordination  
|          |          | Supportive structures  
|          |          | Systematized procedures  
|          |          | Feedback mechanisms |
| 3 (b)    | Morality | Shared goals  
|          |          | Concern for processes  
|          |          | Personal relationships  
|          |          | Empowerment  
|          |          | Concern for "ought to" |

Preissle (cited in Mitchell, 1995), inductive analysis involves the "constant comparison method of comparing data with one another in order to find similarities and differences" (p. 71). Appropriate coding of data, guided by Miles and Huberman's (1984) suggestions, was undertaken to identify emerging questions, themes, and key ideas. Where conflicting data were evident, the researcher judged the validity of a divergent claim according to frequency of occurrence, or by refining emerging definitions.

Extensive matrix-building (see Appendix C for example) for each of the research questions was done along the lines suggested by Miles and Huberman (1984). This task became the basis for making sense of both the document and interview data. For Research Question 3, a positive assessment by respondents constituted an "adequate" rating while a
negative response was regarded as "inadequate." This was how the terms "adequate," "inadequate," or "not adequate" were used in the last four chapters of this study. In analyzing the data, cautions by Glaser & Strauss (1974) on "grounded theory" regarding issues of fitness, understandability, generality and control in qualitative research were heeded.

In Chapters 5-7, interview data were represented in percentage form (e.g., 70% of respondents) in the discussions on the adequacy of governance. While this form is not typically used in qualitative studies, the researcher wanted to portray a more clearer representation of the extent of support for the particular perspectives held by interviewees. To get the percentages, the researcher tallied answers into two categories: positive and negative responses. The actual figures quoted were the percentages of the sum of the two categories of responses to a particular interview question. The number of respondents who answered the questions related to the adequacy of governance varied. This meant that "n" was not the same for each of the assessment criteria used in the study.

Two important considerations of this study were to make sense of the collected data, and to report these in an acceptable manner. These goals could not have been achieved without the researcher dealing with concerns of trustworthiness. Consequently, in the remaining part of this chapter, issues of validation, quality, generalizability and ethics are discussed.

**Trustworthiness**

Salomon (1991) proposes that while the question of "overall warrant" may be answered differently by qualitative and quantitative research paradigms, it remains a common question for both approaches. In sharing this view, Merriam (1988) concludes that "in any event, the basic question remains the same: To what extent can the researcher trust the findings of a qualitative case study" (p. 166)? Perhaps, the best advice is to subscribe to the position that criteria for determining trustworthiness should be based on
assumptions of ontology, axiology, epistemology, and methodology that guide a particular research paradigm.

In this study the question of trustworthiness was considered from a qualitative perspective. Within this research perspective, answers to the questions, "how do you know?" or, "why should one accept your findings, observations, interpretations, and conclusions?" will differ from how validity is traditionally perceived. Within qualitative research, validity is, therefore, likely to be defined in terms of a coherence of description and explanation. For instance, Merriam (1988) notes that for the qualitative researcher, validity is obtained when a researcher presents "a more or less honest rendering of how informants actually view themselves and their experiences" (p. 168). Additionally, there must be consistency in the data collection, analysis, and reporting. Owens (1982) subscribes to this when he argues that naturalistic research is trustworthy when it is "accurate or based upon well-corroborated evidence" (p. 16). Owens goes on to suggest that validity is enhanced through the strategy of what Geertz calls a "thick description." Owens (1982) explains the notion of "thick description" in this way:

Thus, thick description conveys very much the sense of the web of interrelated contextual factors that is associated with the situation under study. Thick description is more than mere information or descriptive data: it conveys a literal description that figuratively transports the readers into the situation with a sense of insight, understanding, and illumination not only of the facts or the events in the case, but also the texture, the quality, and the power of the context as the participants in the situation experienced it. (p. 8)

A fundamental purpose of "thick description" and consequently of a qualitative case study research is to "take the reader there." Owens summarizes this as follows: "a basic purpose of . . . research report is to "take the reader there"- to provide a report that yield a rich sense of understanding events and of having insight as to their meaning or, more likely, meanings" (p. 17).
In this study, documentary data and interview data were cross-checked with respondents throughout the investigation to ensure that the accounts were "true" and the descriptions were accurate.

Another challenge for this study related to standards of quality. Salmon (1991) makes reference to this when he asks, "how would one know how to distinguish a scholarly interpretation . . . from that of a delirious observer" (p. 10)? To answer this question, the notion of "rigor" is an important consideration in qualitative research. Ogawa and Malen (1991) explain: "rigor involves adherence to principles and procedures, methods, and techniques that minimize bias and error in the collection, analysis, interpretation, and reporting of data" (p. 276).

Perhaps Lincoln and Guba’s (1985) suggestion that certain techniques be applied by researchers using qualitative methods to achieve dependability is in order. According to the two authors, the quality of a research can be assured when these conditions are adhered to:

1. The researcher’s position: the researcher should explain the assumptions underlying the study, the subject of study, the rationale for the particular respondents, and the context within which data is obtained.

2. Triangulation: the researcher should use multiple methods of data collection and analysis.

3. Audit trail: the researcher should document the nature of each decision in the research plan, the data upon which it is based, and the reasoning that goes behind it.

The final challenge for this study related to the issue of generalizability or external validity. The term generalizability is used to refer to the limit with which the findings of a particular study can be applied to other situations. Hence, the question "what is this study a case of?" must be dealt with. As Merriam (1988) and Yin (1989) observe, generalizability as perceived from a quantitative research, has often been problematic for
case studies. To overcome this, a re-conceptualization is needed when examining the notion of generalizability in qualitative research.

One perspective which is particularly relevant for this study is advanced by Cronbach as "working hypotheses" (Merriam, 1988, p. 174). According to Merriam, "working hypotheses" are rich accounts of local situations upon which other situations can be applied. In supporting this position Becker (1990) notes that researchers typically devise hypotheses about what they study, and then revise them when considering further findings.

Further insight into the notion of generalizability is reflected by Kennedy (1979) who contends that "generalizability is ultimately related to what the reader is trying to learn from the case study" (p. 572). Put in another way, Merriam (1988) observes, "it is the reader who has to ask, what is there in this study that I can apply to my own situation, and what clearly does not apply?" In this instance, the onus of concern for generalizability is on the reader, as opposed to the researcher. With this definition, the researcher sought to enhance generalizability by providing a rich, thick description and explanation as well as by conducting case studies of the governance of international education in two Saskatchewan post-secondary institutions.

**Ethical Considerations**

Like all research involving human subjects, this study needed to be attentive to the ethical manner in which the research was carried out. The responsibility for this lies with the researcher (Fowler, 1993; Merriam, 1988). Merriam states: "the best an individual researcher can do is to be conscious of the ethical issues that pervade the research process, from conceptualizing the problem to disseminating the findings" (p. 184).

Care was taken to ensure that respondents were appropriately informed of the purposes of the study, interviews were ethically administered, documentary data was ethically gathered, and analysis and reporting met with ethical considerations. As pointed
out earlier in this chapter, data for this study were obtained from respondents who voluntarily agreed to be interviewed or to supply documents. Both during the initial telephone contacts as well as at the beginning of interview sessions, the researcher always took time to explain the purposes, and uses of the study and the interview. Also, prior to the commencement of interviews, all respondents were given a copy of the consent form. Most respondents signed the consent form but a few thought it was not necessary. Throughout the study period, the researcher always ensured confidentiality in the access to, and storage of taped-interviews. As well, the rights of respondents to anonymity was always kept. The manner in which data were treated, from coding to analysis, as well as in reporting, always reflected the highest ethical standards for qualitative studies. Finally, this study did not commence until approval was granted from the University of Saskatchewan Ethics Committee (see Appendix D). Additionally, both SIAST (Appendix E) and the U of S (Appendix F) also granted written approvals prior to this study being undertaken.

**Summary of Methodology**

In Chapter 3, the case study approach was considered the most appropriate research design for this study because of its capacity to deal with the subjectivity of each case in context. The "case" in this instance, is both the phenomenon under investigation, and its distinct contextual settings. Consequently, this study was to deal with the nature and adequacy of the governance of international education in the two Saskatchewan post-secondary institutions. According to Merriam (1988), a case study has the advantage of being particularistic, descriptive, heuristic, and inductive. It is noted that this study did reflect these fundamental features.

The two data collection sources used were documentary and interview data. As this was a qualitative study, the data collection and analysis had to be paradigmatically consistent with the espoused research orientation. To meet concerns over "overall warrant", the study had to be coherent in description and explanation; consistent in data
collection, analysis and reporting; and provided a thick description and explanation. Moreover, to satisfy ethical concerns in qualitative research, a proposal was submitted to the University of Saskatchewan Ethics Committee, which granted approval before the study was conducted. In the next chapter, the institutional contexts of SIAST and the U of S are described.
CHAPTER 4
THE INSTITUTIONAL CONTEXTS

In this chapter, the two institutions, SIAST and the U of S are described. The first part of the chapter describes SIAST and the second section describes the U of S. In both cases, the discussion covers basic information pertaining to history, organization of the institutes/colleges, faculty and student demographics, institutional mandates and policy on international education.

**Saskatchewan Institute of Applied Science and Technology**

SIAST was established as a corporation under the Institute Act 1987 by the Legislative Assembly of the Province of Saskatchewan. SIAST was created as a single institution from the amalgamation of four vocational/technical institutes and four urban community colleges. At the time the study was undertaken, SIAST was governed by an external Board of Directors, and was offering vocational/technical programs at four institutes, namely: Woodland Institute in Prince Albert, Kelsey Institute in Saskatoon, Palliser Institute in Moose Jaw, and Wascana Institute in Regina. SIAST was served by a central Secretariat located in Saskatoon that was "responsible for planning, policy-making, coordination, standardization, and support within SIAST" (SIAST, 1996, p. ii). The Secretariat was created under the Institute Act 1987, and houses the President and forty-two other staff members (April 1, 1996). The majority of SIAST employees and students had little contact with the Secretariat on a day-to-day basis.

At the Institutes a Principal was the administrative head, and was assisted by Deans of programs. Typically, each program had an Advisory Committee with institutional and external membership. The function of the Advisory Committee was:
to provide an effective link between business and industry and the [SIAST] through its institutes by utilizing management, labor, employee and public sector leaders as advisors to programs. (SIAST Secretariat, 1996a, p. 1)

Where Trade Advisory Boards existed, these boards also assumed the role of the advisory committees. Trade Advisory Boards, however, had their functions stipulated in the Apprenticeship and Tradesmen's Qualification Act which came into effect in June, 1985.

In April of 1995, SIAST employed 2,204 faculty and staff members, and during the 1994-95 academic year, educational services were offered to 12,077 full-time and 33,001 part-time adult students throughout Saskatchewan (SIAST Secretariat, 1996b, pp. 1-2). At the time of this study, SIAST was offering programs in agriculture, applied sciences, basic education, business, community services, engineering technologies, human sciences, natural resources and trades. A variety of instructional techniques were used for the delivery of these programs. These techniques included: competence-based education, non-formal training, cooperative education, distance education, industry-based training, classroom and laboratory training.

The Institutes

The Woodland Institute consisted of five Centres; four of which were located in Prince Albert, and the other in Meadow Lake. Each of the centres offered specific programs in the following areas: applied arts, business, community services, trades and resources, adult upgrading, university credit, career information, extension, marketing and community-based programs.

The majority of Woodland programs were competency-based. This delivery method is premised on the belief, as expressed by the principal, that "the pursuit of learning and development is a life long journey; we are less concerned with where you begin academically and more concerned with where you aspire to go" (SIAST, 1996, p. 288). In
1994-95, Woodland registered a total of 7,515 students, of whom 1,942 students were full-time (SIAST Secretariat, 1996b, pp. 2-3).

Kelsey Institute was located in Saskatoon, with three different campuses. The Institute offered programs in adult basic education, health sciences, community services, industrial/engineering technology, and off-campus programs in a variety of disciplines. Kelsey Institute had a long tradition in adult education having had programs in this area since 1963. In the 1994-95 academic year, Kelsey Institute registered a total of 16,726 students, of whom approximately 13,000 were part-time (SIAST Secretariat, 1996b, pp. 2-3).

Palliser Institute was located in the city of Moose Jaw. At the time of the study, the Institute had a main campus with one other Centre from which the adult basic education program was delivered. Palliser Institute also offered programs in business, engineering/technology, industry and university credit courses. It was noted that Palliser Institute has had a long history, having offered some of its programs for forty years. Like Woodland Institute, Palliser Institute was comparatively smaller in terms of students and employee numbers. In the 1994-95 academic year, Palliser had a total student population of 7,935, of whom 3,570 were full-time. As well, in the same year, Palliser had a combined total of 474 employees (SIAST Secretariat, 1996b, pp. 2-3).

Wascana Institute was located in Regina, the provincial capital of Saskatchewan. The Institute was comprised of eight Centres located throughout the city. A wide variety of programs were offered including: office education, computer education, career services, agriculture, nursing, health records, dental therapy, early childhood, English as a second language (ESL), transition to work programs, industrial and technical programs, and adult basic education programs. In the 1994-95 academic year, Wascana Institute had a total student population of 12,902, of whom almost 3,000 students were full-time. Wascana Institute also had a total of 725 full and part-time employees (SIAST Secretariat, 1996b,
pp. 2-3). In the 1995-96 year, the first six international fee-paying SIAST students entered the Wascana ESL program.

The SIAST International Services division was located in Wascana Institute. This division was headed by a Director and assisted by six staff members. The Director reported to the Wascana Principal, although the service was SIAST-wide. International activities had long been a part of the distinct institutes prior to the amalgamation, and the establishment of the policy on international education in 1995.

**International Education Policy**

In April 1995, the SIAST Board of Directors passed a policy on international education formalizing the mandate for SIAST institutes to participate in international activities. In the preamble to the policy statement, the three-part rationale of a global community, development education and parochial economic interests, were cited. The argument was:

> By engaging in a variety of educational and development activities, SIAST will support sustainable development in developing countries and contribute to a more secure, equitable and prosperous world, and at the same time it can contribute to strengthening Saskatchewan's economic position in world markets. (SIAST, 1995a, p. 1)

The following activities and roles were approved in the policy statement:

- providing advisory personnel on overseas assignment for educational administration, instruction, program and curriculum development, and program evaluation;
- providing training opportunities to staff from overseas ministries or educational institutions to observe and participate in the training available at SIAST;
- developing, promoting and delivering joint venture educational training programs to international clients on a contractual basis that will support sustainable development in developing countries;
- providing programs and services to sponsored and fee-paying international students wishing to study in SIAST;
. working as partners with Saskatchewan and Canadian organizations, businesses and governments to seek international projects;

. explore the internationalization of educational programs through services such as the international accreditation of programs, the exporting of programs, the development of special vocational programs for international business, the internationalization of curriculum by using examples from other countries and highlighting international standards, courses that can assist Canadian citizens to prepare for work in other parts of the world, and international practice or coop programs; [and]

. other international activities consistent with the vision, values and goals of SIAST. (SIAST, 1995a, pp. 1-2)

The SIAST international policy was based on a number of principles including the following: gender equity, partnerships, and environmental sustainability (SIAST International Services, 1995b, p. 2).

The University of Saskatchewan

The University of Saskatchewan was the larger of the two universities in the province of Saskatchewan. The other, the University of Regina, was located in Regina, the provincial capital of Saskatchewan. The U of S was established in 1907 and was located in the city of Saskatoon. In the 1994-95 regular session, the U of S had an enrollment of 19,130 students, and a full-time academic staff of 1,000 (University of Saskatchewan, 1995a, pp. 2, 6). The U of S offered programs in thirteen different colleges, namely: Agriculture, Arts and Science, Commerce, Dentistry, Education, Engineering, Graduate Studies, Law, Medicine, Nursing, Pharmacy and Nutrition, Physical Education and Veterinary Medicine. All colleges offered Bachelors degrees. As well, through the College of Graduate Studies, Graduate Diplomas, Masters and Doctoral degrees were also offered in a wide variety of academic disciplines. A number of theological colleges were also affiliated with the U of S. These included: the College of Emmanuel and St. Chad (Anglican), St. Andrews College (United Church), Lutheran
Theological Seminary (Lutheran) and Central Pentecostal College (Pentecostal Assembly). Also affiliated with the U of S is the Gabriel Dumont College.

From a governance perspective, the U of S was guided by a number of bodies set up under The University Act. The Convocation, composed of the Chancellor, the Senate, and all graduates was empowered to "consider all matters affecting the interests and well-being of the university and to make representations thereon to the senate" (University of Saskatchewan, 1995b, p. 4). According to s. 31 (1) e, and s. 31 (2) c of the 1995 amendment of the University Act, the Senate had the responsibility to: (1) "make statutes respecting discipline of students relating to conduct, other than academic dishonesty" and, (2) "receive proposals for the establishment of a college, schools, department, or institute and determine if such proposals shall be recommended to the Board and the Council." The Board of Governors, on the other hand, was a smaller body comprising of twelve members, most of whom were appointed. The Board of Governors had the power to manage and control property, revenues and the business affairs of the university. It also had the power to appoint all employees of the university, fix their salaries, define their duties, and determine all students' fees. The Council consisted of specified members of the university. This group included the President, Vice Presidents, Registrar, the Librarian, deans, professors, and full-time lecturers. The Council was an internal body and was responsible for the academic governance of the university. Some of its tasks included: "granting of academic degrees, diplomas, and certificates of proficiency" (University Act, 1995, s. 74(1) b, ) and "authorizing on academic grounds the establishment or dissolution of any college, school, department, chair, institute, or course of instruction" (s. 74(1)c). The Faculties of the different colleges were made up of specifically named senior officers of the university, professors, associate professors, assistant professors, lecturers, and lecturers who were assigned to the dean of that college. The Faculty had charge of all matters of scholarship within a college.
The President was the chief executive of the university and "has general supervision over and direction of the academic work of the University, the teaching staff and the student body" (University of Saskatchewan, 1995b, p. 4). Assisting the President were a number of Vice-Presidents. The college Dean was the chief executive of the college and had responsibility for the general supervision "over the direction of the work of teaching and training of the students in the departments within the colleges" (p. 4). Deans of colleges were assisted by Associate Deans. At the department level, Department Heads "have the general supervision and direction of the work of their departments" (p. 4).

**Policy on International Education**

Participation in international education was not new for the U of S. Over the years, the U of S had participated in various international activities to varying degrees. A formal policy statement was not adopted until 1993. At its May 20th meeting, the Board of Governors adopted the following as one of the goals of the University: "to include a global perspective in our endeavors" (University of Saskatchewan, 1995b, p. i). The following year, the University Council passed a number of objectives relating to international education. According to Sarkar (1994a), these objectives were:

- Promote and expand scholarly exchange programs for faculty, students and staff;
- Encourage the development of programs and curricula that provide an international perspective on campus;
- Research beyond campus boundaries to establish international links in scholarship to University programs; and
- Enhance opportunities for University students, faculty and staff to participate in, and contribute to global development initiatives of community organizations. (p. 3)

Of the objectives listed, Sarkar (1994a) noted that the U of S President had identified the "development of programs and curricula that provide an international perspective on campus" (p. 3) as a priority for attention.
Summary of the Institutional Contexts

In this chapter, a general description was made of the two cases: SIAST and the U of S. This task included a statement of the institutions' policy on international education.

SIAST was a multi-campus, multi-program vocational/technical post-secondary institution with well-established local institutes, and a relative new comer, the SIAST Secretariat in Saskatoon. The programs offered were wide-ranging even within the same institute. The various Centres within each institute were dispersed. SIAST International Services was located administratively within Wascana Institute. In 1995, the Board of Directors approved an international policy thereby formalizing international education as a mandate for SIAST.

For the U of S, it was noted that while there were thirteen distinct colleges, all were located on the same campus in the city of Saskatoon. The University offered programs in thirteen different colleges. A number of theological colleges were also affiliated to the U of S. The University international policy was established in the 1993-94 period. In the next chapter, the case report for SIAST is presented.
CHAPTER 5

CASE REPORT: SIAST

This chapter examines the nature and governance of international education in the Saskatchewan Institute of Applied Science and Technology. This case report is organized around the research questions provided in the first chapter. To restate, the questions were:

(1) What is the nature of international education at SIAST?, (2) How are international education initiatives governed at SIAST? and (3), How adequate is the governance of international education at SIAST?

**What is the Nature of International Education at SIAST?**

This section describes the underlying philosophical orientations that appeared to drive the international activities at SIAST. This is followed with a list of the various kinds of international activities at SIAST.

**Underlying Orientations**

In the preamble to the SIAST Policy on international education, a justification for SIAST's involvement was premised on the concept of an "increasing global interdependence" (SIAST International Policy, 1995a, p. 1). The extent of what this meant was not clearly stated in the policy, but as to be elaborated later in this chapter, international education at SIAST appeared to be rationalized as development education, as economic development, and as organizational development.

**A development education rationale.** Data from the study suggesting a development education rationale for international education at SIAST were not consistent. Documentary evidence, particularly in project proposals and reports, strongly supported
international education as development education. For example, in a project document for the Seychelles Environmental Education Project, the stated goal was "to provide Seychelles with the tools to educate their own population and tourists in the importance of environmental sustainability to the country" (SIAST International Services, 1995a, p. 7). Furthermore, in a summary statement on SIAST international projects since 1990, the phrases used to describe all the projects strongly reflected a development education impetus. Hence, for the Malawi project, SIAST was to "assist Bunda College of Agriculture to develop the agriculture option" (SIAST International Services, 1995b, p. 5). Similarly, in the Vietnam project, SIAST was to "strengthen Vietnam's Ministry of Education . . . in the development and delivery of appropriate and flexible training through modularization of curriculum" (p. 5).

An examination of the interview data, on the other hand, did not share the same enthusiasm for international education defined as development education. Of the fifteen respondents interviewed, only three cited development education as a driving motive for international education. This perspective was reflected in such statements as, "we have a lot in Canada . . . we have the responsibility to share the resources we have with others who do not have them (Int., 14, June 13, p. 1). ¹ Interviewee #08 showed a similar sentiment:

We have a significant wealth of resources and expertise within SIAST that would facilitate the enhancement and development of the Third World countries, particularly in education, adult education and technical skills areas. (Int., 08, May 28, p. 1)

Not everyone supported a development education rationale for international education. One faculty respondent described those who were involved in international education.

¹ Reads as Interview # 14 on June 13, page 1. All references to interview data that follow in Chapter 5 are for SIAST. Minor editing has been done to some quotes to ensure that the identity of speakers are not revealed and to maintain consistent sentence structures.
activities as "a group of people who like to travel the world, and they, therefore, find opportunities to justify their existence as international educators" (Int., 09, May 28, p. 4).

Another faculty respondent expressed a similar view:

I do not think that Canada is establishing links with countries for a humanitarian type of motivation. I believe that the ultimate long term goal of the international projects . . . that I have had any familiarity with is to establish linkages which may result in some economic advantages at a future date. (Int., 04, May 23, p. 2)

From the data it could be noted that formal project proposals and reports espoused a development education rationale for international education at SIAST. This rationale, however, was only supported by three of the fifteen respondents.

**An economic development rationale.** Support for rationalizing international education for some economic gain was evident. As a matter of policy, one of the considerations for participation by SIAST in international activities was that "there is potential financial benefit to SIAST" (SIAST, 1995a, p. 2). It was this hope that had culminated in the passage of the policy to enroll international students on a fee-paying basis (Int., 05, May 23, p. 2).

The SIAST international policy statement was saturated with phrases that supported an economic development rationale for international education. In the preamble to the SIAST policy statement, participation in international education was rationalized as "strengthening Saskatchewan's economic position in the world" (SIAST, 1995a, p. 1). Even the language of the policy statement was market-oriented, as in "delivering . . . programs to international clients on a contract basis" (p. 1).

The interview data, however, did not seem to attribute SIAST's participation in international education to an economic development rationale in a major way. Of the three respondents who made references to an economically-driven international education, one
was clearly a critic. This latter respondent suggested that money was the only reason for SIAST's participation:

The real rationale for international education at SIAST is that there is money out there. Let us get a share of it, and do whatever is required to get the money. Also, we keep several people employed. (Int., 07, May 28, p. 1)

One of the two respondents who supported an economic rationale for international education appeared to hold a moderate view. According to this respondent, "international education is one source of revenue . . . another way to bring extra resources to SIAST" (Int., 15, June 13, p. 2). Furthermore, this respondent noted that there was potential for the Saskatchewan economy to benefit from the experiences of SIAST staff and students who have had international interactions. Arguably, SIAST's international activities "advanced Saskatchewan's capacity to participate internationally" (p. 1). When asked how much money SIAST was making from its international activities, one administrator answered, "none" (Int., 12, June 11, p. 3). The data did not show how this administrator's answer could be independently verified.

An organizational development rationale. It was noted that the majority of respondents rationalized international education as organizational development. This perspective reflected the opinion of 50% of administrators and 64% of faculty/staff respondents. The basic premise of this perspective was that an organization and its community stood to benefit from participation in international activities. This rationale for international education was reflected in the SIAST International Services mission which was to "provide professional development and learning opportunities for SIAST staff and students" (SIAST International Services, 1995c, p. 1).

Benefits to SIAST as an organization were viewed at different levels. For institutional actors who had directly participated in international activities, the benefits were both personal (Int., 07, May 28, p. 2; Int., 11, June 11, p. 1) and professional (Int., 14,
June 13, p. 1; Int., 08, May 28, p. 1; Int., 10, May 28, p. 4). In speaking to the personal benefits, one respondent noted that he "has gained insights into education and international development... and has benefited enormously from the exposure to different cultures" (Int., 10, May 28, p. 1). Similarly, another respondent reported a personal transformation of attitudes as a result of an international exposure. This faculty member explained:

Not knowing anything about this developing nation other than the information sent to me, I had the impression that this was very much a Third World nation with high levels of ignorance, very little education and very little awareness to the importance of their own resources. On arriving at this developing nation, I was dumbfounded by how well educated, how totally aware, totally in-tune the people were... they really appreciated the environment and they knew how to interpret it. So, instead of going in there to help... I came away... have I ever learned a lot from these people. (Int., 09, May 28, p. 3)

Professional development benefits accrued to institutional participants in international activities were well-articulated, as expressed by this respondent:

My interest in international involvement is for personal and professional development. Participation in international activities is a wonderful learning opportunity. I look at it as a way that I can learn and enhance my ability to do the job here within SIAST. (Int., 04, May 23, p. 2)

More specifically, another respondent raised the value of participation in international activities as follows:

Participation in international activities is a tremendous professional development experience because... working in another situation allows you to learn a lot more about yourself... it forces you to revise your thinking and your teaching to fit a new situation. (Int., 14, June 13, p. 1)

Similarly, another faculty respondent reported that participation in international activities had made him a more flexible instructor:

When you are working on an international project, you have to adapt your thinking to suit the particular constraints that exist in a developing country
what that forces me to do is adapt to the local conditions. I, therefore, have to come up with suggestions that will enable my clients to achieve most of the same objectives, but in a different manner. It is that flexibility that has been translated back into Saskatchewan. When I am dealing with external clients to SIAST, they will say, what we really want is this. In the past, I would have said, we cannot do that because we do not do things that way. Now, I am more inclined to say, let us take a look at what we have been doing and see if there is some way that we might be able to adapt to this particular client. The professional benefit for me, has been that participation in international education has increased my flexibility to be able to respond to non-standard requests. (Int., 10. May 28, p. 4)

From these comments, the benefits of international education as professional development seemed convincing. In spite of this position, the data only revealed ad hoc strategies for international activities as professional development. Subscribing to this revelation, one administrator observed that SIAST faculty "are coming back . . . their skills are being used to further institutional programming, and that their skills are being used to enlarge and excite other faculty members" (Int., 15, June 13, p. 2). Furthermore, this same administrator noted:

We are some ways away from saying that we are going to consciously make international experience a vehicle for staff development. These are the specific objectives that we have . . . these are the particular experiences that we want to create . . . these are the expectations we will have for individuals. (p. 2)

As an organization, SIAST also benefited directly from its participation in international activities. One staff respondent, for instance, observed that the few international students at Wascana Institute were enriching the social and cultural life of the students (Int., 05, May 23, p. 2). In another example, a program deliverer claimed that participation in international activities had prepared SIAST well to deal with an increasingly diverse multi-cultural local context. According to this respondent:

The type of clients within the health care field in Saskatchewan and Canada
are multi-cultural and multi-racial . . . . we need to have an understanding and an appreciation for different cultures, values, and the diversity of health problems that used to be considered someone else's problems. Participating in international education allows us to have an understanding of the world in order to provide the kind of health care that we need in Saskatchewan.

(Int., 04, May 23, p. 2)

SIAST, as an organization, also benefited from having an international reputation.

A faculty member expressed this point in this way:

I think that our international participation has been good for SIAST from the point of view of having an international reputation. In today's world, when things are tough, institutional reputation is an important image to have because it will open a door for further participation. (Int., 03, May 22, p. 2)

This claim appeared to be supported in the following account about SIAST's relationship with a Philippines institution. According to Harland (1994):

The [SIAST] relationship with INNOTECH has led to opportunities for SIAST in other countries. For example, during a planning seminar at INNOTECH, [a] SIAST [representative] met with the Director of Planning for Teacher Education in Thailand. This led to the development of a three-year project between SIAST and the Suratham Teachers' College in Thailand. On another occasion, the INNOTECH Director provided SIAST with an invitation to the Vietnamese Ministry of Education. This introduction led to the development of a four-year project. (p. 1)

An examination of the summary of SIAST projects (see Appendix F) confirmed the benefits of having an international reputation.

**Summary.** From the preceding discussion, it was noted that three principal philosophical orientations formed the basis for international education at SIAST. First, a development education argument was used in formal project documents and was minimally supported in the interview data. Second, an economic rationale for international education was prevalent in the SIAST international policy. The interview data, however, down-
played this rationale. Finally, international education as organizational development seemed to receive strong support, both from the document and interview data. This latter orientation held that an organization benefited from the personal, professional and institutional impact accorded to the organization by virtue of its participation in international activities.

**International Activities**

SIAST was predominantly involved in technical assistance projects. Traditionally, these projects were funded by CIDA through the Association for Canadian Community Colleges (ACCC). At the time this study was undertaken, SIAST was managing 13 projects in a dozen countries. A few of the on-going projects at the time of this study were:

- Nepal Health Worker Skill Training 1995-1999;
- Botswana/Namibia Sustainable Agriculture Training 1995-1999; and

For a summary of recent and on-going technical assistance projects, see Appendix F.

SIAST offered an elaborate range of services in the design, implementation and administration of technical assistance projects. Some of these included feasibility studies, curriculum development, resource material creation/production, training and instruction, and project management and evaluation (SIAST International Services, 1995b, p. 1).

Typically, a wide variety of activities would take place within these technical assistance projects. For example, under the Jordanian project, four instructors from Jordan spent a month at the Wascana Institute and another month at Woodland. Under the Nepal, Vietnam and Seychelles projects, SIAST faculty delivered seminars or acted as advisors to the overseas partner institutions.

Other international activities at SIAST that were independent of the technical assistance projects were observed. These activities included the English as a Second Language (ESL) programs, the introduction of fee-paying international students, a faculty
exchange, support for Saskatchewan business, and an international development week program (SIAST International Services, 1995c, pp. 1-3). By comparison, however, these activities were minimal and played relatively minor roles within SIAST international operations.

**How is International Education Governed at SIAST?**

The purpose of this section is to describe the governance model for international education at SIAST. Attention is, therefore, given to the structures, roles and processes of governance.

**SIAST International Services**

SIAST International Services became a separate body within SIAST in 1989. At the time of this study, the office had a staff of seven: a director, a project coordinator, a marketing coordinator, and four support staff members. The mandate of SIAST International Services is espoused in its mission statement as follows:

To provide professional development and learning opportunities for SIAST staff and students through the provision of international educational services overseas and in Canada, through collaboration with Saskatchewan business in joint venture opportunities and through the incorporation of international issues into the learning environment of SIAST.

(SIAST International Services, 1995c, p. 1)

The SIAST International Services is administratively located in the Wascana Institute in Regina. This in effect means that the Director of SIAST International Services reports to the principal of Wascana Institute. SIAST International Services has the support of an internal Advisory Committee.

**International Advisory Committee**

The Advisory Committee to the SIAST International Services is comprised of one representative from each of Woodland, Kelsey, Moose Jaw and Wascana Institutes, and the Director of International Services. The Advisory Committee is an internal committee
with a mandate to provide support, direction and assistance to SIAST International Services. Under the committee's terms of reference, the specific roles included: policy development, liaison with campus management, recruitment of SIAST staff, provision of feedback data, and leadership for international awareness (SIAST International Services, 1991).

At the time of this study, all four Institute representatives on the Advisory Committee were Deans of programs. This meant that the individuals were senior academic members within the institutes. Besides attending the quarterly meetings of the Advisory Committee, the institutes' representatives were also the contact points for SIAST International Services (Int., 03, May 22, p. 4). In practice, this meant that the representatives received and disbursed information on all international postings. The institute's representative on the Advisory Committee was not part of any line position.

At the four institutes there were few direct governance functions for international education. The roles played by the Institute principals tended to be minimal and indirect (Int., 11, June 11, p. 1). For instance, as members of the senior management group, principals would participate in the determination of policy relating to international education. As well, it was the principals' duty to approve leaves for staff on international assignments, and to receive international visitors. (Int., 11, June 11, p. 1; Int., 12, June 12, p. 3). The Wascana principal was an exception because of his administrative responsibility over SIAST International Services and because his campus had a group of ESL international students.

**Governance Roles**

SIAST had four categories of institutional actors in international education: the SIAST International Services staff, the senior administrators, institutes' representatives, and interested faculty/staff members.
The staff of the SIAST International Services office comprised of individuals who had been appointed specifically to fulfill the mandate of the division and to execute SIAST’s international policy. As previously stated, this group included a director, a project coordinator, a marketing coordinator and a number of other officers. The roles these officers played were wide-ranging within their specific task areas. For example, the officer responsible for international students received and processed all applications, enrolled the students, screened and selected home-stay families, met students at the airport, organized orientations, and acted as student advisor (Int., 05, May 23, p. 1). Similarly, the project coordinator was responsible for:

- designing new project proposals . . . implementing them . . . which includes hiring SIAST staff to work overseas, bringing overseas people in for study tours, monitoring and preparing budgets, reporting to donors, coordination and correspondence with overseas partners. (Int., 14, June 13, p. 1)

The Administrators’ group consisted of senior SIAST management who had the overall responsibility for the day to day affairs. The administrators’ role in international education was, typically indirect, and predominantly in policy setting (e.g. Int., 11, June 11, p.1). In the case of the Wascana principal, SIAST International Services reported directly to him. Consequently, this particular principal played a greater role in international education than the other senior managers.

It was noted that the representatives of the institutes on the international Advisory Committee were appointed to their positions. Their role in international education was additional to their primary teaching and administrative duties within their own institutes (Int., 03, May 22, p. 1). This group was generally not accountable to their line officers for their role in SIAST international education. The ambiguity of their role as institutional representatives on the Advisory Committee was reflected by one member in the following:

It is a volunteer position . . . there is no defined term of service. I could say, I do not want to be on the committee anymore, then we would scramble to find
a replacement . . . . I think there is a Terms of Reference for the committee, but that has never been prominent in how the committee works. (Int., 08, May 28, p. 5)

The fourth category of SIAST international education participants were employees who were interested in international education for a variety of reasons. The roles of these faculty/staff members were not part of their day to day duties, although these were sometimes influenced as a result of their participation in international activities. SIAST faculty did not normally go out looking for international opportunities, as this was the role of the SIAST International Services (Int., 09, June 13, p. 1). Instead, faculty/staff members only responded to internal advertisements for international opportunities within approved projects. Faculty/staff members who were selected were then contracted to perform specific tasks. For some of the faculty/staff members, this was often the extent of their involvement in international activities. Many faculty/staff members, however, went on to develop interests in international education following their first international assignments (Int., 10, May 28, p. 3).

**Summary of Governance Model**

An examination of the SIAST governance model for international education showed that SIAST International Services was a centralized office, administratively located in Wascana Institute. With seven full-time staff, the SIAST International Services had the mandate to implement SIAST’s international policy. This role was played with the support, direction and assistance of an internal advisory committee. Except for the Wascana principal, all other senior administrators did not normally play any direct role in the governance of international education. Faculty/staff members from the four institutes only participated in specific project activities to which they had applied or were assigned.
How Adequate is the Governance of International Education?

In this section, the question of adequacy of governance is answered in three parts. First, is the presentation of the criteria which were suggested by respondents as measures for adequacy. Second, an examination is made of the degree to which governance of international education at SIAST was considered efficient. This evaluation was based on the suggested criteria, as well as criteria for efficiency which were obtained from the general literature and presented as Table 3 of Chapter 3. Third, the section ends with a discussion of the extent to which governance reflected concerns for morality. Again, this assessment incorporated the suggested (if any) and the prepared sets of criteria as outlined in Table 3.

Suggested Criteria

The fifteen respondents were asked about the factors they would use to assess the adequacy of governance of international education in SIAST. The list below outlined the suggested criteria and the representational support for these factors:

1. Clarity of goals (20%)
2. Financial accountability (20%)
3. Centralization of governance (20%)
4. Participation by faculty (40%)

From this list, it seemed that all four suggested criteria reflected a rational view of evaluating governance. The respondents' own assessments on the suggested criteria are included in the discussions in the next section. At this point, however, it could be stated that respondents' assessments on their suggested criteria reflected mixed opinions.

Measures of Efficiency

Data for this section were obtained from the respondents' suggested criteria as well as the criteria derived for this study (see Table 3). For SIAST, the following factors were applicable: clarity of goals, coordination mechanisms, supportive structures, systematized
procedures, feedback mechanisms, financial accountability centralization, and participation by faculty. As stated in Chapter 3, the extent of support for a particular position was expressed as a percentage of interviewees who responded to a particular assessment criterion.

**Clarity of goals.** In looking at the SIAST international policy statement, it was obvious that the goals for international education had been established (SIAST, 1995a). The extent to which institutional stakeholders were clear on these goals was not obvious. The responses from eight respondents revealed two perspectives on how respondents assessed governance on the factor of goals clarity. The first position was held by 13% of the respondents who believed that there were segments of SIAST institutional stakeholders that were clear on the goals of international education (e.g., Int., 14, June 13, p. 1; Int., 04, May 23, p. 4). According to a respondent from SIAST International Services, one such segment was the administrators. In this respondent's view:

> Administrators would be aware of why SIAST is participating in international projects. Individual administrators may not all agree but I think as a group, they are clear on why we participate in international education. (Int., 14, June 13, p. 1)

All administrators interviewed seemed to concur with respondent #14 (e.g., Int., 11, June 11, p. 1; Int., 14, June 13, p. 2). Other likely groups who were aware of the goals included the faculty (Int., 04, May 23, p. 4) and the few students who have been involved in international activities (Int., 14, June 13, p. 1).

While agreeing with this general perspective, one respondent noted that for SIAST faculty, the knowledge of goals was limited. This respondent stated:

> I am not sure that faculty who are involved in international activities have a good understanding on the goals of international education. I think individual faculty tend to focus mostly on their particular international activities and the general picture does not become a priority for them. (Int., 04, May 23, p. 4)
The second position represented 87% of the respondents who believed that SIAST institutional stakeholders were not clear on the goals of international education. This perspective was espoused in such statements as: "I do not think that SIAST stakeholders know why we are involved in international education" (Int., 07, May 28, p. 5); or "most people think of SIAST International Services staff as traveling the world, and getting air miles" (Int., 08, May 28, p. 5); and "some of the faculty do not even know that SIAST International Services office exists" (Int., 14, June 13, p. 1).

A number of SIAST institutional stakeholders expressed not being clear on the goals of international education generally (e.g., Int., 07, May 28, p. 5; Int., 10, May 28, p. 3). This lack of clarity related to the goals of specific international projects (Int., 04, May 23, p. 4), or the goals of the advisory committee (Int., 08, May 28, p. 7). The reasons for such assessments were not conclusive. One respondent attributed the lack of goal clarity to poor leadership (Int., 07, May 28, p.3). Another cited apathy as a cause (Int., 08, May 28, p. 4). But whatever way this negative picture was explained did not lessen the daunting task for SIAST International Services as noted by the following interviewee:

One of the biggest difficulties we face is that SIAST has four different campuses. Even here at Wascana Institute, we have eight different locations within the city . . . . when we send out materials to the administrators, we hope that these will filter down, but this does not always happen. We write letters and articles for the various magazines in the institutes, but we do not know if these get read. (Int., 14, June 13, p. 2)

The concern expressed by interviewee #14 showed a challenge in governing a complex post-secondary institution.

**Coordination mechanisms.** Seven respondents assessed governance on the coordination criterion. Thirty-three percent of these respondents rated SIAST's performance as adequate. This group included all SIAST International Services
respondents (e.g., Int., 05, May 23, p. 3; Int., 14, June 13, p. 4) and one institutional representative on the International Advisory Committee (Int., 03, May 22, p. 4).

A clearer picture of this positive assessment was represented by a faculty respondent who observed that for the acquisition of projects, coordination by SIAST International Services appeared to be adequate (Int., 09, May 28, p. 6). According to this same faculty respondent, coordination during implementation of projects was not adequate. This respondent explained his evaluation in the following manner:

The actual program coordination is weak in that once a project is on-going, there seems to be a much greater emphasis on spending the project funds . . . . SIAST International Services brings in people from other countries on baby-sitting tourism, just so that surplus project funds are spent. This shows that projects are poorly coordinated. (Int., 09, May 28, p. 6)

The documentary data did not support this claim as depicted in the Seychelles environment education project where project coordination time was listed as accounting for eight to ten weeks each year (SIAST International Services, 1995a). Moreover, the data showed that the training of and visits by foreign partners to Canada were approved project activities (pp. 18-19).

The terms of reference for the International Advisory Committee showed the following coordination roles for members of the committee: liaison with campus management, liaison with staff, and coordinating internationalization within SIAST (SIAST International Services, 1991). The extent to which these roles were performed within the various campuses of the four SIAST Institutes was not known. In spite of this, a statement by a faculty member who had three international assignments was revealing. In talking about the seeming lack of coordination at the Institutes, this faculty member concluded: "It would probably be better if there was a coordinator for international education in each Institute" (Int., 07, May 28, p. 5). In other words, this particular respondent did not seem to think that the international advisory committee was playing its
coordination role adequately at the level of the Institutes. This view was also supported by one of the three Institute representatives (Int., 08, May 28, p. 4).

Sixty-seven percent of those who responded to the criterion of coordination mechanisms felt that coordination by SIAST was unsatisfactory. Some of the areas needing attention included coordination between SIAST International Services and the Institutes (Int., 07, May 28, p. 5), coordination during project implementation (Int., 09, May 28, p. 6), coordination of information dissemination (Int., 14, June 13, p. 2), and coordination between program deliverers and technical people in the recipient countries (Int., 08, May 28, p. 6).

**Supportive structures.** Of the eight who responded to this criterion, only 25% rated supportive structures for international education as adequate. This positive rating related to the supporting role played by SIAST International Services for faculty who were engaged in international assignments. One SIAST International Services staff member expressed this assessment as follows:

We do a good job in preparing SIAST faculty and staff for the things they are going to encounter in a foreign land. We spend a lot of time talking with our faculty letting them know of the kinds of things they need to be aware of. We share resources and pass on personal experiences. (Int., 05, May 23, p. 5)

This assessment was shared by a number of faculty who had been on international assignments (e.g., Int., 04, May 23, p. 5; Int., 03, May 22, p. 5). One faculty respondent agreed that while the International Services staff were willing and supportive, the set-up of the office was inadequate because so much was dependent on one or two individuals. Consequently, when these individuals were not available, intended supportive structures became ineffective (Int., 03, May 23, p. 5).

The documentary evidence suggested that supportive structures for international activities were present. In the terms of reference for the International Advisory Committee,
it was noted that the roles of the committee included liaising with campus management and staff, assisting with information sharing and reporting, coordinating postings, and providing leadership for international awareness (SIAST International Services, 1991). The data did not verify the extent to which these tasks were performed.

Seventy five percent of those who responded to this criterion felt that supportive structures for international education were not adequate. One respondent talked about the need for support from SIAST administrators. According to this respondent, "we need our principals and the president to be more proactive . . . on our behalf" (Int., 14, June 13, p. 8). This respondent felt that while having an approved international policy was useful, the support of the administrators was still needed.

Another respondent felt that SIAST structures were not adequate for a sustained international strategy (Int., 12, June 12, p. 5). Yet another observed that the SIAST structures were not satisfactory for an entrepreneurial approach to international education (Int., 11, June 11, p. 7). In a final example, an administrator agreed that supportive structures for advisory services were not adequate. This respondent suggested that "partnerships with local industry in terms of building an advisory capacity for SIAST international education was necessary" (Int., 15, June 13, p. 7).

**Systematized procedures.** Six respondents spoke on this criterion. A third of these respondents indicated that procedures for international education were adequately systematized. This assessment was made for policy formulation (Int., 13, June 12, p. 3), faculty orientation (Int., 10, May 28, p. 5), selection (Int., 08, May 28, p. 5), and granting leaves (Int., 15, June 13, p. 3). Not all procedures, however, had been formalized. According to one staff respondent, some procedures, like the faculty orientation, were informal and ad hoc (Int., 05, May 23, p. 5).

Documentary evidence supported that procedures were systematized for international activities. The SIAST international policy statement (SIAST, 1995a) spelt out
the following general procedures to guide all international activities. The guidelines included:

- development of appropriate funding and contractual arrangements for each project;
- establishment of conditions for negotiating and entering into contracts for international education and development activities;
- establishment of schedules of fees and payment terms;
- establishment of approval levels for projects;
- reimbursement of program areas for replacement costs to SIAST staff involved in international activities;
- development of coordination mechanisms for each project; and
- conducting a post-program assessment and evaluation.

Moreover, it was noted that documentary evidence of systematized procedures were available for designing projects (e.g., ACCC-SIAST, 1995), selecting faculty/staff (SIAST Wascana Institute, 1995), posting of vacancies (Crawford, 1996), and interviewing guidelines (SIAST International Services, 1996).

The data confirmed that like all bureaucratic organizations, systematizing procedures at SIAST did not necessarily warrant efficient institutional governance. This realization was reflected in the finding that two-thirds of those who commented on this criterion felt that procedures were not adequately systematized. One respondent observed that while procedures relating to international education were systematized, "we have breakdowns because staff of the SIAST International Services are always busy doing something else" (Int., 03, May 22, p. 5). This of course referred to the connection between systematized procedures and the ability of the institution to administer the procedures efficiently. The factor of workload, both imposed and assumed, were also cited as likely concern areas (Int., 09, May 28, p. 3).
Another skeptical respondent posed the likelihood of whether systematizing procedures was necessarily the way things should be done. In contesting the current centralized system, this faculty respondent explained this concern in the following way:

I sometimes feel that project proposals get written without sufficient input of the people who actually have to do the work. Consequently, when faculty members get to do the work, they find that the project is making unrealistic commitments. (Int., 10, May 28, p. 2)

This criticism was refuted by a staff of SIAST International Services who claimed that, "depending on what kind of a project it is, we involve faculty quite extensively, especially in an area we do not know any thing about" (Int., 14, June 13, p. 3).

Since January of 1996, policy relating to the selection of faculty and staff for international education related assignments had been incorporated into SIAST Staff Union agreements. It was noted that the extent to which this change in policy was understood by faculty and staff varied somewhat. Two respondents agreed that the new procedures were much more equitable (Int., 08, May 28, p. 5; Int., 15, June 13, p. 3). Two Woodland respondents, on the other hand, thought that the selection procedures were not fair (Int., 09, May 28, p. 5; Int., 07, May 28, p. 6). As one of them commented: "the only way that faculty are selected is by picking and choosing [by SIAST International Services]" (Int., 08, May 28, p. 6). The selection policy was recently introduced, and may not have been clearly understood. The concern over equity in the previous selection process was the basis for changing the policy.

**Feedback mechanisms.** At the level of the SIAST International Advisory Committee, an examination of the terms of reference of this committee showed that the roles for feedback were adequately covered (SIAST International Services, 1991). There appeared to be no indication from the data that an appropriate level of feedback to and from the committee was systematically facilitated.
Feedback mechanisms at a number of levels were examined. First, at the level of individual faculty members who were directly involved in international activities, there was no agreement on the extent to which feedback mechanisms were considered adequate. Two faculty respondents stated that they were required to, and had presented reports to SIAST International Services following their international assignments (Int., 04, May 23, p. 5; Int., 10, May 28, p.5). Subscribing to another view, a respondent reported that he had "never seen a progress report on the project" he took part in (Int., 09, May 28, p. 7). Another claimed that he was not required to write a report on the two assignments he was on (Int., 08, May 28, p. 5) and, consequently, did not offer any feedback at all.

At the level of SIAST International Services, feedback upwards to the Wascana principal and to the donors were adequate. According to one staff respondent, monthly activity reports were submitted to the principal, and regular project updates were made to the donors (Int., 14, June 13, p. 6).

An area of concern was the inadequate feedback to SIAST as an institution, and subsequently to the local community. No respondents mentioned how international activities inter-faced with the SIAST curriculum. One administrator respondent observed that the projects that SIAST was involved in were "quick and dirty" (Int., 12, June 12, p. 3). Consequently, these kinds of projects did not allow SIAST to institutionalize curriculum lessons from abroad at all.

For the ACCC-funded projects, one of the requirements was for SIAST to connect the project with the local community. According to one respondent, one of the ways SIAST had connected local communities with its international activities was in the form of newspaper articles on aspects of the projects (Int., 07, May, 28, p. 7). It appeared that this was not a systematic strategy to incorporate the local community in international activities.
Financial accountability. Of the three respondents who spoke on this criterion, one expressed concern on the need for financial accountability in international education, while the other two did not see it as an issue. This minority concern was:

There does not seem to be a budget constraint on any of the international projects at SIAST. If a faculty member requests for something, SIAST International Services basically gives what is asked for. On my last trip overseas, for instance, all expenses for a colleague and I: plane tickets, hotel bills, meals, salaries and everything were provided. I think we used up around ten thousand dollars for a two week training. I could think of a lot more places where the money could have been better spent but SIAST had an international contract that was due to run out so we had to use the money. (Int., 07, May 28, p. 3).

Interviewee #7 then suggested that SIAST International Services be more financially accountable.

In contrast to the interview data, the documentary data suggested that financial accountability guidelines were in order. An example of this was seen in the Seychelles environment education project wherein all financial guidelines relating to payments, disbursement, acknowledgment transfers, record keeping, monitoring and reviews have been established and agreed to by the partners (ACCC-SIAST, 1995).

Centralized governance. Of those who suggested criteria for assessing governance, 20% quoted the factor of centralized governance. Only two respondents spoke on this criterion. According to a faculty respondent, a centralized structure was necessary in a fragmented institution such as SIAST (Int., 04, May 23, p. 3). It was argued that a centralized governance structure was "quite an effective way to handle international projects as it makes a more fairer opportunity for all SIAST employees to be involved" (p. 3). This respondent felt that the centralized SIAST structure was a positive feature.
The other SIAST respondents did not see centralized governance as a positive feature. This perspective was reflected by a faculty member who felt:

The present structure of governance of international activities does not facilitate a decentralized decision making. This means that the structure of governance does not enable sufficient input from the people who actually deliver the programs overseas. (Int., 10, May 28, p. 2)

Interviewee #10 regarded the centralized structure of governance at SIAST as negative.

**Participation by faculty.** Of the six who responded to this criterion 50% rated participation by faculty/staff in international activities as adequate. This rating referred to the availability of opportunities for faculty (Int., 10, May 28, p. 2) and administrators (Int., 15, June 13, p. 1) to be involved in technical assistance projects. Opportunities for faculty/staff participation were mainly in program delivery (Int., 07, May 28, p. 1; Int., 04, May 28, p. 1) while for administrators, opportunities commonly related to project protocol (Int., 12, June 12, p. 1; Int., 15, June 13, p. 1).

An occasional opportunity existed for faculty members to assist in the design of project proposals. According to a staff respondent, where certain technical skills were needed, appropriate faculty members would be invited to help design proposals (Int., 14, June 13, p. 3). This claim was confirmed by a faculty member who helped to review a project proposal (Int., 09, May 28, p. 1).

The remaining 50% of respondents rated participation by faculty/staff as not being adequate. This view was reflected in the two examples which follow. According to a faculty member:

There has been a lack of participation by SIAST faculty from the Institutes in the governance of international projects. This has led to the faculty not fully supporting the projects even if they may be involved in the activities. (Int., 08, May 28, p. 4)
This respondent went on to suggest that faculty members within SIAST Institutes should be given the responsibility to coordinate projects. In this way, "the linkage between SIAST professionals and their colleagues in recipient institutes can be fostered" (Int., 08, May 28, p. 6).

In another example, a respondent claimed that SIAST faculty have not gained ownership of projects in which they had been involved because they were not given responsibility for the projects (Int., 09, May 28, p. 7). This respondent suggested that program deliverers should be given the opportunity "to run with a project and either make it work or not work" (p. 7).

**Summary of Efficiency of Governance**

In the preceding section, the question of the adequacy of governance was examined. The criteria suggested by respondents reflected a rational perspective of governance. These criteria included goal clarity, accountability, centralization and faculty participation. Table 4 presents a summary of the assessments on factors of efficiency. In this and subsequent summary tables on the SIAST data, ratings of 1 = high, 2 = moderate and 3 = low are used. These ratings reflected the quantitative strength of both the interview and document data as follows: two thirds or more positive = high, less than two thirds positive comment but more than one third = moderate, and one third or less positive = low.

Although the goals of international education had been established, they were not clear to the majority of institutional stakeholders. Furthermore, if administrators or faculty members were clear on the goals, this knowledge was confined to their particular areas of involvement. It was noted that coordination for the acquisition of international projects was adequate, but the coordination of different aspects of projects within the Institutes was not considered satisfactory.
### Table 4
**SIAST Adequacy of Governance on Efficiency Factors**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>International Education</th>
<th>International Activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clear Goals*</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coordination Mechanisms</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2-3**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supportive Structures</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Systematized Procedures</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1-3**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback Mechanisms</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centralized Governance*</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial Accountability*</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faculty Participation*</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Key:**
1 = high. 2 = moderate. 3 = low.

* Criterion suggested by respondents.

** Different aspects of technical assistance projects.

The data also indicated that supportive structures for participants in international activities were adequate. Support from administrators for international education generally seemed unsatisfactory. As well, support for an entrepreneurial strategy and for advisory services to international education needed attention. Notwithstanding organizational failures, the findings showed that procedures for international education were adequately systematized. At the time the study was done, procedures on selection were still being improved.

The findings revealed that the majority of respondents considered feedback mechanisms between SIAST International Services and the Institutes as inadequate. However, feedback between SIAST International Services and individual faculty had
mixed ratings. Fifty percent of respondents who commented on this aspect stated that feedback from faculty to SIAST International Services was adequate. The other half, however, felt that the feedback system was not adequate. It was further noted that feedback between line positions was satisfactory. An area of concern for systematic attention was on feedback mechanisms between SIAST and the local community.

The findings suggested that financial accountability structures at SIAST were in order but there appeared to be a lack of awareness of these structures. Consequently, one respondent claimed that financial accountability structures were not adequate. A moderate rating was seen on the factor of centralized structure. Finally, it was noted that faculty participation in international education was moderately rated.

Moral Dimensions

To be consistent with the evaluation framework used in this study, a moral assessment of governance was also conducted. International activities often involved different stakeholders with varying degrees of interests, power-bases and expertise. A moral assessment of governance was therefore needed. This was seen in an example wherein SIAST was contracted by CIDA to institute a type of delivery system in a Third World institution. The SIAST faculty member who was assigned the task went and delivered the program, but found that the particular Third World institution did not have the computer technology to handle the project (Int., 09, May 28, p. 3). The assignment, however, went ahead as designed in the project documents without regard for the local context.

The criteria for a moral assessment included a concern for shared goals, the "means" of doing things and the personal relationships.

Shared goals. There was lack of agreement on the extent to which the goals of international education at SIAST were shared. Of the six respondents who spoke on this criterion, 70% supported that the goals were shared and 30% rejected this assertion. One
faculty respondent claimed that the goals of technical assistance projects were "roughly shared between SIAST and stakeholders in the recipient country" (Int., 09, May 28, p. 8). Another respondent explained that the SIAST process of goal formulating ultimately facilitated the sharing of these goals. According to this faculty member:

Usually the goals of international projects are developed with input from international stakeholders. The project proposal is reviewed by intended recipients as well as the donor agency. We are always communicating back and forth when developing the proposal, and by the time it is signed, the goals would have been agreed to by all parties. (Int., 03, May 22, p. 5)

Documentary evidence appeared to support this claim by respondent #03. For instance, in the Seychelles environment education project, it was found that sustainable environment policies and practices were areas of priority in the 1990-94 national development plans of the Republic of Seychelles (SIAST International Services, 1995a). As well, it was noted that the project proposal was developed by SIAST staff in consultation with stakeholders in the Seychelles (p. 10).

A faculty member appeared unconvinced by such an argument. According to this respondent, determining whether goals were shared was not easy within the context of development aid. This argument was explained as follows:

It is most challenging to determine whether development partners are really able to honestly share and verbalize what their goals are. For developing nations, there is the possibility of not receiving assistance if what they perceive their needs to be does not quite fit the mandate of the donor organization they are working with. Sometimes I think developing nations settle for project goals that are not theirs but feel that adopting them means that developing nations are at least getting development assistance. (Int., 04, May 23, p. 6)

It would seem that a concern for shared goals needs to be systematically developed. Systematic attention is necessary given the realities of development assistance as cautioned by interviewee #04.
Concern for "means." An examination of the interview data showed that there were mixed assessments on this criterion. On one hand, 50% of the six who responded to this criterion felt that SIAST was not paying adequate attention to concerns over the "means" of doing technical assistance projects (e.g., Int., 07, May 28, p. 6; Int., 03, May 22, p. 6). This position was expressed by one respondent who noted:

SIAST has had too much experience in the past where we have been extremely successful in achieving the goals of our projects, and no processes were left behind. Consequently, the goals disintegrated because the people have no idea on how to sustain them. (Int., 03, May 22, p. 6)

On the other hand, the other 50% reported that SIAST was adequately concerned for questions of "process." According to a faculty respondent who organized a workshop in a developing nation, "although there were some concrete outcomes, the workshop itself was process-oriented" (Int., 04, May 23, p. 7). This particular respondent went on to explain how relationships were built and what activities were engaged in order to foster adult learning to take place. Observe the respondent's account of the emotional parting ceremony:

At the closing ceremony, people were crying, which is absolutely unheard of in international projects. I could not put my finger on it, but I really had my eyes opened about the importance of the whole area of personal attitudes and relationships in international projects. (Int., 04, May 23, p. 8)

All who spoke on this criterion agreed that a concern for "means" was an important consideration for governance (e.g., Int., 07, May 28, p. 6; Int., 05, May 23, p. 5; Int., 03, May 22, p. 6). The study identified examples wherein attention was given to concerns for "means." For instance, a SIAST International Services pamphlet spelt out basic principles that reflect a concern for "process" considerations. One of these principles included a commitment to build local partnerships. This principle was expressed as follows:
The creation of local relationships encourages people to participate in all phases of activities to solve their own problems and become more capable of developing their own resources. (Principles of Development, 1995, p. 2)

The extent to which an attention for "process" concerns was systematized to the point that these concerns become integral parts of international development was unclear.

**Personal relationships.** The eight respondents who spoke on this criterion agreed that it was importance for individual faculty members to relate well with their international partners (e.g., Int., 03, May 22, p. 6; Int., 09, May 28, p. 9). The findings indicated that SIAST International Services also placed a high regard for individual faculty/staff to relate well in a cross-cultural context. This importance was reflected in the following questions (SIAST International Services, 1996) in a SIAST interview guide:

- Describe your previous work experience with people of other cultures and what you learned from that experience.
- What cultural differences would you expect to encounter?
- What strategies would you use to address these differences? (pp. 1-3)

Apart from the interview process, there appeared to be no other on-going systematic strategy to prepare faculty and staff for international assignments. Respondents made references to some of the preparatory activities that had been tried. These included artifacts displays (Int., 03, May 22, p. 6), talks (Int., 07, May 28, p. 6), and international week programs (Int., 06, May 23, p. 4).

One faculty respondent went further to suggest that SIAST International Services did not have adequate mechanisms to ensure that faculty were indeed competent technically and socially. According to this respondent:

While the International Services office has a high regard for the individual's ability to relate with other people, I do not think that adequate mechanisms are in place to ensure that such an objective is met . . . . during an interview, a candidate may be saying the right things and is simply telling a lie. It is not until the candidate is in a foreign culture until we can see whether he or she is
walking the talk. (Int., 10, May 28, p. 6)

In spite of obvious weaknesses in the interview as a tool, one respondent felt that SIAST had been generally successful in ensuring that faculty/staff who were sent on international assignments were technically competent and socially skilled for cross-cultural work. This respondent concluded, "whether by accident or design, SIAST has always made sure that the faculty members that go abroad are well-regarded in every respect" (Int., 09, May 28, p. 8).

Summary of Morality of Governance

In summary, the results showed that the majority of respondents believed that the goals of international projects were "roughly shared" between SIAST and recipient institutions. A caution was noted that having "shared goals" was not honestly possible within the context of development aid. The results indicated that all respondents agreed that the "means" criterion was important. It was further noted that while adequate attention was given to considerations of "means," systematic attention was lacking.

The data revealed that the criterion of personal relationships was regarded highly. Subsequently, the majority of respondents felt that SIAST had performed adequately on this criterion. Finally, the results also showed that the interview process was the only systematic way of ensuring that faculty/staff were socially competent.

In Table 5, a summary of the assessments on SIAST governance on the basis of a moral consideration is presented.

Summary of SIAST Case Report

In Chapter 5, the case report for SIAST was provided. The findings showed that international education at SIAST was driven by three philosophical orientations, namely: development education, economic education, and organizational development. Of all three philosophical orientations, an organizational development rationale for international
education seemed to receive the most support from SIAST respondents. The results further indicated that SIAST was mainly involved in technical assistance projects.

It was noted that international education was centrally governed. Under this system, SIAST International Services, a unit within Wascana Institute, was responsible for implementing the college's international education policy. SIAST International Services was served by an Advisory Committee with representation from all four Institutes. Policy decisions remained with the senior management group and the Board of Directors.

The results also indicated that SIAST respondents saw governance in rational terms. Consequently, from an efficiency perspective, moderate ratings were given for systematized procedures, feedback mechanisms, financial accountability, centralization and faculty participation. Moreover, the findings revealed that low ratings were given for goal clarity, coordination mechanisms, and supportive structures. From a moral dimension, high ratings were seen for shared goals and a concern for personal relationships. A concern for "processes," however, received a moderate rating.
CHAPTER 6
CASE REPORT: THE UNIVERSITY OF SASKATCHEWAN

This chapter presents the case report for the U of S. This report is organized around the three generic questions: (1) What is the nature of international education at the U of S? (2) How is international education governed at the U of S? and (3), How adequate is the governance of international education at the U of S?

What is the Nature of International Education at the U of S?

To answer this question, a discussion is presented on the philosophical foundations that appeared to drive certain international activities at the U of S. Following this presentation, some of the common international activities at the U of S are outlined.

Underlying Orientations

Like any complex organization, the U of S situation reflected a wide variety of international activities at the time this study was undertaken. These different activities were driven by various primary motives, or combination of motives. To be consistent with the framework that was used in this study to conceptualize international education, the discussion that follows is based on Leginsky & Andrews' (1994) approach to international education.

A development education rationale. International education as development education did not appear to be a commonly espoused rationale for international education at the U of S. Of the 26 respondents, only four cited development education as an underlying basis for the international activities with which they were involved. On the contrary, available documentary data, particularly documents relating to technical assistance projects, supported a development education rationale. For instance, in the Mozambique dental
project at the College of Dentistry, a stated project purpose was "the strengthening of oral health initiatives in Mozambique" (Dickson, 1991, p. 2).

In the interview data, one faculty member who was the coordinator for a development project in an African country expressed the underlying rationale for the project in these terms:

The only rationale for the project was development assistance. The project was designed to make some of the resources available to a developing country where money was scarce, and where there was some hope that by greater education, more of the infrastructure needed in a developing country could be done by people of the country themselves. (Int., 20, May 14, p.1)²

The direction of development assistance appeared to go from the developed nations to the developing ones. This view was expressed by a faculty coordinator of another international technical assistance project:

The benefits are of course that we are helping the developing countries quite considerably. Whether it is a benefit to us is a separate issue. We are providing considerable assistance to many of these places with respect to going in and doing things. (Int., 11, April 25, p.2)

In the following quote, a faculty respondent explained how the U of S was assisting developing countries:

Frequently, we are talking about trying to improve the quality of life of the intended beneficiaries of an international project. Quality of life could be defined in terms of increments in levels of health, literacy, diet, housing, recreation, culture and security from diseases, poor health and food security. (Int., 15, May 7, p.1)

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² Reads as Interview # 20 on May 14, page 1. All references to interview data in Chapter 6 are for the University of Saskatchewan. Occasionally, direct quotes were edited to ensure that identity of speakers was not revealed. In such instances, only minimal changes were made to ensure originality of speech.
Not everyone who perceived international education as development education saw it as a one way assistance. In a press release from the Dental College on the Mozambique project, the following was noted:

It is hoped that the results of this project not only benefit Mozambique but also provide insights on how oral health care can be better provided to underserved populations here in Saskatchewan. (College of Dentistry, 1994, p. 2)

In support of this perspective, one faculty respondent explained:

Because I have been involved in development work in Canada, my involvement outside Canada is simply an extension of the kind of work I have done here . . . . the kind of work that I was doing on reserves in northern British Columbia and the north west coast of British Columbia would have very similar goals to the kind of work that I am doing in the developing countries. So, if you think of that being a Fourth world development work, which is then moved to the Third world. So, for me, in terms of my field work and professional practice, it is a logical extension of that to do it globally rather than locally. (Int., 15, May 7, p. 1)

Irrespective of who was helping which party, the basic premise for a university's participation in development education appeared to be a humanitarian one. One respondent summed it well by stating "this is something we ought to be doing. That is, we live in an international community and, therefore, we ought to be participating in the international domain" (Int., 11, April 25, p. 2).

It seemed that while international education as development education was not commonly cited as a driving philosophy at the U of S, it nonetheless was an integral reason for some international activities on campus. It was noted that U of S respondents did not agree on whether international activities with a development education orientation was reciprocal.

**A global education rationale.** International education as global education was supported by 75% of administrator respondents and 25% of the program deliverers who were participating in different international activities. A global education perspective was
premised on the belief in the connectedness of peoples and nations. This perspective was expressed in a number of ways. In the documentary evidence, a faculty exchange between the U of S and the University of Queensland (Australia) was to serve "academic exchange and learning" (University of Saskatchewan- University of Queensland, 1995, p. 1). Similarly, a student exchange between the U of S and the Curtin University of Technology (Australia), aimed "to enrich the understanding of the cultures of the two countries" (University of Saskatchewan- Curtin University of Technology, 1995, p. 1).

The results also showed similar sentiments from the interview data. Some of the phrases that reflected this sentiment included: "the world is getting smaller and smaller" (Int., 04, April 11, p. 1), or "we are living in a shrinking global village" (Int., 03, April 11, p. 1), and "a university by definition, is open to knowledge around the world" (Int., 22, May 16, p. 1). Hence, in the words of one administrator: "the University of Saskatchewan is a university for the world" (Int., 17, May 8, p. 2).

As a world educational institution, the U of S was deemed to have certain obligations to its stakeholders. In justifying the inclusion of international students in his college, a dean stated:

I feel it is very important that our students have an opportunity to work with, and study with students from all over the world because I feel that it is very important that Saskatchewan individuals have a world view of things. (Int., 24, May 21, p. 1)

Such an argument not only referred to a general exposure to international students on campus, but it also favored the way students would be educated. One administrator proposed that because the world order was changing, students were less likely to remain in Saskatchewan, hence, these students were to be educated in such a way that would enable them to go out into the world (Int., 17, May 8, p. 2).
At the U of S the two common channels by which global education took place were study tours and student exchanges with foreign universities. The following statement by a respondent from the College of Education contextualized the global education rationale:

Our future teachers will be working with children from all countries. And if they have grown up, gone to school, and taught in the very same culture, they really do not have as many skills and attitudes as would be most beneficial to meet the needs of all children in the classroom. (Int., 04, April 11, p. 1)

The argument could be made that international education as global education at the U of S was an integral component of a university. Consequently, as one faculty member explained, "international education allows us to exchange ideas and do research internationally" (Int., 03, April 11, p. 2). A College of Dentistry respondent shared a similar sentiment, adding that international education was particularly necessary because "our college has been isolated by serving the needs of Saskatchewan. Of course, doing that job well, but only that" (Int., 13, May 2, p. 2).

The concept of a university being a global institution was clearly seen from a research perspective wherein certain academic subject areas tended to lend themselves easily to internationalization. A respondent from the College of Agriculture explained this tendency as follows:

The soils that we have in Saskatchewan are a part of a continuum that starts with the frozen undeveloped areas of the north, and going towards the tropics . . . . it is, therefore, important to understand the gradation process. Similarly, why don't some animals do well in the tropics? It is because they do not have immunities to certain diseases. That is also important to understand. So, each phase of the whole operation in the applied sciences is important to understand. (Int., 16, May 8, p. 3)

Some of the College of Agriculture soil research projects in Brazil and Thailand were examples of this kind of rationalization.
In the preceding discussion, it was reported that a global education rationale was a common theme in certain international activities at the U of S. A basis for a global education rationale was the interconnectedness of peoples and nations, and the realization of an interdependent responsibility for the globe. It was further noted that within the university context, the need existed for individuals to acquire skills and attitudes necessary to learn about others (Int., 07, April 22, p. 1), and to tolerate differences (Int., 04, April 11, p. 1).

**An economic development rationale.** International education as a vehicle for economic development was a foundational rationale for some of the activities at the U of S. This rationale was supported by 25% of respondent administrators and 12% of program deliverers. The general thrust of this rationale was that a university, its local community and nation stood to benefit economically from participating in international education. This orientation was reflected in one of the guiding statements of the College of Commerce Centre for International Business Studies (CIBS). One of the goals of the Centre read: "to facilitate cooperation between the University and the private business community in developing export opportunities" (CIBS, 1990, p. 2).

Some of the economically-driven international activities at the U of S were taking place overseas. An example of an overseas-based program was the Centre for Business English in Chernivtsi (Ukraine). This program was administered by the Centre for Second Language Instruction. According to Wagner (1994), a primary goal of the Ukrainian program was:

To set up an economically self-sufficient small business designed to provide a teaching service which would enhance private sector development through:
(a) establishing a demonstration business model for providing a service; and (b) providing the business language training itself. (p. v)
The available documentary data did not explicitly state that certain international activities at the U of S were primarily for revenue generation. The factor of revenue generation, however, was raised by a respondent who stated:

We live in an age right now with declining government budgets. As governments cut back contributions, universities have to be innovative in the way they finance their operations in order to remain effective. One way to do this is to recruit fee-paying international students who can pay full fees for their education in Canadian universities. (Int., 14, May 3, p. 1)

The extent to which the U of S was making money out of fee-paying undergraduate international students was not known. As a policy, however, international undergraduate students as a source of revenue was perceived by one administrator as a realistic strategy. According to this administrator:

Given the financial constraints, the driving factors in academic decisions are, shall we say, very strongly affected by economic and financial considerations. I am not going to say, as some people would, that they crowd out academic considerations. They do not. Academic considerations are always uppermost. But because we are living in times of very restrained resources, consideration of efficiency, of resources, more and more determine our decisions . . . . it is regrettable in a sense, but it is realistic. And so, if we go and recruit students from foreign universities, in part for financial reasons, perhaps it is interfering with the pure motives of education. But if it leads to enhance exchanges, if it leads to more foreign students coming to the U of S, I think that is acceptable. (Int., 16, May 8, p. 8)

The hope that a university could make money from certain international activities remains a potential. At the U of S, the present success story of attracting increasing foreign language students into the Centre for Second Language Instruction was an indication of such potential. Engaging in international contract activities was another possible revenue-generation activity. One administrator, however, was not easily enthused about this latter activity:
I think that contract work for money is more theory than actual practice. So, from my perspective, it is more or less an add on, rather than the reason we are involved in international education. If there are those contracts . . . I think they are highly publicized. (Int., 24, May 21, p. 2)

In an economically-driven rationale, the local community was also said to benefit from certain international activities as shown in these two examples. First, in the MBA Japanese program, local Saskatoon businesses participated as partners with the College of Commerce (CIBS, 1995). According to a faculty member of the College of Commerce, this particular international activity benefited local businesses because they were able to cheaply obtain useful exposure and knowledge of the international market (Int., 12, April 29, p. 1). Second, in the case of international students, the Saskatoon economy benefited from monies that students spent locally. Where the monies initially came from was an open question, but according to one respondent, "money does get generated into the Saskatoon economy" (Int., 19, May 7, p. 2). For the province and the country as a whole, the likelihood existed for these international activities to lead to trade opportunities at a future date.

To summarize, the findings showed that an economically-oriented rationale existed as a basis for some of the international education activities at the U of S. Three such activities were, country programs, an off-shore Centre such as the Ukrainian Centre for Business English, and the inclusion of fee-paying international students at the U of S. The data did not support a conclusive position on the extent to which the U of S was making money out of such activities. The hope that some economic potential would result from these activities remained a sustaining factor.

**An organizational development rationale.** An examination of the U of S data seemed to indicate widespread support for international education with an organizational development rationale. Sixty-six percent of respondent administrators and
46% of program deliverers subscribed to the view that this rationale was the overriding goal for international education. Essentially, this perspective advocated that the organization stood to benefit from its participation in certain international activities. In the U of S Council mission statement, three of the five international education-related objectives showed an organizational development orientation. As cited by Sarkar (1994a), these objectives included: the promotion of scholarly exchange programs for students, faculty, and staff; the development of programs with an international perspective; and the enhancement of opportunities for students, faculty, and staff to participate in global development.

The interview data revealed widespread support for an organizational development rationale. For instance, in student exchange programs it was argued that benefits to the institution could be seen in the impacts to the students individually and collectively. A respondent from the College of Physical Education made this point as follows:

Those students that are selected to participate in the exchange program get to expand their whole being. I think the opportunity to study under a different influence is academically very healthy for them. As well, I think that there are tremendous personal growth opportunities for the student participants themselves. Moreover, I think that as far as the students are concerned, it is a wonderful opportunity both ways. For the incoming students, opportunity is provided for their peers to get to know something about other cultures. From that perspective, I think that the entire undergraduate student body of the host institution stands to benefit from the exchange students being with them. (Int., 09, April 23, p. 2)

In another example, benefits to the host institution were also seen in the enrichment of graduate students as they interacted with a visiting foreign scientist. A respondent from the College of Engineering explained the experience in the following account:

Some of my graduate students have been educated here and have not been anywhere else. They have, therefore, not interacted with international scientists. The project involving the visiting scientist has certainly created a healthy
environment in the laboratory. I had my graduate students interacting with the visiting scientist. They talked. They exchanged ideas. These really made the whole research atmosphere vibrant. We were not isolated and that made it really exciting. The experience fueled enthusiasm. It was very fruitful. (Int., 25, May 22 p. 1)

The U of S also benefited from international education through the impact that participation had on its faculty. A respondent from the College of Agriculture stated:

All international activities are a two way street. You learn as much by participating in the educational development in other countries as you do in your own because the systems may have developed independently. There will be some approaches that you have not taken and others have . . . and getting exposed to them is useful. So, we get educated. (Int., 16, May 8, p. 1)

The university faculty also benefited from specific kinds of international activities.

In expressing the value of collaborative research, one respondent commented:

Collaborative research is a wonderful opportunity to work with other scientists, and to find out some of the cutting edge aspects in a particular faculty's area. (Int., 09, April 23, p. 2)

On a similar note, another faculty respondent expressed the value of presenting workshops in foreign countries:

We gain a lot by travel and by coming into contact with different problems. We acquire a new dimension in our own work and in our own perspectives. We often see that many of the problems are similar to the problems here at home. The only difference is that here at home we are able to face problems in a more structured way . . . but nevertheless, we learn a lot through the process so that anyone who is involved in international activities have the advantage of a comparative view. (Int., 20, May 14, p. 1)

Evidence from the documentary data concurred with the above claim as seen in the following account of the Mozambique dental project:

Interaction with Mozambique has also changed the thinking of Canadian faculty and students involved in the project . . . . [According to the Project
Coordinator], the relationship is such that we are truly learning from each other. We're sharing, we're exchanging, we're seeing that we have things in common. (Millar, 1994, p. 4)

The data did not reveal a clear picture on the extent to which faculty members' international experiences were impacting the curriculum. One faculty member, however, felt that his international activities had been useful in advancing institutional and community concerns:

Certainly it makes a big difference in the way I teach the courses and in the actual assignments I give to students. I have picked up ideas from people all over the world. I have also been influential in the development of [a subject] curriculum in this province, and have brought . . . ideas from England and Australia. Now, this indirectly affects this university because our mandate in this college is to prepare people to teach the intended curriculum in the schools. And, if my participation in international education has had something to do with what that curriculum is, then that has an indirect effect on the courses we teach to prepare students for that curriculum. So, I think I have been able to do a little towards enhancing our university with first nations' education.
(Int., 05, April 17, p. 2)

The personal interests of individual faculty members could not be denied as expressed by the following respondent:

From one perspective, in the context of a university, one is expected to publish. So, looking at international research very narrowly, one does that to further one's own career. Of course the answer is narrow and is probably a short-sighted view of things. (Int., 07, April 22, p. 1)

Another faculty respondent reiterated the need for participation in international conferences:

Our participation in international conferences have made more people aware of what is going on at the U of S. These linkages have allowed us to participate in the dissemination of knowledge because our research articles are made available. People know what is happening here, and, in a very simplistic fashion, it gives us some scholarly credibility in the broader world of academia.
Concurring with this position, an international researcher stated:

We should be enhancing the university's international reputation. We cannot have an international reputation by saying we have got one. We can only have one if people internationally have heard of us, and the only way to have them hear of us is for us to get out there and do some hustling. There are some who think that if they write a couple of papers, they will have international reputation. That is not true. We have to actually participate in the international scene.

The data appeared to show that the university as an organization directly accrued benefits that advanced the interests of the university. For instance, a proponent of modern languages claimed: "It is not conceivable for having a university that does not teach any kind of modern languages" (Int., 26, May 27, p. 1). In other words, this particular respondent argued that having modern languages as part of the university program is necessary in a modern university.

Along similar lines, another respondent argued the benefits of having international graduate students at the U of S:

Our institution benefits by the research that our international graduate students undertake. In fact, some departments could not function without international students. Now, that is not normally said, but if the international students were not here in the numbers that are here, then we would not have some of the doctoral programs. These would have to be shut down. Of course, as soon as that happens, then it affects the undergraduate programs. So, if we do not have a certain number and caliber of professors, then the undergraduate programs are going to suffer, and of course in research grants and so on. So, international graduate students are absolutely crucial for the U of S in this respect.

Documentary evidence supported the sentiments expressed by interviewee #19. According to Sarkar (1994a), "the fact remains that the University's overall learning environment will
be enriched by . . . the number of international students in most if not all undergraduate programs" (p. 11).

While international alumni was still an underdeveloped area of international activity for the U of S, the potential benefits to the university were already being embraced. A respondent from the Alumni Office alluded to this as follows:

Our main goal has always been to keep the alumni with close affinities to the university - informed, good ambassadors for the university; always helping us recruit more students; providing opportunities for alumni to participate with other alumni in mentoring-type activities; and hopefully, alumni branches will be set up internationally. To the university, it is extremely important to have people in communities that are very supportive of the organization. Obviously, it strengthens the organization. There is an ultimate goal as well, that those support will become financial for some alumni. (Int., 08, April 23, p. 1)

Finally, a direct benefit to the university was evidenced in this newspaper account of the Mozambique dental project:

Tim Pierce, a fourth-year dentistry student, attended the pasantia in Mozambique this summer and says the experience has given him a new perspective on dentistry in Canada. "You don't notice the things going on around you that . . . should be changed," he says. "When you're removed from that situation, talking to other people and learning about their reality, you see the things that could be changed in your own society." (Millar, 1994, p. 4)

The data seemed to support that international education as organizational development was a strong rationale for a number of activities at the U of S. The claimed benefits to the university were wide-ranging. Faculty and students gained from the exposures obtained through students exchanges and visiting scholars. As well, faculty members were enriched socially and professionally through international conferences and consultancy services. Moreover, the university's reputation was advanced through the participation of its faculty in international conferences and research projects. Furthermore, the academic, social and financial standings of the university were positively impacted
through such activities as modern languages, international graduate students and international alumni.

**Summary.** In summary, the data indicated that international education at the U of S was driven by all four philosophical orientations, namely: development education, global education, economic development, and organizational development. Evidence from the interviews showed that only minimal support was given to a development education rationale. This support, however, was limited to technical assistance projects. In contrast, a majority of respondents supported a global education rationale. This high level of support was evidenced by the existence of a wide variety of activities such as study tours, students exchanges, and global education courses.

The data further indicated support for international education as economic development. Proponents of this orientation believed that such activities as country programs, fee-paying international students, and off-shore centres would lead to organizational competitiveness with possible economic benefits to the host nation. Finally, it was noted that a majority of respondents supported international education for organizational development. This perspective espoused that the organization would ultimately benefit from the personal and professional advancements which students and faculty members obtained as a result of their participation in international activities.

**International Activities**

A wide range of international activities were taking place at the U of S. The activities listed are representative of the kinds of international activities undertaken by the U of S. For development oriented activities, the U of S continued to participate in technical assistance projects such as the Mozambique dental project (Int., 01, April 9) and the China grasslands project (Int., 11, April 25). Typically, these technical assistance projects involved large numbers of people in a wide range of activities such as seminars, customized training, applied research, consultancies, and study tours. Activities which
were driven by a global agenda were also noted. Examples of these included collaborative research (Int., 25, May 22); study tours, as at the College of Education (Int., 15, May 7); courses such as International law, in the College of Law (Int., 20, May 14); the Yeltsin Fellowships (Int., 17, May 8), or International studies in the College of Art and Science (Int., 21, May 15).

A number of international activities were also driven by an economic rationale. Some examples included: customized training for industry (Int., 12, April 29), country programs (Int., 06, April 19), business education (Int., 12, April 29), the Malaysian project in the College of Medicine (Int., 17, May 8) as well as the recruitment of fee-paying undergraduate international students (Int., 14, May 3). Finally, the data also showed activities that seemed to be primarily driven by an organizational focus. At the U of S these activities included: international alumni (Int., 08, April 23), faculty exchanges (Int., 09, April 23), graduate international students (Int., 19, May 7), participation in international conferences and associations (Int., 10, April 25), and student exchange programs (Int., 04, April 11).

**How is International Education Governed at the U of S?**

To answer this question, the discussion covers four levels of activities: university-wide services, college-based activities, department-based initiatives, and activities of individual faculty members. The central purpose of this section is to describe the governance of international education within the U of S. Consequently, attention is given to the structures, roles and processes by which international activities are undertaken.

**University-wide Services**

A number of university services were dedicated to international education. Some, like the Office of the International Students Advisor and the Graduate Studies International Education Committee had long-standing structures. Others, like the U of S International, the U of S Academic Affairs Sub-committee on International Academic Initiatives and the
International Division of the Registrar's Office were created recently. In the following pages, these general services are dealt with in some detail.

**The international students advisor's office.** This office is principally responsible for the welfare of the international students. It is staffed by an Advisor and a secretary and is administratively housed in the Students Services Division. Some of the services offered to international students included: pre-arrival information, reception at arrival, accommodation, and on-going counseling (International Students Advisor's Office, 1995, pp. 2-3). As well, some of the regular programs included: orientation, a host family program, spousal program, oral English, international Christmas, and international tea (pp. 3-5). It was noted that the Advisor was an advocate for international students, and worked closely with deans, heads of departments, and the university administration.

**Graduate studies international education committee.** Until recently, the International Education Committee of the College of Graduate Studies was the only committee within the U of S with an international education focus. Among the tasks of the committee was the responsibility to "promote, and provide a forum for the exchange of information and ideas regarding internationalization in graduate education among faculty, students and administration" (College of Graduate Studies and Research, 1995). According to Williamson (1994), one of the notable achievements of this committee was the creation of the U of S International. At the time this study was undertaken, the Graduate Studies International Education Committee was reviewing its mandate in the light of the recently established Academic Affairs Sub-committee on International Academic Initiatives.

**U of S International.** The U of S International was established in 1993 with funding from a number of college Deans. According to Sarkar (1994b), the principal task of this unit was to coordinate "the consultation on the global dimensions of the [University] mission" (p. 3). At the time of this study, the U of S International was staffed by a
Director and a program coordinator. While the Director was administratively answerable to the Vice President Academic, the position had direct access to the President on matters pertaining to policy on international education. In 1995 a review of the U of S International was conducted by a committee appointed by the Vice President Academic. One of the major recommendations of this committee was to disband the U of S International (Michelmann, H. J., Atkinson, D. W., Billinton, R., DeCillia, B., Forsyth, L., Tiessen, H., Whitworth, A. J., & Owen, M., 1995). This recommendation, however, was not accepted by the President of the U of S.

**Sub-committee on international academic initiatives.** The sub-committee of the Academic Affairs committee was newly created as a university-wide group. At the time of this study, the mandate of the sub-committee had yet to be finalized. What was important about this committee was that it was a sub-committee of the Academic Affairs committee of Council, and was well-placed to make recommendations to the Academic Affairs committee on matters pertaining to internationalizing the university.

**International division of the registrar's office.** The international division of the Registrar's office was another recent creation, following the policy decision by the U of S to admit international undergraduate students into colleges such as Arts & Science, Engineering, and Commerce. At the time of this study, this division was staffed by three officers. The primary task of this division was to systematize the admission of international undergraduate students.

**College-based Strategies**

There was a variation in the types and levels of participation in international education by the U of S colleges. This section does not deal with that issue, but focuses instead on the strategies that are evident in college-wide international activities. The examples presented are not meant to be exhaustive, but rather to portray the various governance strategies that have been adopted, and to examine these in some depth.
Stand-alone centres. A number of centres of excellence with mandates related to international education were found in a few colleges at the U of S. In this section, an example is provided of the Centre for International Business Studies (CIBS). The CIBS located in the College of Commerce represents a stand-alone permanent structure with the goal of facilitating the economic interests of Saskatchewan stakeholders. The mission of the CIBS is three-fold:

- To expand the opportunities for international education for the young people of Saskatchewan;
- To enhance the capacity of Saskatchewan's small and medium-sized enterprises in exploring new opportunities in the international marketplace; and
- To facilitate cooperation between the university and the private business community in developing export opportunities in the service sector.

(CIBS, 1990, p. 2)

At the time of this study, the CIBS was manned by a Director who was a faculty member of the College of Commerce. Working with the Director was an Advisory Board, with representation from business and government, as well as from the college faculty. The CIBS depended on the academic departments of the college, as the Centre itself did not have the resources. This relationship was explained as follows:

Once the Centre advisory board has agreed on an activity, then it is up to the Director to negotiate with the faculty and a department to see if the department can undertake that activity. If we come to some agreement that meets both departmental and the Centre's objectives, then . . . the responsibility becomes a joint task. (Int., 12, April 29, p. 1)

One such activity was the MBA 898: Cross Cultural Management - Focus on Japan course. In 1995, students who took this course went to Japan on a four-week attachment with Japanese businesses. Conversely, Japanese business personnel visited Saskatoon for a similar experience. In this particular example, it was the department of Finance and
Management Science that offered the academic program, while the CIBS financed the operations.

Concerns were raised about the financial support for the operations of CIBS. These concerns were common for activities where varying degrees of vested economic interests were held by different participants. One respondent reflected this concern as follows:

It is going to be difficult to sustain the activities of the Centre because governments are withdrawing their support. Education is too much of a long-term consideration, and governments do not see any instant repayment . . . we have seen our budget from the federal government drop, and from the provincial government disappear. (Int., 12, April 29, p. 3)

A coordinator of one of the MBA 898 courses expressed the frustrations caused by inadequate financial support at the college level:

One of the short-comings we have is that we do not have administrative staff to take over a lot of the legwork. I am doing all the work with the travel agent . . . prepare all the documentation and get the gifts ready. Our Director [of the CIBS] does not have adequate staff, but . . . my department secretary really does not exist. (Int., 06, April 19, p. 6)

The need for improved resources for the CIBS was likely based on the argument that unless current key international linkages were sustained, the U of S would lose from these experiences:

In terms of building relationships, we have invested a lot in South East Asia. We have got contacts established. The U of S has to start to figure out that you cannot turn activities on and off. You have got to build on the relationships [that] you have in place . . . . in our college, we have had a long history of trying to turn programs on and off. (Int., 06, April 9, p. 6)

The concern expressed by interviewee #6 raised implications for considerations of sustaining the activities of the CIBS.
**International program coordinator.** Another college-based strategy was to establish a coordinator for international programs. This strategy was used by the College of Agriculture, whereby a position was created in response to the need for a greater coordinated participation in international education. According to a college-based respondent, the roles of the international coordinator were: to make contacts for developing exchange agreements with foreign universities, and to assist U of S researchers to be successful in their international initiatives (Int., 16, May 8, p. 2).

Unlike the College of Commerce strategy, the College of Agriculture appeared to have few structural systems in place. Instead, the decision-making emphasis was placed on the coordinator. The relative regard for structures in the Agriculture strategy was reflected in an explanation by a respondent:

> I think that procedures imply a rigidity which should be minimized. In the setting here at the U of S, most of the administrators are facilitators, unlike a Third World setting where the administrators are not necessarily facilitators. If one then formalizes the administrative structures of a project to make it necessary before something happens, the project dies. (Int., 02, April 9, p. 6)

The seeming absence of highly developed structures for international education within the College of Agriculture was not due to a lack of participation in international education. The college had had extensive experience in international education. With a total budget of several millions of dollars, the college's activities in Brazil alone had been going on for twenty years. A better explanation could well be in the types of activities undertaken at the college. According to the 1994 report on international activities (cited by Jones, 1996), many of the international activities of the College of Agriculture related to research, consultancies, and the training of international students at the U of S. Consequently, these activities were not likely to require complex structural systems dedicated solely for international activities.
Another possible explanation for the College of Agriculture governance strategy was the influence that major players had on the system. One such player appeared to have little regard for administrative structures:

International contracts that have a certain prestige attached to them will have administrative pressures to base the projects at a university level, a college level or an administrative level. Invariably, that is lethal to the international activity. In my view, this is a diversion of funds, of time, of energy, and, therefore, I always avoid such a drift. In the projects that we have, we have been able to maintain contact directly with individual researchers, and individual students, therefore, the monies have always been activity-directed. We do not create a large overhead at the institutional level or fancy administrative levels.

(Int., 02, April 9, pp. 2-3)

The sentiments expressed by interviewee #2 helped to explain the little regard for administrative structures for the governance of international education in the college of Agriculture.

**Project manager.** Yet another college-based strategy related to associating governance with a specific international project. One such example was the Mozambique project at the College of Dentistry. This CIDA-sponsored development project was aimed at preparing a group of Mozambique health teachers to challenge and reform the Mozambique dental health curriculum and make it more relevant to local realities (Dickson, 1991).

At the college level, the Project Director was responsible for administering the project on a day-to-day basis. To assist the director, the project had an internal management committee consisting of the Dean, a finance officer, a faculty representative and the project Director. The primary task of the internal committee was explained as follows by a College of Dentistry respondent:

The management committee meets every four to six weeks to ensure that our project work plans are being followed. If these are not being followed, then
we want to find out what the issues are and try to address them.
(Int., 01, April 9, p. 4)

The Mozambique project also had an advisory committee which comprised the project director, a faculty member, and four non-college representatives from the community. The advisory committee meets four times a year providing "some sort of presence to ensure that whatever is done, is done with good development in mind" (Int., 01, April 9, p. 3). Consequently, the choice of representatives was important. Rather than fill the committee with dentists, this particular advisory committee had experienced community people who would reflect "where you try to go with the project" (p. 5).

**Other strategies.** Within a number of colleges, international activities were closely tied to individual faculty members. One such activity was the student exchange program. While the administrative responsibility for international education within a college may fall within the jurisdiction of an Associate Dean, many of the student exchange programs were initiated and administered by individual faculty members. Consequently, as the case was in the College of Arts and Science, different faculty members were responsible for different student exchange programs. In the College of Physical Education, the student exchange programs had a common committee, but different faculty coordinators.

In all of the student exchange programs, the support of the Dean was deemed to be very important (Int., 03, April 11, p. 2; Int., 04, April 11, p. 3). This view was expressed by a college coordinator of a student exchange program:

> For the exchange to work, I believe it is essential to have the Dean believe that the program is important. Without our Dean's support, the first student exchange would not have worked. (Int., 04, April 11, p. 3)

The strategy involving individual faculty in college-based international activities appeared to be common throughout the University.
Department-based Activities

A number of international activities were based within academic departments. These included international research, small development projects, visiting international scholars, international graduate students, and study tours.

As with other international activities at the U of S, department-based activities were often tied to individual faculty members for their initiation (Int., 09, April 23, p. 3; Int., 10, April 25, p. 6), and implementation (Int., 06, April 19, p. 4). The role of the department varied from activity to activity. For instance, for a visiting professor, the host department's responsibility was to ensure that the basic infrastructure such as office space, telephone, fax, e-mail services and library facilities were provided (Int., 25, May 22, p. 4). In another example, where a course was being taught abroad, the academic department's role was to ensure that academic standards were met, and the professor's teaching load and schedules were appropriate.

Often the support by departments were minimal. In spite of this, individual professors who were responsible for certain activities still valued the minimal support that was given them. One respondent who coordinated student exchange programs expressed the need for support as follows:

We are in an era of cutbacks and financial resources are simply not there. If you look at what the university does, in effect, it is the sum total of what the professors do. A student exchange program is something I believe in. It is a program that helps students, and is worth doing because it is worth doing. It would, therefore, be nice to have some support. (Int., 07, April 22, p. 6)

It would appear that the support needed by individual faculty was not necessarily financial.

Individually-governed Initiatives

A number of international research projects or activities were a result of sabbatical leaves. The governance of such activities was premised on a professional basis, as alluded to by a faculty member who explained: "most of these international contacts are made by
virtue of your own work. Nobody really finds these things, and then assigns them to you" (Int., 11, April 25, p. 4).

How the initial contacts were made for these individually-driven activities varied considerably. In a number of cases, it was found that U of S faculty members were interested in doing research in their original ethnic countries. For instance, there was a case of a professor of Mexican ancestry doing research in Mexico (Int., 13, May 2, p. 1), and another professor of Indian ancestry working with schools in the Indian sub-continent (Int., 03, April 11, p. 1). Numerous examples of this type were found.

In collaborative research projects, meeting a foreign colleague at an international conference was a common first contact, as was the case in this example:

For me, I had to do reasonable research. I had to ascertain my line of research. I needed to know directly, or indirectly, the top people in my field who have done significant work. I met these people at meetings, conferences and symposiums. I got to know them personally. I got to develop a sense of comradeship, which then led to a colleague and I doing a collaborative activity together. So, for me, it was kind of an evolving process. (Int., 10, April 25, p. 3)

Alternately, a faculty member's international reputation was a point of contact for collaborative research:

In the case with my joint research, it was the foreign researcher who contacted me two years ago because of my journal articles. We then set things up, and I later got to meet him personally. (Int., 25, May 22, p. 4)

In each of the international activities where individual faculty members were involved, formal arrangements were not developed. In all instances, a faculty member was very much in control of decision-making. This, however, did not seem to negate the need for the university or a home college to support the individual faculty member (Int., 03, April 11, p. 2). From a governance perspective, this strategy raised questions of accountability and standards.
Summary of Governance Model

An examination of the governance model of international education at the U of S showed a complex system of structures and roles which were not necessarily related or rationalized. At the university-wide level, there were a number of campus-wide structures providing focused services for international education. For instance, the U of S International was responsible for implementing the university's internationalization policy and the office of the International Students Advisor was responsible for the general welfare of international students. At the college level, a number of strategies were in place, including: centres of excellence, as in the College of Commerce; international coordinators, as in the College of Agriculture; or project managers, as in the College of Dentistry. These strategies reflected the nature of the activities and the extent of participation by the colleges in international activities.

At the departmental level, the roles played by departments varied from case to case. In situations such as hosting a visiting scholar, or having a graduate international student, the roles of the department were minimal. In other instances such as study tours and programs with an off-shore component, the roles played by the academic department were significant.

It was common to find that a number of the international research projects and student exchange programs were tied to individual faculty members. In these situations individual faculty members were responsible for the governance of these activities.

How Adequate is the Governance of International Education?

As with the SIAST chapter, this section is presented in three parts. First, a description is made of the criteria that were suggested by respondents as measures of adequacy of governance. Second, an examination is made of the extent to which the governance of international education at the U of S was considered efficient. This evaluation was based on the suggested criteria, as well as those obtained from the general
literature and represented in Table 3 of Chapter 3. Third, a presentation is made of the degree to which adequacy of governance was considered from a moral dimension. Again, this assessment took into account suggested criteria, if any, and the prepared set of criteria as outlined in Table 3.

**Suggested Criteria**

Respondents were asked about the factors they would use to assess the adequacy of governance of international education. Though the factors mentioned varied, all reflected a rational view of governance. A list of the suggested criteria and their representational support is as follows:

1. Understanding of the goals of international activities (20%);
2. Achievement of the goals of international activities (27%);
3. Coordination of international activities (20%);
4. Support by Dean, College and University (20%);
5. Autonomy of faculty researcher (20%);
6. Sustainability of international activity (7%); and
7. Feedback mechanisms (7%).

The suggested criteria generally overlapped with those listed in Table 3 except for: goal achievement, faculty autonomy, and sustainability. A discussion of the respondents' assessments on the suggested criteria is incorporated in the section that follows. At this point, however, it is noted that the list was obtained from fifteen respondents only. Others, however, chose not to take up the invitation to make suggestions.

**Measures of Efficiency**

An assessment of adequacy of governance structure for a complex organization such as the U of S was by no means easy. The following discussion is, therefore, indicative of the concerns at various levels of operation. To reiterate, the discussion is based on the assessments of respondents on the adequacy of the governance of international education on the basis of suggested and prepared criteria. The discussion
covers the following criteria: clarity of goals, coordination mechanisms, supportive structures, systematized procedures, sustainability, and feedback mechanisms. As stated in Chapter 3, the extent of support of a position is expressed as a percentage of interviewees who responded to a particular assessment criterion.

**Clarity of goals.** It was noted that the U of S had a mission statement related to international education (Sarkar, 1994a). However, it was not clear the extent to which the mission statement was known by the stakeholders. A student respondent claimed that the goals for international education at the U of S were not at all clear (Int., 23, May 16, p. 3). The student further noted, "We do not have a strategic plan for internationalization. We do not have any kind of mission statement" (p. 3). This claim was also shared by a staff respondent (Int., 19, May 07, p. 4).

According to Sarkar (1994a), some of the international education objectives of the University included:

- Enhancement of study abroad opportunities for students;
- Expansion of institutional linkages involving students and faculty;
- Establishment of interdisciplinary programs with a global focus;
- Collaborative academic programs with foreign institutions;
- Introducing global perspectives into existing curricular; and
- Enhancing access for qualified foreign international students. (pp. 3-4)

It appeared that while the goals for internationalization of the U of S were stated, these goals were not necessarily shared or known by stakeholders. A recent review of the U of S International drew attention to this conclusion:

"It is clear that the expectations, when taken in their entirety, were wide-ranging; it might be said, they were unrealistic given the resources available . . . not to accuse any one respondent because they were so broad-ranging and uninformed by and formal statement of . . . goals, were bound to lead to some disappointment. (Michelmann et al., 1995, p. 4)"
A total of 17 respondents commented on this criterion. Eighty-two percent of these respondents agreed that goals were clear for international activities. Respondents indicated that goal clarity was seen for country programs (Int., 06, April 19, p. 5) and research projects (Int., 10, April 25, p. 5). A respondent in the College of Education claimed that the goals of student exchange programs were clear to all stakeholders (Int., 04, April 11, p. 3). A similar observation was made by a respondent in the College of Physical Education for a faculty exchange program:

I think the agreement document certainly lends itself to expressing quite specifically what the purposes of the exchange are. I think the paper trail has specifically and adequately covered the rationale for and procedures of the exchange program. I think that these have been done quite clearly and in a detailed fashion. (Int., 09, April 23, p. 5)

Similarly, a College of Law respondent agreed that faculty, staff and administrators were clear on the goals of their particular technical assistance project (Int., 20, May 14, p. 2). One administrator suggested that the awareness of the goals of international activities had somehow not been translated to the students. According to this administrator, "faculty are much more aware because they quite regularly and routinely interact with academics from other countries" (Int., 17, May 2, p. 5). Another administrator had an opposing view. In relation to exchange students this administrator observed, "I think students are less traditional than their professors. The idea that one should spend sometime abroad is becoming quite attractive, especially if one can get credit for it" (Int., 16, May 8, p. 5).

Not all respondents agreed on clarity of goals for the international activities in which they were involved. This position was expressed by a respondent from the Alumni Office who noted:

I think that we have a long way to go in clarifying what exactly our service is and the processes necessary in supporting international alumni. We find that generally our policies and what we do here is not known on this campus. One
of our goals this year is to educate the campus and international alumni will be part of that education. (Int., 08, April 23, p. 3)

The distinction between goals and objectives, and their tendency to change was brought out by this respondent from the College of Agriculture:

The goals of our international project is to improve the institutional setting in Brazil and to develop an educational research capacity that deals with current environmental and agricultural production problems. Those are very clear. Within that large framework, the objectives are not clear at all because they shift. At any one time, they may be clear, but because we are working with a number of individuals, there is a lot of flexibility within the overall framework. (Int., 02, April 9, p. 5)

The issue of goal achievement for international education at the U of S was an important one. From a narrow perspective, achievement of goals for specific activities could be viewed in a number of ways. First, a faculty respondent claimed that goals were attained in small gains (Int., 01, April 09, p. 6). According to this particular respondent, gaining awareness of the commonalities in development issues in Canada and the developing nations was a goal in technical assistance projects. For this respondent, this goal was attained when students who had been involved in a project were able to critically question their own systems at home (Int., 01, April 9, p. 6).

Second, a respondent from the College of Commerce interpreted goal achievement in terms of a gainful international career placement. This respondent claimed that students who had taken international business-related courses were generally successful in obtaining international business career opportunities (Int., 06, April 19, p. 5). Third, a coordinator of a number of student exchange programs noted that the provision of opportunities for student exchanges was itself an achievement. In this respondent's view, "the presence of exchange students here enhances the education opportunities for our students. I see this as evidence of the fact that these exchanges are acceptable goals" (Int., 07, April 22, p. 5).
**Coordination mechanisms.** Coordination was a concern for university-wide and college-based initiatives. Of a respondent group of fifteen, 47% felt that coordination of international education was not adequate (e.g., Int., 05, April 17, p. 5; Int., 08, April 23, p. 3; Int., 23, May 16, p. 3). An extreme example was represented by one respondent who commented: "USI is just window dressing. I see next to no coordination at all" (Int., 05, April 17, p. 5). Such an assessment was supported by the fact that many faculty members seemed to be unaware of how similar international activities were governed in other colleges (Int., 02, April 9, p. 3; Int., 05, April 17, p. 3). Pierce (1995) captured the lack of communication in her observation of the U of S situation:

There are numerous groups both on and off campus planning and implementing [international] programs, but they have little to do with each other. These initiatives have been isolated steps which make it difficult to move forward. There is . . . not enough communication, collaboration or sharing of information and/or resources. (p. 6)

One respondent suggested that the inability of some colleges to attract international projects was partially due to poor coordination (Int., 05, April 17, p. 5). An administrator agreed that university-wide coordination mechanisms for international education were underdeveloped. This particular administrator went on to suggest that this situation was a reflection of the nature of the university:

This is a very decentralized university and colleges are left to manage their own affairs. There are times when we cooperate, but a lot of times we do not. International education is just one of those areas that falls within this governance structure. (Int., 17, May 8, p. 7)

In spite of this decentralized system, the need for university-wide coordination of international education appeared necessary. The USI Review Committee referred to the importance of university-wide coordination as follows:

It is essential, in our view, that campus-wide coordination of international activities should become a priority and that an overall philosophy and strategy
for campus internationalization be developed. (Michelmann et al., 1995, p. 13)

A further explanation was given by a faculty respondent:

An institution functions more effectively when there are clear understandings on how best to proceed and to implement international education policy. This does not mean that there ought to be an operations manual or a checklist of things that must be done. There ought to be some adherence within the university . . . to the kind of commitments than can be made on the part of the institution. (Int., 15, May 7, p. 3)

It was noted that the U of S International was expected to coordinate international education (Michelmann et al., 1995).

At the college level, coordination of international activities was rated as adequate by 53% of the respondents. Coordination was impacted by the size of a college and the nature of the activities. In a college where coordination was rated as adequate, one respondent attributed this to the smallness of the college. According to this faculty member:

Ours is a fairly non-formal approach because we know each other quite well, so there is communication back and forth in fairly honest and forthright fashion. People can therefore compliment each other but they can also be annoyed and will express their annoyance. (Int., 01, April 9, p. 7)

The data supported that coordination mechanisms were adequate for country programs (Int., 06, April 19, p. 6), the activities of the International Students Advisor’s Office (Int., 09, April 23, p. 6), and technical assistance programs (Int., 13, May 02, p. 5). Furthermore, coordination was improving for a number of college-based international activities. These included student exchange programs (Int., 04, April 11, p. 3) and recruitment of international students into the College of Arts and Science (Int., 14, May 3, p. 3). An example of this success was the regular information meetings held between the various offices that had a responsibility to play in the admission of international undergraduate students.
Another view of coordination was given by a coordinator of a technical assistance project. This respondent pointed out that the question of coordination often related to a particular area of concern. In this case, financial management for a project "took a while to coordinate" (Int., 01, April 9, p. 5).

**Supportive structures.** The study examined supportive structures at a university-wide level and college-based level. The majority of respondents who saw supportive structures as inadequate made the assessment in relation to university-wide structures. Pierce (1995) reflected this perception in the following observation:

> Although changing, the U of S administration has not shown enough commitment to [international] education on campus. This support would help faculty see [international] education as a more important part of their own commitment. (p. 7)

The interview data revealed that this negative evaluation referred to such issues as the lack of a developed infrastructure for student exchange programs (Int., 17, May 8), the rigidity of academic regulations for student research (Int., 25, May 22), the limited resources for the U of S International (Michelmann et al., 1995), the inadequate level of financial support (Int., 26, May 27, p. 2), and the non-existence of on-campus opportunities for interested faculty and students to participate in international activities (Int., 23, May 16).

In some academic areas the data also revealed a hurdle in curriculum development. One faculty respondent expressed this concern in the following manner:

> In one sense, the university seems quite keen on internationalization, but in another way, there appears to be a conservatism which may be good for the university but not for the students. Let me put it this way, that I find a contrast between heavy-handed administrative structure and very excited students. Every single day on the job, I am reminded of this, that students know what they want to do in life. They are very keen about what they are studying. They are motivated about the international field. Yet, students run into red tape and unnecessary administrative complications relating to developing new courses,
changing directions in programs . . . and Asian languages concentration.
(Int., 21, May 15, p. 4)

On a more positive note, however, three respondents who referred to the
International Students' Advisor's Office highly rated the supportive services created by that
office (e.g., Int., 22, May 16, p. 5). Furthermore, the creation of the U of S International
and the International Academic Initiatives sub-committee were hailed as "big steps in the
right direction" (Int., 21, May 15, p. 4):

The fact that the USI exists shows that the university feels that international
education is important, however, the USI office has only two staff members.
To me, this indicates that we talk a lot about international education, but when
it comes to putting resources in place, it does not follow very quickly.
(Int., 23, May 16, p. 2)

The documentary data indicated a positive regard for the creation of the USI. Williamson
(1994) echoed this sentiment as follows:

Over the last six years or so, the [College of Graduate Studies] International
Committee pursued the main policy theme it identified for itself, and achieved,
with strong help from the Deans and the enthusiastic assent of the President,
i.e., the creation of the galvanising and coordinating international,
central node now called University of Saskatchewan International. (p. 1)

At the college level, supportive structures were seen by 64% of those who
responded to this criterion as generally adequate. The specific activities that were included
in this positive assessment were student exchange programs (Int., 09, April 23, p. 6),
visiting scholars (Int., 18, May 8, p. 3), technical assistance projects (Int., 11, April 22, p.
7) and international research programs (Int., 25, May 22, p. 4).

One of the recurring themes for college level support was the role of college
administrators. A majority of respondents (e.g., Int., 03, April 11, p. 2; Int., 04, April
11, p. 3; Int., 14, May 3, p. 4) felt that it was important to have the support of the college
Dean. This perspective was reflected in a comment by a coordinator of a student exchange program:

    I hold the view that it is essential to have the Dean believe that international education is important. Without our Dean's support, the exchange program would not have got off the ground. (Int., 04, April 11, p. 3)

A similar sentiment was expressed by an international researcher:

    I think that structures are smoke screens. What is really important are the people who run those structures. Our Dean has been extremely supportive of international initiatives. If you ever go to him with an idea or a problem, he will say he does not have any money but will ask how else he could help. For a researcher that may be all you really need. (Int., 05, April 17, p. 5)

The role played by advisory committees to specific activities was important at the college level. Again, a majority of respondents held this view (e.g., Int., 01, April 9, p. 3; Int., 13, May 2, p. 5; Int., 09, April 23, p. 4). In speaking to the supporting role of an advisory committee to an international project, a faculty member noted:

    I found that the members of the advisory committee were extremely supportive, knowledgeable and interested in the welfare of the project. I had the impression that the committee was positive. (Int., 13, May 2, p. 5)

Where advisory committees were involved, all respondents rated the performance of these committees favorably.

    An interesting finding was that all the respondent administrators rated supportive structures as inadequate as compared to only 24% of the program deliverers. This difference is likely explained in terms of how the two respondent groups viewed what support was adequate. According to one program deliverer, moral support by administrators was all that was often needed by a faculty member (Int., 15, May 7, p. 6).

    **Systematized procedures.** Perspectives on the criterion of systematized procedures varied. On one hand, a respondent suggested that systematized procedures should be rejected as they "imply a rigidity that should be minimized" (Int., 02, April 9, p.
6). On the other hand, there was the view that procedures were necessary evils. One faculty respondent expressed this position as follows:

In international activities, when the paper work is less, the more efficient your administration becomes, but also the greater risk of problems for the institution. For our project, I did not feel that the involvement of the university was unreasonable in any way. Although one finds rule requirements to be frustrating, I had the feeling that if I was sitting in the shoes of the university administration, I would be making sure that there were checks and balances in place for the project to be well-handled. (Int., 20, May 14, p. 3)

Looking at procedures from a university-wide perspective, one respondent concluded, "we are probably low in systematizing procedures" for international education (Int., 08, April 23, p. 4). It was a difficult task to assess university-wide procedures as there were no clearly agreed upon procedures. This being the case, it was necessary to examine the adequacy of procedures for specific international activities instead. Of those who offered responses on this criterion, 66% agreed that procedures for international activities were adequately systematized. Procedures for the admission of international undergraduate students (Int., 14, May 31, p. 5) and student exchange programs (Int., 12, April 29, p. 4) had significantly improved:

During the first year, we were working largely on an ad hoc basis. But the Registrar's Office has since systematized the student registration, credentialing and transfer of credits from a foreign university. I think that we are now in a situation where the procedures are reasonably routine. (Int., 07, April 22, p. 6)

Similar positive comments were also noted for study tours, faculty inquiries with the U of S International (Int., 23, May 16, p. 4), ESL programs (Centre for Second Language Instruction, 1996), international graduate students (Int., 19, May 07, p. 8), and faculty sabbatical leaves (Int., 25, May 22, p. 2). Although procedures appeared to be systematized, efficient governance structures were not guaranteed. This view was held by a staff respondent who explained that communication between academic departments and
his office were maintained as a result of personal relationships, and not necessarily because of clear and systematized procedures (Int., 19, May 7, p. 8).

Procedures for country programs were not also guaranteed. According to a faculty coordinator of one such program:

Present procedures are valid only as long as we do not go into a new country. This is because every country is different in culture, religious holidays, and the times people work are different. All the things we do, and how we do them in Japan would not necessarily fit in Russia. (Int., 12, April 29, p. 4)

It would appear that procedures for country programs were likely to be different when dealing with different countries.

It was also noted that procedures were not adequately systematized for international alumni (Int., 08, April 23, p. 3) and one student exchange program (Int., 09, April 23, p. 7).

**Sustainability.** A concern for "sustainability" was expressed in a number of ways. The need for sustainability was seen in terms of supporting an espoused international education policy. An example from the documentary data reflected this concern:

There was strong insistence . . . that more effort should be expended on institutionalizing various processes related to internationalizing the campus, as well as following up on initiatives that have been made by the University in its internationalizing efforts. Without such follow-up, and without support for implementing these initiatives, individual faculty members may become discouraged or feel that internationalizing the campus results in more work for them than the exercise is worth. (Michelmann et al., 1995, p. 6)

A majority of the respondents felt that the U of S was not sustaining international initiatives adequately (e.g., Int., 21, May 15, p. 7; Int., 02, April 09, p. 8; Int., 07, April 22, p. 4). Concerns were raised over a lack of sufficient resources for country studies (Int., 06, April 19, p. 8) and funding for student exchanges (Int., 07, April 22, p. 4),
foreign languages (Int., 26, May 27, p. 4), international research (Int., 21, May 15, p. 7) and sabbatical leaves (Int., 25 May 22, p. 4).

The problems of sustaining international policy appeared to be more than just economics and resources. An explanation from a staff respondent from the Alumni Department indicated some of the constraints of implementing a policy on international alumni:

It is so easy to lose contact with international alumni because many of them live so far away. Also, the countries alumni are from have varying degrees of communication capabilities and often we have no way of tracing our international alumni. (Int., 08, April 23, pp. 3-4)

Lack of innovation also appeared to be an issue. According to Pierce (1995):

Too often we focus on financial resources when designing programming, but there is a wealth of other resources available on campus for [international] education. These other resources include volunteers, experience and existing programming. We need to identify our strengths and areas of experience and build upon them. This can be done through a maintained inventory of resources, both on and off campus. This inventory should be up-dated at least every two years, as people return to Saskatoon and the campus, documented and accessible to both the campus and off-campus communities. (p. 10)

The vast majority of international initiatives were closely tied to individual faculty members. A common fear among respondents was that if an individual faculty decided not to participate in a program, then the program runs the risk of being dropped or being negatively affected. A faculty coordinator of a country program expressed this fear as follows:

Should I drop my role as faculty advisor, it is not clear at all that the program could survive. In the Asian situation, willingness to participate is based on personal trust. For someone to take over from me would take a couple of years of my involvement, to hand over. (Int., 06, April 19, p. 7)
It appeared from the above discussion that the majority of respondents did not see the performance of the U of S to sustain international initiatives as adequate.

**Summary of Efficiency of Governance**

In the preceding paragraphs, the question of efficiency of governance of international education at the U of S was presented. The presentation entailed an assessment by respondents on the clarity of goals, coordination mechanisms, supportive structures, systematized procedures, and sustainability. Table 6 below provides a summary of the assessment of governance on issues of efficiency. In this and subsequent summary tables on the U of S data, ratings of $1 = \text{high, } 2 = \text{moderate and } 3 = \text{low}$ are used. These ratings reflected the quantitative representation of both the interview and document data as follows: two thirds or more positive comments = high, less than two thirds but more than one third positive = moderate, and one third or less positive response = low.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>International Education</th>
<th>International Activities</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clear Goals*</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1-3**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coordination Mechanisms*</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1-2**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supportive Structures*</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1-2**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Systematized Procedures</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2-3**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sustainability*</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Key:**

1 = high.  2 = moderate.  3 = low.

* Criterion suggested by respondents.

** For different activities at the U of S.
The findings revealed that goals for international education for the U of S were clearly stated, but not necessarily known or shared by the majority of stakeholders. The goals for individual activities, however, were clear but mainly to those who were involved in the activities themselves. The data indicated that the majority of respondents felt that coordination mechanisms and coordination of international education were not adequate. This problem appeared to be more for campus-wide coordination than college-based ones. In the latter, the level of coordination varied from college to college. It was noted that coordination adequacy was influenced by the size of colleges and the nature and level of international activities.

The data further showed that university-wide procedures were deemed inadequate. On a positive note, however, procedures for specific activities such as student exchange programs and admission of international undergraduate students were improving. Lastly, in regard to sustainability, the findings indicated that a majority of respondents felt that the U of S was not sustaining international education adequately. This rating represented concerns over resources, finances, human and logistic issues.

**Moral Dimensions**

To be consistent with the assessment model used in this study, this section examines the data relating to moral considerations. The governance of international activities is assessed on the following criteria: shared goals, "means" or processes, personal relationships, empowerment, and attention to "ought to" issues.

**Shared goals.** The data indicated that some international activities facilitated shared goals while others did not. The documentary evidence suggested shared goals were found in the student exchange agreements. For instance, in the Curtin-Saskatchewan Universities agreement in the College of Education, a shared goal was "to establish specific relations and cooperation between [the] two institutions in order to enrich the understanding
of the culture of the two countries concerned" (University of Saskatchewan- Curtin University of Technology, 1995, p. 1).

A total of fifteen respondents commented on this criterion. The vast majority of respondents agreed that the goals of international activities at the U of S were shared. A research scientist who had a number of on-going international collaborative research projects noted that often the goals of collaborative research overlapped or complimented each researcher's goals (Int., 25, May 22, p. 3). The data also revealed that the goals were shared for consultancy work (Int., 05, April 17, p. 6), country studies (Int., 06, April 19, p. 7), faculty exchanges (Int., 09, April 23, p. 7), and activities of the International Students Advisor's Office (Int., 19, May 07, p. 8).

Another activity which was found to have shared goals was the technical assistance projects. But, as one faculty member clarified, "it is very unlikely that the goals of technical assistance projects are likely to be shared right at the very outset" (Int., 11, April 25, p. 8). In other words, even if the technical assistance project goals were shared by the various stakeholders, these could be based on the ideas of some of the stakeholders only. One faculty respondent argued that, "the way goals are stated are likely to reflect Canadian requirements" (Int., 01, April 9, p. 9). Arguably, the goals would become shared through the processes of dialogue and discussion.

Not everyone agreed that international activities at the U of S reflected shared goals. Of those who responded to the criterion of shared goals, 13% held the perspective that goals of international activities were not adequately shared. Speaking specifically against the claim of shared goals in technical assistance projects, one respondent remained unconvinced:

We know very well how to cover our words so that we are not really sure of what is being stated as goals. Consequently, when we follow through, we can say oh the goals were very vague to begin with. In this way, we can say we
have met our goals, and avoid criticism because the goals were loosely defined.  
(Int., 23, May 16, p. 4) 

It was also noted that the goals for international alumni reflected the interests of the university more than those of individual international alumni (Int., 08, April 23, p. 4). In a final example, a respondent rejected any suggestion of shared goals for international research by individual faculty members. According to this researcher, "individual international activities break down in educational institutions like the U of S because these activities have been individual efforts and have never reflected shared goals" (Int., 02, April 9, p. 6).

From the discussion, it appeared that shared goals were evident in activities such as student exchanges, country studies, consultancy assignments and collaborative research. As well, shared goals were probable in technical assistance projects. Goals for individual international research projects and international alumni, however, did not appear to be shared.

**Concern for "means."** The findings showed that assessments on the criterion of "means" or "processes" were more favorable than unfavorable. Of the eleven who responded to this criterion, 91% agreed that concerns for "means" were upheld in international activities at the U of S. One activity that showed a sensitivity towards concerns for "means" and "processes" was the student exchange program. A staff coordinator explained that student exchange programs "are highly concerned about the route towards the end" (Int., 04, April 11, p. 4).

Similarly, for the international alumni program, a staff respondent explained: "because our goal is to have international alumni keep a connection with the university, the process of building a connection with them is where we put our emphasis" (Int., 08, April 23, p. 4). For a country study program involving a foreign visit, the coordinator claimed
that one of the goals was to facilitate personal growth in the students, and hence, a selection requirement for students was their ability to work in a team (Int., 06, April 19, p. 8).

Sensitivity for issues of "means" was important for collaborative international research wherein collegiality was an important consideration (Int., 05, April 17, p. 6). A faculty respondent observed that over the years, positive changes had been taking place among international researchers. This respondent noted:

There is much more collaboration now and researchers are talking more to each other. Researchers are comparing notes on what they are doing, how, and why. (Int., 21, May 15, p. 7)

On a similar note, another faculty respondent reported that positive changes had also been seen in how technical assistance projects were being done. This respondent made the following observation:

We have now gained a much greater awareness of why we are doing a particular project. We are asking important questions. How would a project integrate into a community? How would a project impact a community? What would people get from a project? How would our foreign counterparts participate? There is a better understanding now unlike before when you have an idea and think that you can go into a country and do something about it. (Int., 16, May 8, p. 6)

Not everyone shared this view. One respondent refuted the genuineness of the claimed sensitivities:

We at this campus do not work with developing peoples as equal partners. I think we often see ourselves as experts going in to save people in the developing nations. We think that technology is something that we have to give them, whether or not they need it. When we deal with people as equal partners, they will tell us what they really think. (Int., 23, May 16, p. 5)

The data also showed that not so favorable assessments were made on the criterion of "means" for certain international activities. For instance, in answer to a question on the extent to which international research was paying attention to process concerns,
researcher replied, "I have not thought about whether I have neglected to look at certain things because my focus was to achieve my research goals" (Int., 13, May 2, p. 6). To the same question, a faculty coordinator answered, "that is one of the difficulties I have, because a concern for processes requires that I have to involve all of the participants. This makes it difficult to achieve my project objectives" (Int., 12, April 29, p. 4).

**Personal relationships.** Personal relationships in international education was noted to be important. One administrator observed, "we build international initiatives around people," (Int., 16, May 8, p. 6) and "we cannot legislate international projects" (p. 6). In a way, these observations formed the basis for why personal relationships were considered important in international activities.

Of the six respondents who spoke on this criterion, 80% agreed that international activities at the U of S reflected a concern for personal relationships. A coordinator of a technical assistance project suggested that while a concern for personal relationships was not a primary goal, it was still an important one:

In our dealings during the international project, we were concerned about the ideas, ways and how we could help our international partners. Our goal was not that though. We were interested in helping to develop their country. (Int., 20, May 14, p. 4)

A faculty member who delivered seminars in developing nations went further and suggested that a deep knowledge of the people and the country one worked with was necessary. According to this faculty member:

Visiting scholars to the developing countries need to educate themselves on the cultures of the countries. Besides knowing individuals or groups of people in a developing country, scholars need to understand the traditions and the ways people live. This is necessary in order to empathize with these people. (Int., 13, May 2, p. 6)
Even in an economically-driven activity such as the MBA: Japanese program, concern for relationships and relationship-building were important. As a faculty respondent noted, "Japan is different in terms of business climate in that it depends very much on personal relationships" (Int., 06, April 19, p. 3). As a result, this particular faculty member claimed that he spent a lot of effort in building relationships with his Japanese partners.

In spite of the seemingly positive picture that had been portrayed above, one administrator noted that he had seen people who worked well in Canada, but had to return home prematurely, disappointed with their involvement in an international project (Int., 16, May 8, p. 7). Another administrator observed that the university had learned a great deal in the last five years, and was showing improvements in its international relations (Int., 17, May 08, p. 9).

**Empowerment for participants.** A total of six respondents commented on this criterion. The data appeared to indicate two opposing views on the criterion of "empowerment." On one hand, 67% of respondents supported the claim that international activities did result in participants assuming some control over their own lives. Respondents said this desired effect was happening in study tours (Int., 12, April 29, p. 4), student exchange programs (Int., 04, April 11, p. 4), country programs (Int., 06, April 19, p. 8), and faculty exchange programs (Int., 09, April 23, p. 8). These activities were empowering the individual participants in terms of their personal and professional growth.

On the other hand, the data noted the assertion that international activities at the U of S did not empower participants. In particular, two respondents were vocal about the empowerment claim. One faculty respondent claimed that technical assistance projects and international research at the U of S had been used as power games, wherein only the faculty members involved gained at the expense of the people they worked with (Int., 05,
April 17, p. 7). Similarly, another faculty member argued that in an activity like international alumni, it was only the university that benefited (Int., 08, April 23, p. 5).

**Concerns for "ought to" questions.** The data seemed to indicate that the criterion of "ought to" was a relevant consideration only when longevity was present in an international activity. An activity where longevity was present was the technical assistance project. On this criterion, only four respondents offered opinions. Two project coordinators agreed that for their technical assistance projects, the model of governance allowed for "ought to" concerns to be dealt with. This claim was expressed by a faculty coordinator who stated:

> On every turn of the project, we worked cooperatively, rather than us dictating to our international partners. We asked them for their opinions, decisions, choices and advice. (Int., 03, April 11, p. 4)

Contrary to the claim by interviewee #3, the data indicated an opposing view. A faculty respondent pointed to a recent example of a U of S project which was not successful on this aspect of "ought to" questions. According to this faculty respondent, a U of S project in an African country showed that mistakes were made because reflection did not take place, and problems were allowed to escalate (Int., 02, April 9, p. 7).

**Summary of Morality of Governance**

In the preceding section, the adequacy of governance was examined from a moral consideration. Table 7 below shows a summary of the assessments. The data showed that shared goals were evident for collaborative research, student exchanges, consultancy work, activities of the International Students Advisor's Office, but not for individual international research. For technical assistance projects, goals were likely to be shared during the later phases of a project. The data showed that for issues of "means" or "processes", favorable support were evident for exchange programs, international alumni, country programs and
collaborative research. Additionally, improvements were seen for technical assistance projects, while the assessments for individual international research projects were negative.

Table 7
U of S Adequacy of Governance on Moral Dimensions

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<th>International Activities</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Shared Goals</td>
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<tr>
<td>&quot;Means&quot; or &quot;Processes&quot;</td>
<td>1-3**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Relationships</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empowerment</td>
<td>1-2**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Ought to&quot; Questions</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key:
1 = high. 2 = moderate. 3 = low.
** For different activities at the U of S.

The findings indicated favorable assessments on personal relationships for technical assistance projects, international seminars, collaborative research, and country programs. On the criterion of empowerment, the data showed favorable support for study tours, student exchanges, and faculty exchanges. It was noted that some respondents questioned the empowerment capacity of international research, international alumni, and technical assistance projects. Lastly, on "ought to" issues, the data indicated that two current projects were satisfactorily meeting this requirement.

Summary of U of S Case Report

The data showed that all four philosophical orientations appeared to drive the various international activities at the U of S. Technical assistance projects, for instance, were motivated by a development education rationale. Activities such as study tours,
students exchange programs, and global education were found to reflect a global education motive. The findings indicated that country programs and fee-paying international students appeared to be driven by an economic motive. Finally, activities such as student exchange programs, visiting scholars, consultancy work and international graduate students seemed to be driven by an organizational development orientation.

The study also examined the governance model for international education at the U of S. In doing so, it was noted that a complex system of structures and roles were present, though these were not necessarily related or rationalized. From a university-wide perspective, there existed a number of campus-wide structures providing focused services for international education. At the college level, the governance strategy included centres of excellence, as in the College of Commerce; international coordinators, as in the College of Agriculture; or project managers, as in the College of Dentistry.

Furthermore, the data showed that at the departmental level, the extent of the roles played by the departments varied from situation to situation. In activities like hosting a visiting scholar, or having a graduate international student, the roles of the departments were minimal. In such activities as study tours and programs with an off-shore component, the roles played by the academic department were significant. Activities such as international research projects and student exchanges were tied to individual faculty members.

It was noted that respondents saw governance primarily in rational terms. From an efficiency perspective, the governance of international education at the U of S was rated low on clarity of goals, coordination mechanisms, supportive structures, systematized procedures and sustainability. Within this general assessment, however, high ratings were given for specific international activities in areas such as clarity of goals, coordination mechanisms and supportive structures. Additionally, moderate to low ratings were seen for systematized procedures and sustainability of specific activities. From a moral
dimension, the data revealed that the governance of specific international activities at the U of S were rated "high" in their concern for "means" and personal relationships; "high" to "moderate" in shared goals and empowerment; and "moderate" in their facilitation of "ought to" questions.

In the next chapter, comparative analyses are made of the two institutions.
CHAPTER 7
COMPARATIVE ANALYSES

In this chapter, comparative analyses of the two case studies are made. These analyses were premised on the four generic research questions outlined in Chapter 1. Consequently, these discussions covered the nature of international education, the governance of international education, the adequacy of governance of international education and the conceptual framework used in the study.

The Nature of International Education

This section addresses the research question on the nature of international education at two Saskatchewan institutions. Organized into two sub-sections, the first part deals with the philosophical orientations that drive international education in the two institutions. The second part covers the kinds of international activities in which SIAST and the U of S commonly participate.

Underlying Orientations

This study confirmed the proposition by Leginsky and Andrews (1994) that international education in post-secondary institutions is driven by underlying philosophical orientations. The findings revealed that for SIAST, three underlying orientations were prevalent. First, international education as development education was one of the motives for the technical assistance projects that SIAST was administering in numerous developing countries. This orientation to international education was particularly evident in formal project documents. Second, international education as economic development was supported as a policy position, wherein SIAST was deemed to have a role in strengthening
Saskatchewan's economic position in the world. Third, international education was perceived as organizational development. Hence, SIAST faculty and staff who participated in international activities were said to benefit personally and professionally. The data showed that attitudes were positively changed, insights were gained and experiences were widened.

In comparison, data for the U of S indicated that international education was driven by all four philosophical orientations. As development education, an activity such as the Mozambique dental project was premised on a humanitarian reason. International education as global education appeared to be a common orientation. This was reflected in such activities as collaborative research projects, courses such as International Law or International Studies, student exchange programs and study tours. Similarly, an economic development impetus was a major force in international education at the U of S. Such activities as customized training for industry, business education, country programs, and fee-paying undergraduate and ESL students reflected this emphasis. Finally, international education as organizational development was prevalent in such activities as faculty exchanges, international graduate students, student exchanges and international alumni.

Various sources of data tended to support particular underlying orientations of international education. For SIAST, documentary evidence supported international education as development education (e.g., SIAST International Services, 1995a), as economic development (e.g., SIAST, 1995a) and a organizational development (SIAST International Services, 1995c). Further evidence from the SIAST interviews indicated that a majority of respondents supported an organizational development rationale. By comparison, minimal support from the interviews noted a development education rationale and still less support was seen for an economic development rationale.

In the case of the U of S, documentary evidence supported all four underlying orientations. It was noted that documentary support for development education was found
in project documents (e.g., Dickson, 1991), while evidence supporting global education, economic development and organizational development were traced to policy documents (e.g., University of Saskatchewan-Curtin University of Technology, 1995; CIBS, 1990; Sarkar, 1994a). Evidence from the interviews also showed that the majority of U of S respondents supported an organizational development rationale. This rating was followed by a moderate support for economic development and development education orientations.

The data further recognized that the various stakeholder groups from the two Saskatchewan institutions did not necessarily share similar levels of support for certain underlying orientations to international education. For instance, evidence from the interviews indicated that for SIAST, 64% of faculty/staff respondents and 50% of administrator respondents supported an organizational development rationale. These ratings could be compared with the U of S situation wherein 46% of faculty/staff and 66% of administrator respondents supported the same underlying rationale for international education.

In the paragraphs that follow, analyses across categories are discussed. These were based on the shared levels of attention between the two institutions and the extent to which philosophical orientations for international activities across the institutions were connected. The findings indicated that one of the basic assumptions for participation in international education was for the developed nations to assist the poor developing nations. For SIAST, an illustration of this assumption was reflected by a faculty respondent: "SIAST has a significant wealth of resources and expertise and should facilitate the enhancement and development of Third World countries" (C-Int., 08, May 28, p.1). A similar sentiment was expressed by a U of S respondent about a project in the College of Law. According to

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3 Reads as College Interview # 08 on May 28, page 1. All references to interview data from SIAST in this, and subsequent sections where a comparative analysis is made, will be preceded by a C. for College.
this respondent, "the project was designed to make some of the resources available to a
developing country where money was scarce" (U-Int., 20, May 14, p. 1)\textsuperscript{4}.

A basic motive in international education as economic development was the
potential for some future economic benefit to the institution or the country. Again,
evidence from the two case studies illustrated this shared belief. For SIAST, one aim for
its participation in international education was to strengthen "Saskatchewan's economic
position in the world" (SIAST, 1995a, p.1). Similarly, for the U of S, a goal of the Centre
for International Business Studies within the College of Commerce was "to facilitate
cooperation . . . in developing export opportunities" (CIBS, 1990, p. 2).

In addition, the data showed that when international education was viewed from an
organizational development orientation, this was premised on the shared belief that the
institutions stood to benefit indirectly through the participation of their faculty/staff
members. Hence, in referring to the professional benefits a faculty member obtained
through participation in international activities, a SIAST respondent stated: "working in
another situation allowed me to learn more about myself" (C-Int., 14, June 13, p.1).
Similarly, another faculty respondent noted: "My experience abroad increased my flexibility
to be able to respond to non-standard requests at home" (C-Int., 10, May 28, p. 4).
Furthermore, a U of S faculty respondent concluded that international education allowed
faculty members to "find out some of the cutting edge aspects in a particular research area"
(U-Int., 09, April 23, p.2). Another faculty member observed that participation in
international activities enabled faculty to "have the advantage of a comparative view", (U-
Int., 20, May 14, p.1). These illustrations supported the belief that the organizations stood
to benefit from the positive impacts that international experiences had on faculty members.

\textsuperscript{4} Reads as University Interview \# 20 on May 14, page 1. All references to interviews from the U of S in
this, and subsequent sections where a comparative analysis is made, will be preceded by a U, for university.
The two Saskatchewan institutions also agreed that an organization stood to benefit directly through its participation in international education. For SIAST, this was illustrated by comments such as: "participation in international activities gives SIAST an international reputation" (C-Int., 03, May 22, p.2). For the U of S, a similar representation was, "the university benefits from the research that our international graduate students undertake" (U-Int., 19, May 7, p.2).

An examination of the institutional impacts of the underlying motives of international education proved interesting. Evidence from the SIAST data showed that international education as development education was a humanitarian act (C-Int., 14, June 13, p. 1) as well as an opportunity for promoting development education (SIAST International Services, 1995a, p. 5). Similarly, for the U of S, the data indicated that a development education motive allowed faculty to have a comparative perspective (U-Int., 15, May 7, p. 1). Additionally, participation in development education was a humanitarian act (U-Int., 11, April 25, p. 2). It was noted that a shared negative institutional impact related to the belief that the Saskatchewan institutions were assisting people in the developing nations (SIAST International Services, 1995a, p. 5; U-Int., 15, May 7, p. 1). This belief was likely to be an obstacle to the development of reciprocal relationships.

The data also found that the Saskatchewan institutions were impacted by an economic development orientation to international education. An example was that SIAST appeared to be achieving its policy objective of attaining projects of "potential financial benefit to [the college]" (SIAST, 1995, p. 2). The evidence further showed that the ties that SIAST was developing with Saskatchewan industry (SIAST International Services, 1995c) were likely to advance the province's capacity for international trade (C-Int., 15, June 13, p. 1). Evidence from the U of S situation also showed similar institutional impacts. From a positive stance, an economic development orientation to international education was a way of generating additional revenue (U-Int., 16, May 8, p. 1) as well as a
means of fostering participation between the university and local businesses (U-Int., 12, April 29, p. 1).

A further observation was on the institutional impacts for an organizational development rationale to international education. An examination of the SIAST situation revealed that faculty/staff were personally (C-Int., 07, May 28, p. 2) and professionally (C-Int., 10, May 28, p. 4) influenced through their participation in international activities. The organization also benefited because of enriched learning opportunities (C-Int., 02, May 23, p. 2) and through an elevated international reputation (C-Int., 03, May 22, p. 2). Similarly, the evidence from the U of S showed that positive effects on the organization included an enriched student body (U-Int., 09, April 23, p. 2), a motivated faculty (U-Int., 16, May 8, p. 1) and an enlightened curriculum (U-Int., 05, April 17, p. 2).

On a less positive note, evidence revealed that unfavorable institutional impacts were also present in an organizational development orientation. For SIAST, negative impacts included on-going institutional politics among campuses (C-Int., 08, May 28, p. 5) and spreading scarce resources thinly. For the U of S, a negative institutional effect of an organizational development orientation was the interests of faculty to publish (U-Int., 07, April 22, p. 1) and to present at conferences (U-Int., 09, April 23, p. 2).

From the above discussion, it appeared that the shared underlying orientations to international education had similar impacts on both SIAST and the U of S. Positive effects were prevalent in both institutions. As well, some negative institutional impacts also accompanied the shared underlying orientations to international education.

**International Activities**

The data revealed that a difference existed between the nature and types of international activities at SIAST and the U of S. In the case of SIAST, international activities were confined predominantly to technical assistance projects. Technical assistance projects were typically multi-faceted activities. Consequently, study tours,
seminars, specialized training and a wide range of activities could take place within a single project. What this meant for SIAST was that a number of international activities were taking place concurrently, within the confines of single technical assistance projects. The only other regular international activity outside the technical assistance projects was the ESL program.

For the U of S, a wide range of international activities reflecting different orientations of emphasis were present. Some of these activities included technical assistance projects, international students, international research, student exchange programs, faculty exchange programs, modern languages, international alumni, country studies, study tours, and international conferences.

An examination of the relationship between policy establishment and certain key international activities at the two institutions were revealing. For SIAST, the introduction of international students into the Wascana campus ESL program appeared to be clearly related to the SIAST international policy as established in 1995. At this point, however, the effects of the international policy on the ESL program were not fully experienced. In the case of technical assistance projects, the data did not link projects at all to the 1995 international policy. This was because SIAST had been involved in technical assistance projects prior to the formal establishment of the international education policy in 1995.

In the case of the U of S, the data indicated that international research projects, modern languages, international graduate students and scholars, country studies, global studies in the colleges of Education and Arts and Science, and international conferences and seminars have long been on-going activities. These activities have been a part of the university's life and had little to do with the formal establishment of an international policy in 1993/94. It was noted that the U of S international education policy had little effect on the named activities. It was further established that some of the more recent student exchange programs at the U of S were possibly linked to the university's international
policy. This link has been primarily through advisory services offered by the U of S International to coordinators of student exchanges. In such instances, some policy effects on the activities were likely to be seen.

A number of specific international activities were directly linked to the passage of the University's international policy in 1993/94. Some examples included the Yeltsin Fellowships, the admission of international undergraduate students in a number of colleges, and the Malaysian project in the College of Medicine. The policy effect for these activities at the U of S were likely to be moderate.

In the next section, a comparative description is made of how international initiatives are governed at SIAST and the U of S.

**Governance of International Education**

This section answers the research question: "How is international education governed at the Saskatchewan institutions?" A comparative examination is therefore made of the models of governance for international initiatives at SIAST and the U of S. In the latter part of this section, the specific roles of key institutional actors in international initiatives are discussed.

**Models Used**

At the outset it may be stated that the governance approaches to international education as taken by SIAST and the U of S were significantly different. At SIAST, the International Services was responsible for all management facets of international education (SIAST International Services, 1995c). Responsibility for policy setting, however, remained with the Board of Directors and the Senior Management Group (C-Int., 12, June 12, p. 1). The SIAST International Services was served by an institutional advisory board.

In contrast, at the U of S, a complex system of different units were responsible for a wide variety of mandates at various levels. For instance, specialized units such as the International Students Advisor's Office, the U of S International, and the sub-committee on
International Academic Initiatives had specific university-wide mandates. At the college level, there appeared to be no U of S equivalent to SIAST International Services.

The SIAST model seemed to be largely influenced by a rational orientation to governance. As stipulated in the literature review in Chapter 2, an emphasis on rationality is aimed at maximizing efficiency. In the SIAST model, this emphasis was reflected in the centralization of SIAST International Services, and the obvious division of labor between policy setters, SIAST International Services, and the faculty/staff program deliverers.

At the U of S, the university-wide units that served international education did not appear to be hierarchically related. At the same time, the models used at the college and department levels did not seem to reflect a strong bureaucratic orientation. Instead, a collegial approach to governance seemed to have a powerful influence on the U of S model. As stated in Chapter 2, a collegial governance orientation assumes that members of faculty are technically competent to make certain decisions within an academic institution. At the U of S, it was seen that a wide range of international activities such as research projects, student exchange programs and participation in international conferences fell within the responsibility of individual faculty members (U-Int., 13, May 2, p. 1; U-Int., 10, April 25, p. 1). Even activities that were department-based were dependent on individual faculty members for their initiation (U-Int., 09, April 23, p. 3) and implementation (U-Int., 06, April 19, p. 4).

The one comparable international activity that was found in both Saskatchewan institutions was the technical assistance project. The way technical assistance projects were governed varied considerably. Later in this section, these differences are examined in detail when the various roles of key participants are explored. At this point, however, it could be said that at SIAST, all technical assistance projects were within the jurisdiction of the SIAST International Services (C-Int., 03, May 22, p. 1). By contrast, at the U of S,
technical assistance projects were based within colleges, and closely tied to individual faculty members (U-Int., 01, April 9, p. 1).

**Governance Roles**

The governance models for international education in the two institutions were not the same, hence, the roles played by institutional stakeholders were also different. In both institutions, there were staff members who had been appointed to implement the international policies of the institutions. For SIAST, the roles played by staff of the SIAST International Services were wide in scope but closely tied to specific tasks. For example, the international students coordinator's task involved all responsibilities from "when international students make inquiries to come to SIAST, up to the time they leave on the plane for home" (C-Int., 05, May 23, p. 1). In the same way, such wide-ranging but task-specific roles were also played by the project coordinator or the marketing coordinator.

For the U of S, a comparable group included the Director of U of S International and the International Students Advisor. In the case of the Director of U of S International, the role appeared to be quite general. According to Sarkar (1994b), the primary role of the U of S International is to coordinate consultation on the University's global mission. As noted in the USI Review Committee report (Michelmann et al., 1995), this stated role was too general and had contributed to its own ambiguity. By contrast, however, the International Students Advisor's role seemed clear (International Students Advisor's Office, 1995) and the expectations for the role within the university community appeared to be met (U-Int., 22, May 16, p. 5).

The second group of key institutional stakeholders in international education were the administrators. In both institutions, administrators were expected to facilitate international education in their institutions. Thus, for SIAST, one staff respondent stated, "we need our President and Principals to be more proactive, looking for business for SIAST International Services, marketing SIAST as a training institution, and providing
leadership for international education" (C-Int., 14, June 13, p. 8). In the same manner, in relation to the need to internationalize the U of S curriculum, one U of S respondent contended that "the vision to internationalize the curriculum, in an epistemological sense, must come from the President and the Vice President Academic" (U-Int., 03, May 16, p.5).

The roles administrators played in the two institutions were not the same. For SIAST, the administrators commonly played an indirect role as policy makers. This was represented by one principal who stated, "my role as a member of the senior management group is to help set policies relating to international education" (C-Int., 15, June 11, p.1). It must be qualified, however, that the data further showed that personal interest also determined the nature and extent of involvement administrators had in international activities (C-Int., 15, June 13, p. 1; C-Int., 03, May 22, p. 3).

In contrast, administrators at the U of S appeared to be directly involved in international education. Statements by two deans of colleges reflected the general view of the role of administrators. One dean stated that his role was "to promote international education within the college" (U-Int., 16, May 8, p.2). A second dean shared a similar view: "My role is to facilitate more international education in any way possible" (U-Int., 24, May 21, p.1). Even faculty members attested to, and appreciated the role played by university administrators. An international researcher said, "My dean is extremely supportive of international work and that is all a researcher needs" (U-Int., 05, April 17, p.5). Similarly, another faculty respondent noted, "support by my dean and associate dean are tremendous" (U-Int., 03, April 11, p. 2).

The third group of institutional stakeholders in international education were the faculty/staff members. Again, there appeared to be differences in the roles played by faculty/staff members in the two institutions. For SIAST, the general faculty/staff body did not seem to have an on-going role in international education. Instead, faculty/ staff
members were commonly the program deliverers (C-Int., 07, May 28, p. 1; C-Int., 08, May 28, p. 1). Consequently, SIAST faculty/staff were hired by SIAST International Services to perform specific tasks as opportunities arose. One faculty respondent described such an involvement: "I have been involved on many occasions, providing orientation for international visitors, coordinating a workshop for visitors and now I am a technical advisor in this project" (C-Int., 04, May 23, p.1). In other words, this faculty member's involvement was sporadic and tied to a specific activity within a technical assistance project.

The U of S involvement of faculty was different from that of SIAST. Particularly in activities such as international research, conference attendance, and international consultancies, individual faculty members were primarily responsible for all aspects of governance. This meant that individual faculty could make decisions on all matters pertaining to a particular international activity.

To restate, the technical assistance project was the only activity that was similar in the two Saskatchewan institutions. In the following paragraphs, a comparison is made of the clustering of roles for technical assistance projects in SIAST and the U of S.

In SIAST, technical assistance projects were designed or developed by particular staff members of the SIAST International Services. As an example, one role of the SIAST project coordinator was to "design new project proposals" (C-Int., 14, June 13, p.1). Moreover, it was noted that the International Director also developed projects (C-Int., 03, May 22, p. 1). Even with projects in which SIAST was collaborating with another Canadian institution, these projects tended to be designed according to CIDA and ACCC specifications.

By contrast, technical assistance projects at the U of S were typically developed by faculty members (U-Int., 01, April 9, p. 1; U-Int., 02, April 9, p. 1), and as a result projects were likely to be designed differently from each other except for common donor
specifications (U-Int., 01, April 9, p. 4). At the U of S, the Mozambique dental project had a external advisory board, while the Brazil agriculture project did not. What this implied was that individual faculty had the freedom to develop projects that reflected the nature of their own college settings. This freedom for innovation and variation, however, was not shared by SIAST.

It was noted that SIAST faculty were typically not involved in initiating new projects but input of a technical nature was sometimes sought from faculty members (C-Int., 14, June 13, p. 1). The data revealed one example of faculty involvement (C-Int., 09, May 28, p. 1) but the practice did not appear to be common. At the U of S, roles relating to project design and development were performed by faculty members individually (U-Int., 01, April 9, p. 1) or in consultation with colleagues (U-Int., 20, May 14, p. 2).

Differences existed during the implementation phases of projects. Responsibility for the day to day operations of technical assistance projects at SIAST belonged to the project coordinator (C-Int., 09, May 28, p. 6) within SIAST International Services. In contrast, at the U of S, this task belonged to a project director within a college (U-Int., 01, April 9, p.1). In reality, this meant that the SIAST project coordinator could be responsible for any number of projects at the same time (C-Int., 14, June 13, p. 1). This was unlike the U of S situation where a project director would normally be responsible for a single project (U-Int., 01, April 9, p. 1). In terms of a monitoring role at an operational level, the SIAST data were not clear though it appeared that projects were monitored by the director of the SIAST International Services ( C-Int., 03, May 22, p. 2). In contrast, U of S projects were monitored by a college-based management committee (U-Int., 01, April 9, p.4; U-Int., 13, May 2, p. 1).

Further differences were seen in the advisory services for technical assistance projects. The SIAST situation was not clear on the provision of advisory services for specific projects. As previously noted, the SIAST international advisory committee was to
serve the SIAST International Services office (C-Int., 08, May 28, p. 1) and not individual projects. The data did not establish the extent of advisory services to individual projects. In contrast, the U of S setup appeared to have advisory committee systems in place. For the Mozambique digital project, a community-based advisory committee existed to ensure that what was done in the project was carried out with "good development" in mind (U-Int., 01, April 9, p. 3). It was observed that the Brazil agriculture project had an internal advisory service of some sort (U-Int., 11, May 8, p. 3).

The data showed a great deal of similarity on program delivery in the two institutions. For SIAST, it was the faculty members that delivered international programs (C-Int., 03, May 22, p. 1; C-Int., 07, May 28, p. 1). Similarly, the U of S faculty were also responsible for delivery of international programs (U-Int., 07, April 22, p. 1; U-Int., 13, May 2, p. 1). Consequently, in the two institutions, it was the faculty and staff that delivered programs overseas and in Canada.

Finally, evidence from SIAST suggested that it was the role of the project coordinator to evaluate and report to the institution via the Director and the Wascana principal (C-Int., 14, June 13, p. 1; C-Int., 15, June 13, p. 1). Additionally, the project coordinator also had to report to the donor(s) and the recipient authorities (C-Int., 14, June 13, p. 1). For the U of S, these roles were also expected of a project director.

**Adequacy of Governance**

This section outlines a comparison of the adequacy of governance of international education in the two Saskatchewan post-secondary institutions. The analyses are done in three parts. First, a comparative discussion is made of the suggested criteria for assessing adequacy. Second, an examination of how well governance meets the goals of organizational efficiency is made, and third, the section concludes with an analysis of the extent to which governance reflects a moral consideration.
**Suggested Criteria**

The suggested criteria for both SIAST and the U of S showed a rational view of evaluating the adequacy of governance. In the case of SIAST, the suggested criteria included clarity of goals, financial accountability, centralization, and participation by faculty. For the U of S, the suggested criteria included understanding goals, achievement of goals, coordination, supportive structures, autonomy of faculty, sustainability and feedback mechanisms.

Except for the criterion on "goals," no other suggested criteria were shared by respondents from the two institutions. For SIAST, the criterion "participation by faculty" was selected by 40% of respondents. It was argued that "governance should involve giving faculty opportunities to participate" (C-Int., 07, May 28, p. 3), and "governance should include participation by faculty to ensure a sense of ownership of projects" (C-Int., 08, May 28, p. 4). The fact that "participation by faculty" was suggested by faculty members could be explained in terms of the need for some degree of collegiality in the governance of international initiatives, within an otherwise, highly centralized system.

For the U of S, the suggested criterion receiving the most support was "achievement of goals" with a third of the respondents. As one faculty member explained, this criterion was important because "for the most part, international activities are rather expensive and the high costs need to be justified" (U-Int., 06, April 19, p. 5). In the same way, an administrator thought that because international education had to compete with other important issues, it was necessary that international activities were seen to achieve their goals (U-Int., 17, May 8, p. 3).

Differences in the suggested criteria between the two institutions could also be seen in a number of ways. In the SIAST situation, the suggested criterion of "centralization of governance" was not reflected in the suggested criteria for the U of S. A likely reason for this may well be that the university is a more loosely-coupled organization than the college.
In justifying the importance of the criterion of "centralization of governance," a faculty argued that as a multi-campus, diverse institution, SIAST would be served fairly by a centralized International Services office (C-Int., 04, May 23, p. 3). Hence in this way, "SIAST staff from different campuses can be involved in international education" (p. 3).

In the case of the U of S, suggested criteria such as "coordination of activities," "support by the dean, college and university," and "autonomy of faculty" reflected the needs of a loosely-coupled institution. Hence, with numerous activities going on at the same time, the need for coordination of like-activities seemed apparent. As one faculty respondent observed: "Bringing together people who are involved in similar international activities is a way of improving awareness and working relations. It is also the only way to consolidate the energies and efforts to internationalize the campus" (U-Int., 01, April 9, p. 5). Furthermore, faculty autonomy seemed more important in a university context than a college setting. As one faculty researcher put it: "governance of international research is a matter for the individual researcher" (U-Int., 02, April 9, p. 3).

**Measures of Efficiency**

In the following section, a comparison is made of the adequacy of governance of international education in the two Saskatchewan institutions. Particular attention is given here to shared measures of organizational efficiency for the two institutions. This list includes clarity of goals, coordination mechanisms, supportive structures, systematized procedures and feedback mechanisms. Where a particular criterion is deemed relevant in one case and not the other, that criterion is not covered in the discussion.

**Clarity of goals.** A distinction was made between the goals of international education generally, and those of particular international activities. Assessments by respondents of the two institutions on the goals of international education appeared to show little divergence. For SIAST, the assessments on "clarity of goals" were rated "moderate" to "low." A moderate rating was based on the claim that "as a group, administrators are
clear on why SIAST participates in international education" (C-Int., 14, June 13, p. 1).
Similarly, another respondent felt that "SIAST faculty are clear on the goals but this
knowledge is localized to their particular situations" (C-Int., 04, May 23, p. 4). A low
rating was reflected by a SIAST faculty member who claimed that "SIAST stakeholders are
not clear on the goals of international education" (C-Int., 08, May 28, p. 5). By contrast,
U of S assessment for "a clarity of goals" was rated as "moderate." This rating reflected
the fact that while the goals of international education were stated, they might not have been
shared (Michelmann et al., 1995), or understood by institutional stakeholders
(U-Int., 23, May 16, p. 3).

Some differences in the assessments on clarity of goals for specific international
activities in the two institutions were noted. For SIAST, it appeared that the goals of
technical assistance projects were clear but only to faculty and staff that had something to
do with the activities (C-Int., 04, May 23, p. 4). In the U of S situation, the study noted
that a rating for clarity of goals differed from activity to activity. For instance, in student
and faculty exchanges, it was noted that their goals were clearly stated (U-Int., 09, April
23, p. 5), while for international alumni, a staff respondent observed that "the Alumni
department has a long way to clarify what its services are to international alumni (U-Int.,
08, April 23, p. 3).

**Coordination mechanisms.** It was necessary to separate the assessments on
this criterion for international education generally and those for specific international
activities. For international education generally, there seemed to be little divergence in the
assessments for the two institutions. For SIAST, coordination mechanisms for
international education were rated satisfactory (C-Int., 03, May 22, p. 4) as well as not so
satisfactory (C-Int., 07, May 28, p. 5). A closer examination of this mixed rating showed
that a satisfactory rating was given to the centralized services of SIAST International
Services (C-Int., 03, May 22, p. 4; C-Int., 14, June 13, p. 4), whereas a negative grading
referred to the absence of an effective coordination within the SIAST institutes. One faculty member observed that at the institutes, the "Advisory Committee is not functioning, and there is very little coordination for international education" (C-Int., 07, May 28, p. 5).

At the U of S it was commonly held that university-wide coordination was not adequate (e.g., U-Int., 05, April 17, p. 5; U-Int., 23, May 16, p. 3; U-Int., 08, April 23, p. 3)). This position was evidenced in such comments as: "I see next to no coordination at all" (U-Int., 05, April 17, p. 5), or as one administrator put it, "University-wide coordination is under-developed" (U-Int., 17, May 08, p. 7). At the college level, coordination mechanisms were not generally rated highly, though the size of the college appeared to influence how a rating was made. According to a faculty respondent, coordination of international education in small-sized colleges was moderate (U-Int., 01, April 09, p. 7).

In examining the adequacy of coordination mechanisms for international activities, the assessments appeared to be impacted by the type of international activity and the nature of the international initiative. For SIAST, coordination of the acquisition of technical assistance projects was rated satisfactory (C-Int. 14, June 13, p. 4). Lower ratings were given for coordination during project implementation (e.g., C-Int., 07, May 28, p. 5; C-Int., 09, May 28, p. 6) and information dissemination (C-Int., 14, June 13, p. 2). These mixed assessments reflected the complexity of the situation regarding technical assistance projects in SIAST. To restate, SIAST International Services centrally coordinated all technical assistance projects, with specific participation by staff/faculty across the various institutes if and when opportunities were available.

The U of S situation showed a somewhat different picture. Coordination mechanisms were adequate for country programs (U-Int., 06, April 19, p. 6) and the activities of the International Students Advisor's Office (U-Int., 09, April 23, p. 3). Moreover, university-wide coordination of student exchanges and the recruitment of
undergraduate international students were improving (U-Int., 04, April 11, p. 3). In contrast, some university-wide coordination of technical assistance projects remained a concern (U-Int., 17, May 8, p. 7).

**Supportive structures.** On this criterion, a distinction was made between considerations for international education generally and specific international activities. The majority of SIAST respondents felt that supportive structures for international education were not adequate. Areas for attention included advocacy by administrators (C-Int., 14, June 13, p. 8), strategy considerations (C-Int., 12, June 12, p. 5) and advisory services (C-Int., 15, June 13, p. 7). A similar picture was seen for the U of S where the general assessment for university-wide support structures was low. The data show that the majority of respondents pointed to an inadequate infrastructure (U-Int., 17, May 8), rigid academic regulations (U-Int., 25, May 22), and limited resources (Michelmann et al., 1995), as some of the issues needing attention.

On a more positive note, "supportive structures" for specific international activities in both institutions appeared to be rated more favorably in comparison to the assessment for international education generally. For SIAST, support for faculty/staff participants in technical assistance projects was high (C-Int., 03, May 23, p. 5; C-Int., 05, May 23, p. 5). This was in spite of an administrative setup which was highly centralized and was too heavily dependent on one or two individuals (C-Int., 03, May 23, p. 5).

For the U of S, the majority of respondents recognized the resource constraints within which faculty/staff pursued their international interests. In spite of this, respondents rated that supportive structures were improving for student exchanges (U-Int., 09, April 23, p. 6), visiting scholars (U-Int., 18, May 8, p. 3), and international research (U-Int., 25, May 22, p. 4). At the college level, respondents highly rated the support of deans and associate deans (e.g. U-Int., 01, April 9, p. 4; U-Int., 03, April 11, p. 2; U-Int., 05, April 17, p. 5), as well as advisory committees (U-Int., 13, May 2, p. 5).
Systematized procedures. A distinction between international education generally and specific international activities was made on this criterion. For SIAST, procedures for international education appeared to be adequately systematized (C-Int., 03, May 22, p. 5), but not necessarily understood (C-Int., 08, May 28, p. 5; C-Int., 09, May 28, p. 5). It was noted that SIAST international policy had incorporated general guideline procedures for international education.

By contrast, university-wide procedures for international education at the U of S were "probably low" (U-Int., 08, April 23, p. 4). In fairness to the U of S International, there was evidence of suggested procedures for internationalization (Sarkar, 1994b). As noted by the U of S International Review Committee, these procedures were not understood or shared (Michelmann et al., 1995).

In regard to specific international activities, evidence from SIAST indicated a high rating for systematized procedures for technical assistance projects. Particular mention was made of policy formulation (C-Int., 13, June 12, p. 3), faculty selection (C-Int., 08, May 28, p. 5), and granting leaves for faculty/staff on international assignments (C-Int., 15, June 13, p. 3). On a negative note, however, low assessments were noted for faculty reporting procedures (C-Int., 07, May 28, p. 5) and procedures for internationalizing the SIAST curriculum (C-Int., 15, June 13, p. 7).

Procedures for specific international activities at the U of S received a mixed evaluation. On one extreme, activities such as technical assistance projects did not appear to have well-developed university-wide procedures (U-Int., 01, April 9, p. 4). There were also activities for which procedures had been rated as "improving." Examples of such activities included the admission of undergraduate students (U-Int., 14, May 3, p. 2), student exchange programs (U-Int., 23, May 16, p. 4), study tours (U-Int., 23, May 16, p. 4), and faculty sabbatical leaves (U-Int., 25, May 22, p. 2).
A comparative summary of the measures of adequacy on the basis of a concern for efficiency, as discussed above is shown in Table 8.

Table 8

Comparative Summary: Adequacy on Efficiency Factors

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<th>U of S</th>
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<td>Education</td>
<td>Activities</td>
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<td>Clear Goals</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coordination Mechanisms</td>
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<td>Supportive Structures</td>
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<tr>
<td>Systematized Procedures</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1-3**</td>
<td>3</td>
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Key:
1 = high, 2 = moderate, 3 = low.
** SIAST: different aspects of international initiatives.
** U of S: For different international activities.

Moral Dimensions

This section covers a comparative analysis of the governance of international initiatives on the basis of moral considerations. In this analysis, focus is on the three criteria of shared goals, a concern for "means" or "processes" and for personal relationships. Other criteria, though relevant to individual institutions, are not covered.

Shared goals. The criterion of "shared goals" was evident in some activities and not in others. In the SIAST situation, the predominant international activity was the technical assistance project. For this activity, evidence from formal documents showed the
sharing of goals. For instance, in the Seychelles project, it was noted that a focus on environment education "would benefit our overseas partner and also . . . our own as we begin to 'environmentalize' SIAST" (SIAST International Services, 1995a, p. 11). A benefit to the overseas partner was that developing sustainable environment policies was a listed priority in the Seychelles National Development Plan 1990-94 (p. 5). The collaborative manner in which technical assistance projects were developed ensured that goals for such projects were shared (C-Int., 03, May 22, p. 5). This argument, however, was unconvincing for a faculty respondent who believed that collaboration was not possible within a donor-recipient relationship (C-Int., 04, May 23, p. 6).

In comparison, the ratings on "shared goals" for the U of S were wide-ranging. At the positive end, activities such as student exchange programs (University of Saskatchewan-Curtin University of Technology, 1995), faculty exchange programs (University of Saskatchewan-University of Queensland, 1995), and collaborative research (U-Int., 25, May 22, p. 3) reflected "shared goals." The collegial nature of these activities could well have been a reason for this positive rating.

The data indicated that the goals of technical assistance projects were not likely to be shared (U-Int., 23, May 16, p. 4). According to a U of S faculty respondent, this was because project proposals were typically developed in Canada so the goals "are likely to be shared later in the project" (U-Int., 11, April 25, p. 8). Consequently, if an assessment of governance was made in the project design stage, the goals may not be shared. Faculty research projects (U-Int., 02, April 09, p. 6) and international alumni (U-Int., 08, April 23, p. 4) appeared not to show "shared goals." For faculty research, some international researchers were likely to place emphasis on their individual research projects without due attention to the potential interests of their international stakeholders (U-Int., 13, May 2, p. 2).
**Concern for "means."** The issue of "means" or "process" concerns was considered important by the majority of respondents from both SIAST and the U of S (e.g., C-Int., 07, May 28, p. 6; C-Int., 05, May 23, p. 5; U-Int., 06, April 19, p. 8). The SIAST evidence showed that 50% of the respondents supported that "process" concerns were featured in technical assistance projects (e.g., C-Int., 04, May 23, p. 7; C-Int., 07, May 28, p. 6). What appeared to be inconsistent, however, was a systematic application of "process" concerns (C-Int., 07, May 28, p. 6; C-Int., 03, May 22, p. 6).

In the U of S situation, the majority of respondents agreed that concerns for "means" and "processes" were being given prominence in student exchange programs (U-Int., 04, April 11, p. 4), international alumni (U-Int., 08, April 23, p.4), country programs (U-Int., 06, April 19, p. 8), and collaborative research projects (U-Int., 05, April 17, p. 6). The need for mutuality seemed obvious in these activities, hence, this high rating. As economically-driven activities, the prominence given to "process" concerns in country programs, appeared a surprise. But as a country program coordinator explained, "concerns for processes are important because there is such a dependence on personal contacts and relationships in this activity" (U-Int., 06, April 19, p. 9). Concerns for "means" and "processes" did not appear to be shown in activities such as international research (U-Int., 13, May 2, p. 6) and some technical assistance projects (U-Int., 12, April 29, p. 4).

**Personal relationships.** It was noted that a concern for "personal relationships" was important in international initiatives (e.g., C-Int., 03, May 22, p. 6; C-Int., 09, May 28, p. 9; U-Int., 16, May 8, p. 6). An analysis of the SIAST situation showed that an effort was being made to ensure that faculty/staff had the social competencies to relate well to their international stakeholders (SIAST International Services, 1996; C-Int., 03, May 22, p. 6). This effort was limited to an interview process. One respondent felt that this was inadequate (C-Int., 10, May 28, p. 6). In spite of this doubt, there was no mention of
recent incidents of SIAST faculty/staff who had been unable to relate well with their international stakeholders.

By comparison, the majority of U of S respondents portrayed a satisfactory assessment of governance on the basis of a concern for "personal relationships." As stated previously, activities such as student exchange programs, faculty exchange programs and collaborative research tended to lend themselves readily to a sensitivity to "personal relationships." Technical assistance projects (U-Int., 20, May 14, p. 4), international seminars (U-Int., 13, May 2, p. 6), and country programs (U-Int., 06, April 19, p. 3) showed considerable concern for "personal relationships." The positive picture painted here did not necessarily mean a flawless performance record. A U of S administrator noted that he had seen U of S people who have had to return home prematurely because of personal social incompetence (U-Int., 16, May 8, p. 7).

A comparative summary of the measures of adequacy on the basis of a moral dimension is shown in Table 9.

**Conceptual Framework**

In this section, the research question on the adequacy of existing models used in the study to describe and assess the governance of international education is presented. First, analyses are made of Leginsky & Andrews' (1994) model. Second, an examination is made of the theoretical models used in assessing the governance of international education.

**An International Education Framework**

The key concept of the Leginsky-Andrews' conceptual framework was that international activities could be placed philosophically. Consequently, the underlying motives for these activities were identifiable and the tasks for the organization were easily clarified. In this study, international education was conceptualized as constituting four philosophical orientations: development education, global education, economic
Table 9

**Comparative Summary: Adequacy on Moral Dimensions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>International Activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SIAST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Shared Goals</strong></td>
<td>1-2**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Means&quot; or &quot;Processes&quot;</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationships</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Key:**

1 = high, 2 = moderate, 3 = low.

**SIAST:** Different aspects of international activities.

**U of S:** Different international activities altogether.

development, and organizational development. This framework was used for organizing the literature review as well as for describing international education in the two case studies.

The utility of the Leginsky-Andrews' conceptual framework in describing international education at SIAST and the U of S was confirmed. As a college, SIAST was predominantly involved in technical assistance projects. This single emphasis, though incorporating a number of philosophical orientations to international education, could still be adequately described by the framework used in this study.

By contrast, the U of S case differed. The study noted a multiple-activity situation with diverse kinds of international activities. Moreover, numerous stakeholder groups and individuals were involved at various levels of the university system. Even within this
seemingly complex scenario, the Leginsky-Andrews' conceptualization proved to be adequate.

The study also pointed to the potential for multiple use of the Leginsky-Andrews' framework. In the case of SIAST, only three out of four underlying philosophical orientations to international education were identified. These orientations included international education as development education, economic development and organizational development. This situation could be compared to the U of S case where all four underlying philosophical orientations were present.

Another way of examining the usefulness of the Leginsky-Andrews' framework is in relation to the placing of philosophical orientations for international activities. While a central philosophical orientation was deemed to drive a particular activity, the conceptual framework allowed for the existence of other motives at the same time. The SIAST situation was a case in point, wherein, this study showed that a single activity such as the technical assistance project was driven by perceptions of international education as development education, economic development, and organizational development.

An Academic Governance Model

An analysis was made of the model used to describe the nature of academic governance. The four approaches to governance were bureaucratic, collegial, political, and organized anarchy. Each of these approaches subscribes to a particular view of post-secondary institutions, thereby, determining the task for, and the nature of governance.

It has been shown that the governance model used was adequate in describing the governance of international education in the two Saskatchewan institutions. Within a single case study, the governance model proved useful in describing a centralized system as in SIAST. The model worked as well for a more complex situation as in the case of the U of S. In both cases the influences of the four approaches to governance were seen. At the same time, the governance model allowed for the overriding approach to be singled out.
The inclusive nature of the governance model as a powerful analytical tool was noted. This is done through the manner in which various perspectives on governance were facilitated by the model. For example, the model permitted a bureaucratic view of governance to be reflected in the divisions of roles in international education. For SIAST, administrators were responsible for policy setting (C-Int., 11, June 11, p. 1) while the staff of the International Services office were "to provide professional development and learning opportunities for SIAST staff and students" (SIAST International Services, 1995c, p. 1). For the International advisory committee, one of their roles was to be a source of feedback (SIAST Secretariat, 1996a).

In the U of S situation, a collegial perspective of governance ensured an understanding of and appreciation for the reasons why the director of CIBS needed to negotiate certain international activities with faculty and departments at the College of Commerce in order to proceed (U-Int., 12, April 29, p. 1). In the same way, the importance of "developing a sense of comradeship between international researchers" (U-Int., 10, April 25, p. 3) could be better appreciated when governance is perceived from a collegial perspective.

Furthermore, in the SIAST situation a political approach to governance was needed to explain the existence of conflicting interests within the institution. Bodies such as the SIAST International advisory committee, the senior management group, the President and the Staff Union had the potential to impact on how international initiatives were governed. It was noted that faculty/staff selection procedures were being changed to reflect requirements by the Union representing the faculty/staff members (C-Int., 14, June 13, p. 5). As a final example, in the U of S context, an organized anarchy view of governance was useful in understanding why faculty members in different colleges who were doing similar activities appeared to be operating in isolation (U-Int., 01, April 9, p. 4; U-Int., 04, April 11, p. 2). This observation was noted in such comments as: "I do not follow what is
going on in international education on campus" (U-Int., 01, April 9, p. 5), or "I suspect there are similarities in the governance of student exchange programs, but I am not so sure" (U-Int., 04, April 11, p. 2). It appeared that very little useful information was shared across colleges for such activities as technical assistance projects.

It was noted that the governance model used was encompassing. Rather than slavishly adhering to one approach at the expense of others, the model allowed for complex governance behavior to be explained. Consequently, it was easier to understand why certain institutional stakeholders participated the way they did.

**A Deontological Policy Model**

The data showed that not only are post-secondary institutions complex, but that international education within such institutions is a diverse phenomenon. It, therefore, follows that the governance of international education within post-secondary institutions is likely to be problematic.

The study adopted Etzioni's (1988) deontological paradigm to assess the adequacy of governance of international education. A key idea in Etzioni's model is the balance between organizational efficiency and morality. In other words, the organizational goal of efficiency needs to be weighed against the moral commitments of the organization's members. It was this evaluation tool that constituted the measuring rod for analyzing the adequacy of governance of international education at SIAST and the U of S.

The utility of Etzioni's evaluation model was demonstrated by its encompassing capacity. In the case of SIAST, an assessment of governance was for a single predominant international activity. This differed from the U of S case where a complex governance context was evaluated. Additionally, a comparative analysis of the two case studies was also conducted. In these two situations, Etzioni's evaluation model proved itself as a useful analytical tool.
Finally, by requiring a rational perspective to be balanced with a moral consideration, Etzioni's model ensured a holistic view of governance. This requirement was particularly necessary as international education within a post-secondary setting was often driven by underlying competing motives. Moreover, the model did not regard one set of considerations as more important than another. In this way, the strengths or weaknesses of governance could be identified separately either from an efficiency perspective or from a moral view.

**Summary of Comparative Analyses**

In this chapter, comparative analyses were done for the two Saskatchewan institutions. It was noted that from a philosophical perspective, international education at SIAST was driven by a development education orientation, economic development orientation and an organizational development orientation. In contrast, international education at the U of S was driven by the same three motives as well as a global education orientation.

It was further noted that SIAST was involved mainly in technical assistance projects. In contrast, the U of S was involved in a multiple complex of activities including technical assistance projects, international students, international research, student exchanges, modern languages, international alumni, country studies, study tours and international conferences.

Moreover, the data showed that while the SIAST governance model appeared to be strongly influenced by a bureaucratic perspective, the influences of collegial, political, and anarchical governance perspectives were also present. From a structural view, the SIAST model was more centralized while the U of S model seemed to be more influenced by a collegial perspective. The influences of the other governance approaches were also prevalent in both institutions. Structurally, however, the U of S governance approach was not as hierarchical as the SIAST model.
It seemed that individuals who had been appointed to certain specific positions and
the faculty/staff in both SIAST and the U of S had similar roles to play in international
education. For administrators, the expectations of their role were the same in SIAST and
the U of S, but the actual roles they played varied for the two institutions.

The comparative evaluation of the governance of international education in the two
institutions showed that from an efficiency perspective, ratings on adequacy were generally
similar in the two institutions. On international education generally, SIAST was rated
"low" to moderate" on goals clarity, while the U of S was rated "moderate" on the same
criterion. SIAST was rated "moderate" while the U of S received a "low to moderate"
rating on goal clarity of specific international activities. On coordination mechanisms for
international education, SIAST received a "low to moderate" assessment compared to a
"low" for the U of S. The ratings for coordination mechanisms of specific activities
indicated a "low to moderate" for SIAST compared with a "moderate to high" for the U of
S. The data indicated that supportive structures for international education in both
institutions were "low." This assessment may be compared to the ratings for specific
activities which were "moderate to high" for both institutions. Finally, it was noted that
procedures for international education were highly systematized at SIAST but were rated
"low" for the U of S. On systematization of procedures for specific activities, the SIAST
ratings were "low" and "high," while the U of S showed a "low to moderate" rating.

From a moral perspective, the comparative analysis indicated that the governance
of international activities in the Saskatchewan institutions were adequate. On the factor of
"shared goals," SIAST was rated as "moderate to high" while the U of S received a range
of "low to high" ratings. On the criterion of a concern for "means," the data indicated
SIAST as "moderate" compared to a "low to high" assessment for the U of S. Finally, on
the issue of "relationships," both institutions were rated "high".
The chapter ended with an assessment of the conceptual models used in the study. The findings suggested that Leginsky-Andrews' model for conceptualizing international education is useful for a single-case and a multi-case analysis; a single-activity or a multiple-activity analysis; and a single-philosophical orientation or a multi-philosophical orientation within the settings of the college or the university.

Moreover, the academic governance model used was adequate for describing the governance of international initiatives in the two institutions. The utility of the governance model was seen in its capacity to explain the various governance structures and behaviors within each of the case settings as well as for a comparative analysis.

Finally, Etzioni's model was found to be useful in assessing the complex governance situations at SIAST and the U of S. As a tool, the model maintained specific concerns for efficiency and morality separately while at the same time, the model balanced these two dimensions together. It was this capacity to encompass difference and complexity of the governance contexts that increased the model's usefulness.

In the final chapter, a summary and conclusion of the study are presented.
CHAPTER 8

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In this final chapter, a summary of the study is presented together with the findings and conclusions. The summary covers the purpose of the study, the conceptual framework, the models and the methodology used. The chapter concludes with a presentation of the implications for theory, research and practice.

Summary of the Study

This section briefly recounts the purpose of the study, the conceptual framework for international education, the descriptive and evaluation governance models used as well as the study methodology.

Purpose of the Study

The study examined the nature and adequacy of governance of international education in two Saskatchewan post-secondary institutions: SIAST and the U of S. Particular focus was given to the nature of international education within the two institutions, how the institutions governed their international initiatives, and the extent to which the governance of these activities were considered adequate. It was hoped that the study would increase our understanding of the phenomenon being investigated through its descriptive and evaluative assessments.

Framework and Models Used

The study adopted Leginsky and Andrews' (1994) conceptualization of international education. Using this framework, the study described and compared the nature of international education in the two institutions. Additionally, the study utilized the
governance model as represented in Figure 1 of Chapter 1. The model suggests that institutional governance is diverse and is impacted upon by four approaches: bureaucratic, collegial, political, and organized anarchy perspective. Within this governance framework, Etzioni's (1988) deontological paradigm for policy analysis was used to assess the adequacy of governance. A basic premise of this evaluation model is a balance between organizational efficiency and a concern for morality.

**Methodology**

The stated purpose of the study dictated that the subject matter be approached from an interpretive perspective, using a case study analysis. The data sources used were interview and documentary data. For SIAST, a total of fifteen respondents constituted the general sample group. For the U of S, this group comprised of twenty-six respondents. The respondents represented a cross-section of interests within the two Saskatchewan post-secondary institutions. The technique used to select the respondents was snowball sampling.

The researcher took care to ensure that "overall warrant" was maintained throughout the study. Considerations for consistency were therefore maintained during data collection, analysis, and reporting. Before the actual commencement of the study, approvals were obtained by the researcher from the U of S Ethics Committee as well as from the two institutions.

**The Findings**

In the following section, the findings of the study are listed under three headings:

**The Nature of International Education**

1. International education in the two Saskatchewan post-secondary institutions was driven by a number of underlying philosophical orientations. For SIAST, these were: development education, economic development, and organizational development. For the
U of S, the underlying orientations were development education, global education, economic development, and organizational development.

2. The sources of support for the philosophical orientations varied. At SIAST, documentary evidence supported development education, economic development, and organizational development. A similar situation was seen for the U of S, wherein, documentary evidence supported international education for development education, global education, economic development and organizational development. The interview data from both institutions showed overwhelming support for international education as organizational development.

3. Within this general support for international education as organizational development, some variations exist. The majority of administrators at the U of S saw a global education orientation as a major motive for international activities. In contrast, a majority of SIAST administrators highly regarded a development-orientation instead.

4. A number of basic assumptions about the philosophical orientations were shared by the two institutions. First, within a development education orientation, a common belief was the need for the Saskatchewan institutions to assist poor developing nations. Second, within an economic development orientation was the motive for some future economic gain for Saskatchewan and Canada. Third, it was believed that within an organizational development orientation to international education, the Saskatchewan institutions stood to benefit directly or indirectly from their participation in international activities.

5. The institutions were positively and negatively affected by each of the underlying orientations of international education. From a positive perspective, a development education rationale provided opportunities for humanitarian activities in developing nations. An economic development orientation appeared to be the development of links between individual post-secondary institutions and local business partners. From an organizational development orientation, the institutions were positively impacted through
increased motivation of faculty/staff, enriched student body, increased learning opportunities, enlightened curriculum and an international reputation.

6. SIAST focused mainly on technical assistance projects. This was unlike the university situation, where a wide range of international activities driven by varying motives were undertaken. Technical assistance projects were multi-activity in nature, but the activities were an integral part of a single major project. Some of the common international activities at the U of S included technical assistance projects, international students, international research projects, student exchange programs, faculty exchange programs, study tours, modern languages, international alumni, country studies, and international conferences.

**Governance of International Education**

1. The approaches taken by SIAST and the U of S in their governance of international education were considerably different. Both approaches appeared to have been shaped by contextual considerations.

2. The SIAST governance model was heavily influenced by a bureaucratic view, where hierarchical relationships were important, division of labor was evident, control was emphasized and efficiency was championed. In contrast to SIAST, the U of S governance model showed a complex network of structures and processes, serving a variety of mandates at various levels of the university system. The structures ranged from those providing university-wide services, to college-based and departmental-based ones. There were a large number of international initiatives that were directly controlled by individual faculty members. At the time this study was done, it appeared that the governance model at the U of S was complex. Again, this could well have been usual of a university situation.

3. Institutional stakeholders who had been appointed to perform certain governance tasks ended up performing a wide-variety of roles within their specialized mandates. These roles were not necessarily clear to institutional stakeholders. As well, while administrators
at SIAST and the U of S were commonly expected to be facilitators of international education within their institutions, the roles these administrators actually played were different. SIAST administrators generally played an indirect role as members of the senior management group, while the U of S administrators had a direct role as facilitators and champions of international education within their jurisdictions.

4. The general faculty/staff body of SIAST did not have an on-going role in international education. Often, faculty/staff were contracted by SIAST International Services to perform specific tasks, as needed and when these were available. By comparison, faculty of the U of S were free to participate in international activities if they were interested. When faculty participated, particularly in individually-driven activities, they were responsible for all aspects of governance of the activities.

5. At SIAST, the designing of projects was done centrally by staff of SIAST International Services, though technical input was at times sought from faculty members. This was not the case for the U of S, as projects were typically designed by college-based faculty members. At the implementation stage, coordination of projects was carried out similarly in both institutions, but monitoring of the coordinating role appeared to be done differently. At SIAST, the Director of SIAST international services seemed to perform a monitoring role whereas at the U of S, a committee was often responsible for monitoring projects.

6. Roles relating to program delivery and reporting systems seemed to be the same in both institutions. At SIAST and the U of S, it was the faculty/staff members who delivered the programs. Similarly, in both institutions, a major role of a project coordinator was to report on the project.

**Adequacy of Governance**

1. Though the suggested criteria by respondents from both SIAST and the U of S differed, both sets of criteria reflected a rational perspective of governance. At SIAST, the
suggested criteria included clarity of goals, financial accountability, centralization and faculty participation. At the U of S, the list included clarity of goals and achievement, coordination, supportive structures, faculty autonomy, sustainability and feedback. For SIAST the most common criterion was "participation by faculty," whereas for the U of S, it was "achievement of goals." Again, the seeming need for collegiality in governance within SIAST was reflected in this popular choice. At the U of S, the importance of justifying international education by a demonstration of achievement of goals seemed important within constraining financial situations.

2. It was noted that certain criteria were important to one institution but not the other. At SIAST, "centralization of governance" was important as a way of ensuring equality of opportunities for faculty/staff from the four institutes to participate in international activities. At the U of S, "coordination of activities," "support by the deans, college and university," and "autonomy of faculty" were considered important measures of adequacy. These factors could be understood in a university setting where often, a complex network of activities were always taking place, with individual faculty having control over many.

3. The goals of international education at SIAST and the U of S appeared to be clearly stated. For SIAST, an understanding of such goals was not widespread, and for faculty/staff, this knowledge was localized to particular situations. For the U of S, goals of international education did not always appear to be understood or shared by institutional stakeholders. It was also noted that the clarity of goals for specific international activities varied from activity to activity within both institutions. At SIAST, clarity of the goals of specific technical assistance projects was limited to active participants of such projects. This was also true for the U of S. Additionally, for the U of S, student exchange programs achieved goal clarity while international alumni activities were still developing their international goals.
4. The coordination of international education generally by the SIAST International Services was adequate, though coordination within the institutes themselves was not satisfactory. In terms of the technical assistance projects, coordination for the acquisition of projects was adequate while coordination for implementation was deemed low. In comparison, at the U of S, university-wide coordination of international education was rated "low". At the college level, coordination of international education was generally inadequate. Coordination adequacy was tied to the size of a college. Hence, a small college was likely to show a satisfactory rating for coordination of international education at the college level. On specific international activities, university-wide coordination for student exchange programs and recruitment of international students was found to be improving.

5. Supportive structures for international education generally at the U of S were not adequate. Among issues needing attention were infrastructure, academic regulations and resources. In relation to specific international activities, however, supportive structures were improving at the U of S for certain activities such as student exchange programs, visiting scholars and research projects. According to faculty respondents, support by deans, associate deans and advisory committees were adequate. At SIAST supportive structures for international education generally were not adequate. Respondents pointed to the need for administrative advocacy, improved strategy, and improved advisory services. On a more positive note, supportive structures for SIAST faculty/staff participants involved in technical assistance projects were deemed adequate.

6. Procedures for international education within SIAST were systematized, though they may not have been necessarily understood. On technical assistance projects, procedures were systematized for policy formulation, faculty selection, and granting leaves. On the other hand, procedures were not systematized for reporting and internationalizing the SIAST curricula. In the case of the U of S, procedures for
international education were not adequately systematized. There was evidence of systematized procedures for internationalization, but these were not necessarily understood or shared. Furthermore, study tours and student exchange programs showed improving systematized procedures. Technical assistance projects, however, did not appear to be governed by university-wide procedures.

7. From a moral perspective, the extent to which goals of international activities were shared varied from activity to activity. At SIAST the goals of technical assistance projects were generally shared by international partners. This assessment was similar for technical assistance projects at the U of S. As project proposals were typically designed in Canada, the goals were likely to be shared in later stages and not at the design stage. At the U of S activities such as student exchange, faculty exchange and collaborative research were favorably rated on "shared goals." In contrast, international research project was low on "shared goals."

8. A concern for "means" or "processes" was regarded highly at SIAST. For technical assistance projects at SIAST, a concern for "means" did not seem to be consistently applied. In the case of the U of S, it was found that where mutuality was considered important, a concern for "means" was reflected, hence, the favorable ratings for student exchange programs, international alumni, country programs and collaborative research projects.

9. SIAST and the U of S highly regarded a concern for "personal relationships" in international activities. At SIAST some effort was seen to ensure that faculty/staff were socially competent to relate with their international counterparts. These efforts needed to be strengthened. In the case of the U of S, a concern for "personal relationships" was adequate for a majority of international activities.
Models Used

The study confirmed the utility of the Leginsky and Andrews’ (1994) conceptual framework for describing the nature of international education. By examining international education from a philosophical standpoint, it was possible to make sense of a diverse and complex phenomenon, without reducing the complexity of international education at the Saskatchewan post-secondary institutions. The framework used was therefore able to retain case and activity specificity, while achieving an overall view at the same time.

The Leginsky-Andrews’ framework was also adequate for retaining the interrelationships of different philosophical orientations of international education. For instance, in a technical assistance project, a number of underlying motives could be traced, but the framework also permitted the primary motive to be identified. Lastly, it was suggested that Leginsky-Andrews’ model was useful for a single case analysis and a multi-case study.

The governance model illustrated as the Figure in Chapter 1 was adopted. This model was used to describe the governance of international education in the Saskatchewan institutions. This model of governance was useful to describe a plural and complex governance context. The model allowed for diverse influences and competing perspectives thus enabling a greater understanding of an otherwise problematic governance situation. It was confirmed that international education at the Saskatchewan institutions was not governed simply. Rather, the influences of the various approaches to governance were noted, thereby reflecting their impacts on roles, behaviors and structures.

In assessing the adequacy of governance, Eitzioni’s (1988) deontological model was used. Although the inadequacy of the model was discussed in chapter 1, it was useful in two ways. First, the model was used to evaluate complex and problematic governance situations. The utility of the model for analyses of single cases, multiple cases, single activities, multiple activities, competing philosophical orientations or a single philosophical
influence was therefore demonstrated. Second, the model showed a capacity to isolate either a rational or moral evaluation, or one which incorporated the two perspectives into a single thread.

Conclusions and Discussions

The nature of international education as a complex set of activities driven by various underlying philosophical goals was noted in the study. This confirmation supports Leginsky & Andrews' (1994) conceptualization which is premised on the proposition that international education is philosophically driven. In the conceptual framework used in this study, the focus was on the underlying rationale of the activities. This is unlike Hughes-Weiner's (1987) systems perspective where the focus is on curriculum, Francis' (1993) process-focused model, or Arum & Van de Water's (1992) activity-focused model.

The study agrees with the observation by Knight & Hans de Wit (1995) that the underlying philosophical motives are "overlapping rationales" (p. 10) and are, therefore, not mutually exclusive. This was seen in the SIAST situation where the predominant technical assistance project was noted to be driven by a development education rationale, an economic development rationale and an organizational development rationale. This situation is partially explained in terms of the complexity of the technical assistance project. As previously stated, typically, the technical assistance project is multi-activity in nature, hence, the presence of competing underlying motives.

The study advances our understanding of the sources of support for underlying philosophical motives in a number of ways. In the SIAST technical assistance project, a development education-oriented support was prevalent in formal project documents while an economically-oriented rationale was mainly seen in policy documents. By contrast, an organizational development-oriented rationale was supported by the majority of interviewees. It may well be that the development education rationale in project documents reflects the humanitarian emphasis of ACCC-funded projects which accounted for the
majority of SIAST projects. Also, the economically-oriented rationale in policy documents seemed reasonable as a political justification for an international agenda when post-secondary education budgets have been severely constrained. The popular support by interviewees for an organizational development-oriented rationale suggested that within a period of limited budgets for professional development activities, SIAST respondents likely saw international education as an instrument for personal and professional development.

It was concluded that in both Saskatchewan post-secondary institutions, there was support by respondents for international education as organizational development. Unlike the American emphasis where importance is given to individual development (Knight & Hans de Wit, 1995) or the European focus on educational benefits to the organization (p. 13), this study indicated that the organizations benefit indirectly through individual and professional development, and directly in terms of educational benefits. This finding represents a balanced perspective of the benefits to an institution when international education is approached from an organizational development rationale. This balance has not been obvious in representations by proponents of the organizational development argument (e.g., Knox, 1990; Kissock, 1993; Kallen, cited by Knight & Hans de Wit, 1995).

Francis (1993), recently drew attention to the rarity of "publications [that] simultaneously examine [international education] in colleges and universities" (p. 11). This study helped to fill this gap by indicating the emergence of some distinctions between the college and the university settings. For example, international education at SIAST was predominantly a single activity, the technical assistance projects. This was unlike the university situation where international education comprised a wide range of activities, driven by varying underlying motives. This variation in the number and type of activities may be expected of a university, which, according to Baldridge, Curtis, Ecker & Riley (1977), is an institution with ambiguous and often strongly contested goals. The continued
focus of the college on a predominant single international activity was due to a number of reasons. First, SIAST has long been involved in technical assistance projects to the extent that when the college international education policy was established in 1995, its impact was minimal to the existing project-culture within the college. Second, funding for SIAST international activities have traditionally been linked to ACCC with a focus on development education. Over the years, SIAST has proved itself very successful in obtaining ACCC funding. Third, key SIAST staff appeared to have acquired a wealth of knowledge and expertise in technical assistance projects to the extent that this had become an obstacle to a shift in focus.

Another area of difference between the college and the university situations related to the governance models adopted for international education. At the college, the influences of a bureaucratic approach to governance were more obvious, wherein a centralized office was responsible for project design, implementation, reporting and evaluation. By comparison, the governance model at the university situation represented a complex system of responsibilities for a variety of mandates at different levels of the university system. It was noted that the university model reflected a collegial approach to governance. But, unlike the explanations espoused by the Davies' (1992) governance model or Ebersole's (1989) centralization-decentralization dichotomy, the distinctions in governance found in this study are best explained in terms of the structural and policy nature of the institutions. This position is premised in part on Hans de Wit and Callan's (1995) rationalization that the governance model adopted by an institution is based on "a combination of factors, such as: general organizational structure of the institution; the presence of . . . centralized [international] initiatives; and the development stage of activities" (p. 88).

In a national study on internationalizing Canadian universities, Knight (1995) noted that the leadership role of senior administrators is necessary for a successful internationalization program. This study reiterated that in both the college and the
university situations, the institutional stakeholders regarded highly the leadership provided by administrators. The actual roles of administrators in international education differed in the two institutions. College administrators generally played an indirect role in international education, whereas at the university, administrators appeared to be more directly involved. This distinction is likely explained in terms of the extent to which administrators regarded their responsibilities to include international education. Administrators at the university saw international education as their responsibility, while the SIAST principals did not typically share the same opinion.

Another distinction existed between the roles of faculty/staff in the two institutions. In the college situation, faculty/staff members did not have an on-going role as program deliverers. Faculty/staff members tended to be "hired" by the central international office to perform specific tasks within particular international projects. In comparison, the university faculty/staff program deliverers had greater autonomy in their roles in international activities. In such activities as international research projects, international consultancy and international conferences, faculty/staff were generally responsible for decision making relating to these activities. In spite of the distinction of the faculty/staff in the two types of institutions, the dependence on this group was constant in both SIAST and the U of S. This finding agrees with Gribbon (1994) who notes that a vital element to international activities is an enthusiast faculty/staff.

It was also concluded that governance adequacy of international education was perceived in predominantly rational terms. Hence, at SIAST, institutional stakeholders suggested evaluation criteria for governance to include clarity of goals, financial accountability, centralization and faculty participation. Similarly at the U of S, suggested criteria included goals clarity, goals achievement, coordination, supportive structures, faculty autonomy, sustainability and feedback.
In both institutions a specific criterion was selected because of its importance to the particular settings. Hence, at the college situation, "participation by faculty" appeared important in relation to the need for a greater degree of collegial treatment of faculty/staff. As well, "centralization of governance" was important because of the multi-campus situation of SIAST and its historical experiences. At the university situation, the criterion "autonomy of faculty" was important as a protected right of faculty within a university setting. Also, concerns over such criteria as university-wide "coordination of activities" and "support by the dean, college and university" reflected the loosely-coupled nature of universities. What these findings indicated was that for a multi-campus college, the particular governance concerns of relevance to its case were matters relating to faculty participation, centralization and financial accountability. For the university, the concerns were not necessarily the same.

On factors of efficiency, governance of international education at SIAST was generally favorable. Similarly, the governance of specific activities, which in this case were the technical assistance projects, was positively rated. This similarity of assessment was likely due to the predominance of the technical assistance project at SIAST, a predominance which had possibly influenced the perceived distinction between international education generally and the technical assistance project specifically.

In comparison, the U of S data revealed that the governance of international education generally was adequate. Within this general positive picture, concerns were raised by respondents about the need for better coordination, supportive structures, systematized procedures and issues of sustainability. What this situation shows is that the development of policies, strategies, structures and procedures continue to lag, while faculty/staff across the university are proceeding with their international initiatives. The U of S respondent ratings on factors of efficiency for international activities were moderate. Unlike the SIAST respondent ratings which were on the technical assistance projects, the
comparable U of S assessments were for a variety of international activities. The need therefore exists for further studies on the adequacy of governance for specific activities within the university setting.

In addition, it was concluded that on factors of morality, the governance of international activities at SIAST and the U of S were favorable. For SIAST, a rather limited number of criteria were assessed as compared to the five-criteria list used at the U of S. In both instances, however, the evaluation results were pleasing. This means that both SIAST and the U of S showed adequate attention for concerns over morality in their governance of international activities. Within this general positive moral assessment, the study revealed areas needing varying degrees of attention. Hence, activities such as international research and international alumni needed attention in "shared goals" and "empowerment."

It was surprising to note that even for an economic development rationale, concerns for morality mattered considerably. This was shown in the positive assessments on concerns for issues of "means" and "personal relationships" in country programs. This finding minimizes fears expressed by Haughey (1994) when he asked: "Are colleges seriously expected to pursue their international objectives through the use of cut-throat exclusionary tactics towards their competitors?" (p. 10). What this finding suggests is that an international activity which is economically-motivated is not necessarily pursued unethically.

Implications of the Study

In concluding this chapter, suggestions are made on the implications of the study for theory, research and practice.

Implications for Theory

The study has contributed to theory development in a number of ways. While supporting Leginsky and Andrews' (1994) conceptualization that international education is
driven by underlying philosophical purposes, the study has shown that a complex network of international activities is likely to reflect a greater depth and diversity in the underlying motives. At the U of S, the influences of all four underlying philosophical orientations were evident, while at SIAST, evidences of three goals only were prevalent. The study has further noted that a single activity such as the technical assistance project is driven by a number of underlying motives, with varying sources of support. For instance, the technical assistance project at SIAST is driven by a development education rationale, an economic development rationale and an organizational development rationale. The support for these competing purposes can be traced to different sources of data. An emerging theme is the plurality of motives for participation in international education.

It has been indicated that while there is support for the varying philosophical goals of international education, an organizational development orientation is overwhelmingly favored by institutional stakeholders. In other words, institutional stakeholders firmly believed that a principal motive for their particular input in international activities is the assumption that participation was good for them and their organization. What this emerging focus suggests is that, for institutional stakeholders, international education is not about development education. This interpretation is likely to have theoretical implications for the governance of international education within a development education mold as the case is at SIAST.

In the university situation, international education referred to a myriad of activities at different levels of the institution. This complexity was absent at the college scene wherein international education was equated with a single predominant activity, the technical assistance project. Yet, the two different contexts boasted of international education which was driven by varying philosophical motives. From a theory perspective, it may be pointed out that the existence of varying underlying philosophical goals does not necessarily imply a complex institutional international context.
It has been pointed out that institutional stakeholders in the Saskatchewan post-secondary institutions perceived the adequacy of governance mainly in rational terms. Yet, the factors of measuring governance adequacy were not the same for the institutions. In other words, certain considerations were more relevant for the governance of international education at the college than at the university or vice versa. For instance, the influences of a bureaucratic approach to governance seemed more pronounced at SIAST than at the U of S, where a collegial perspective was more noticeable. As well, issues of equal opportunity for faculty/staff and the need for more faculty/staff participation in governance were relevant areas needing attention at SIAST. In comparison, the university situation showed a need for coordination to ensure some degree of efficiency within a highly decentralized context. Moreover, factors of relevancy to the university included support by deans and the administration and retention of faculty autonomy. From a theory perspective, it may be suggested that contextual settings are important in determining what factors are important for assessing governance.

In spite of the perception by institutional stakeholders to view governance from a rational perspective, the governance of international activities at SIAST and the U of S have reflected a sensitivity to concerns for morality. While the explanation for this situation is inconclusive, it may be suggested that the influence of a rational view of evaluation is deeply rooted. At the same time, the power of international education as a people-oriented phenomenon is evident.

**Implications for Research**

The findings of this study have pointed to the need for further research attention to be given to the following questions. Would replication studies on two or more colleges only, using the Leginsky-Andrews conceptual framework support the findings of this study? How would studies of two or more universities compare with the findings of this study? What about the findings of studies on a combination of two or more colleges and
two or more universities? How might a survey of Canadian post-secondary institutions compare to the findings of this study? What of comparative studies of international cases of similar post-secondary institutions or combinations of different types of international post-secondary institutions in a number of developed nations? How might quantitative studies using the framework and models of governance compare to the findings of this study? As well, how relevant are the framework and models for international education to the elementary and secondary education systems? What about studies of post-secondary institutions in recipient developing nations? Would the framework and models adequately capture the realities of institutions in the developing nations? If an international education policy was set prior to participation in international activities, how might this influence the types and levels of activities and the governance model used?

Furthermore, the study has opened up numerous areas for further analysis. A list of issues are suggested as follows:

1. While this study has identified that international education at SIAST and the U of S are driven by various philosophical orientations, the need exists for a clearer understanding of why and how certain orientations became more predominant than others. Consequently, it would be important to examine the relationships between philosophical orientations and such issues as international aid climate, global influences, national/provincial government policies, funding agency policies, institutional policies, faculty interests, institutional skills/expertise, organizational culture and more.

2. Topical studies that focus on each of the philosophical orientations are needed. Rather than examine all orientations together, further research could concentrate on a particular orientation of international education either within a case or in a number of cases. Such studies are useful for providing thick descriptions of particular orientations of international education.
3. Single or multi-studies that focus on single international activities are also necessary. While this study has compared the nature and governance of international activities at SIAST and the U of S, the comparison was not necessarily of the same type of activities. What may be useful is to examine the nature and governance of the same type of international activity from both institutions. In this instance, the one activity that is common in both SIAST and the U of S is the technical assistance project.

4. The assessment of the adequacy of governance in this study was based on a consideration of efficiency and morality. While this balance was appropriate, the actual range of criteria were limited. Issues such as funding level, personnel support and faculty incentives could have been included. In order to test the frameworks further, future studies need to incorporate an extended list of efficiency and morality criteria.

5. The need also exists for the perceptions of certain institutional stakeholders to be further explored. For instance, in the case of the U of S, faculty respondents perceived the "autonomy of faculty" as an issue that was important to them. A study could focus on this perception and explore how faculty autonomy could be innovatively maintained against the call for a centralized coordination of international education. For SIAST, the need for faculty participation was expressed by faculty respondents. Again, further study is needed to explore how this may be facilitated within a centralized governance model.

6. This study was done within a historical time-frame. For both SIAST and the U of S, institutional policies on international education were not established prior to participation in international activities. For the SIAST situation, research into the development of a truly international education policy out of a tradition of technical assistance projects will make a useful study. As well, for the U of S, an analysis of the implications of integrating an international education policy into an already set context may reveal useful information on the internationalization process.
7. Longitudinal studies in five year intervals may also be revealing. Factors that affected international education and post-secondary institutions at the time of this study may not be the same five or ten years later. Consequently, changes are likely to impact the nature and governance of international education.

**Implications for Practice**

The findings of the study have raised a number of practical implications for governance. From a structural perspective, areas of strengths and weaknesses have been identified in the governance of international education in SIAST and the U of S. For instance, it has been suggested that coordination mechanisms needed attention at the level of the SIAST institutes. At the U of S, attention was needed for campus-wide and college-wide coordination of international education. The findings have shown the need to heed the theoretical influences on governance structures.

Issues of governance processes have also been highlighted by the study. The seeming difficulty to internationalize the curriculum within the two institutions showed the need to ensure that the policy setting process recognized curriculum development processes. Without taking curriculum development processes into account, a policy to internationalize the curriculum is likely to be difficult to implement.

The study has also shown that there are implications for governance roles. At the U of S, the data indicated that the supporting roles of administrators for faculty were seen as positive. Support by administrators for faculty should continue to be encouraged. Additional lessons can also be learnt from the findings on the roles various stakeholders played in international education. Of immediate interest are the findings related to the extent these roles were considered adequate. Another useful area relates to the study's findings on the goals of international education. The need for shared goals for international education were highlighted by the data. In both institutions, documented policy goals did not necessarily reflect the expectations of institutional stakeholders. This resulted in many
stakeholders being disappointed about the official purposes of international education. Neither were expectations by institutional stakeholders systematically sought in the process of forming institutional goals. This likely led to a lack of commitment by institutional stakeholders who did not have a sense of ownership for the goals.

A further area of practical concern relates to the issue of clarifying the goals of international education. Hence, by identifying the underlying motives of international education for an institution, it is suggested that the institution will be well-positioned to move forward in its international pursuits. In this way, limited resources that are available for international education can then be used strategically.

Finally, by drawing attention to the importance of a deontological perspective of governance, the study has raised the sensitivity of institutional stakeholders to concerns for morality in international education. In this way, it is hoped that institutional participants will be able to approach their international activities in an efficient and moral fashion.

With the examples given above, it is clear that this study has shed light on important issues for theory, research and practice within a growing area of research interest.

Reconceptualization of Conceptual Framework

The Leginsky-Andrews' framework for international education has served to conceptualize a complex phenomenon. In its present form, however, the framework assumes a rather rigid view of international education. A difficulty therefore arises in a situation where a single complex international activity is driven by a number of different philosophical orientations. The SIAST situation presented this challenge wherein the technical assistance project was driven by a development education rationale, an economic education goal and an organizational development motive. Which of these three goals was the overriding motive? For whom? The Leginsky-Andrews' framework does not accommodate the issues raised by such questions.
The framework is further limited because it does not appear to accommodate
tonoms of change and conflict in its conceptualization of international activities. In the U of S case study, it was noted that the goals of certain international activities were different for
the various stakeholders. Additionally, even for the same stakeholder, the goals of
international activities were not the same at the different phases of the activities.

Given the concerns raised above, it is suggested that if this study were to be done
again, a reconceptualization of the Leginsky-Andrews' framework would be helpful. A
change to the framework needs to include the multiple underlying goals of international
activities. This inclusion will ensure that the various motives of different stakeholders are
reflected. Moreover, a reconceptualization of the framework must accommodate notions of
time and change. Such adjustments will acknowledge the various goals of stakeholders
and trace how these goals shift over time. Consequently, this reconceptualization of
Leginsky and Andrews would be used if this study was done again.

Concluding Comment

In reflecting on the study, three observations are made. First, it is noted that the
conceptualization of international education has been approached from one viewpoint only,
that of Western developed nations. Other viewpoints, particularly of recipient developing
nations have not been incorporated. This omission is serious, given that recipient nations
may see international education quite differently from the more developed donor nations.

Second, within the prevailing viewpoint, it is fallacious that international education
is commonly perceived as a commodity that Canadians teach, give or offer to others.
How, when and under what conditions the exchanges are made remain the prerogative of
the "teachers" and the "givers". The possibility that international education can be other
things, or that roles may change or can complement each other have not been given due
attention.
Finally, it is noted that the need exists for the two Saskatchewan post-secondary institutions to clarify their visions for international education. Presently, there appears to be a need for cohesion and direction in both institutions. Goals need to be clarified. Mechanisms for operation need to be strengthened. Information and experiences need to be systematically shared. There is a need for evaluations of international activities, programs and strategies used. Without adequate and appropriate feedback, the two Saskatchewan institutions run the risk of repeating mistakes all over the world. Particularly at a time when "going international" seems popular, it is a matter of urgency that the two Saskatchewan post-secondary institutions examine their modes of operation.

In conclusion, I have benefited from the experience of examining international development through the lens of a Solomon Islander who will be returning to his country shortly. As a result of this study, I will have a better appreciation of the impact of international activities on my country, and hopefully, can provide some direction in this area.
References


Sarkar, A. (1994b). *Implementing internationalization of the academic environment at the university of saskatchewan*. Saskatoon: University of Saskatchewan, USI.


APPENDIX A

Interview Guide
Interview Guide

Thank you for taking the time to meet with me. As I indicated in my letter/phone call, my research interest is in the nature and governance of international education in post-secondary institutions. Specifically, I am interested in examining the nature and adequacy of governance of international education in the SIAST and the U of S. I am, therefore, interested in your answers to the following questions:

1. Would you tell me about the kind of international education activity with which you are involved? (your role)

2. In your view, what are the overriding goals for the international activity with which you are involved?

3. Would you describe the governance model for the international activity in which you are involved? (how are decisions made? structures? roles?)

4. Would you say that the governance model you have just described is consistent across your institution? (how do you account for consistency or lack of it?)

5. If you were to assess the adequacy of governance of international education in your institution, what factors/considerations would you base your evaluation on?

6. For each factor you mentioned, how would you assess the adequacy of governance of the international activity in which you are involved? (for international education in your institution generally) Explain the reasons for your assessment.

7. How would you assess the governance of international education in your institution on the following efficacy factors? Why?
   (a) clarity of purpose, (b) coordination mechanisms, (c) supportive structures, (d) well-identified involvement, (e) sustainability, (f) systematized procedures.
8. How would you assess the governance of international education in your institution on the following moral dimensions? Why?
   (a) shared goals, (b) concern for "means" of achievement,
   (c) empowerment of participants, (d) concern for "ought to" issues.

9. What further suggestions would you make to improve the governance of international education in your institution?

10. Who might you recommend that I interview regarding how international education activities are governed in your institution?
APPENDIX B

Documents used in Data Analysis
Documents used in Data Analysis

Saskatchewan Institute of Applied Science and Technology


SIAST Secretariat. (1996a). Function of Advisory Committees. [Memorandum to the Researcher].

SIAST Secretariat. (1996b). Enrollment Statistics. [Memorandum to the Researcher].


University of Saskatchewan


Sarkar, A. (1994b). *Implementing internationalization of the academic environment at the university of saskatchewan*. Saskatoon: University of Saskatchewan, USI.


APPENDIX C

Matrix on Impact Data for Organizational Development
## Impact Data for an Organizational Development Rationale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goal</th>
<th>Direct Impact</th>
<th>Side Effect</th>
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<td>Positive</td>
<td>Negative</td>
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<tr>
<td>U of S</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>. promote change</td>
<td>enriched</td>
<td>altruistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>. enhance global experience</td>
<td>students(f)</td>
<td>image(f)</td>
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<tr>
<td>. develop indiv.</td>
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<td>SIAST</td>
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<tr>
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<td>personal &amp;</td>
<td>altruistic</td>
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<td></td>
<td>prof. devel.(f)</td>
<td>image(f)</td>
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<td>learning</td>
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<tr>
<td>. educated faculty</td>
<td>opportunity(f)</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>educated</td>
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<td></td>
<td>faculty(a)</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Key:**

f: faculty, a: administrators.
APPENDIX D

Ethics Committee Approval
The University Advisory Committee on Ethics in Human Experimentation (Behavioral Sciences) has reviewed your study, "Post-Secondary Governance of International Educational Policy: A Saskatchewan Multi-Case Study" (96-36).

1. Your study has been APPROVED.

2. Any significant changes to your protocol should be reported to the Director of Research Services for Committee consideration in advance of its implementation.

3. The term of this approval is for 3 years.

Michael Owen, Secretary
for the University Advisory Committee
on Ethics in Human Experimentation, Behavioral Science

Please direct all correspondence to:

Michael Owen, Secretary
UACEHE, Behavioral Science
Office of Research Services
University of Saskatchewan
Room 210 Kirk Hall, 117 Science Place
Saskatoon, SK S7N 5C8
APPENDIX E

SIAST Authorization Letter
May 9, 1996

To Whom It May Concern:

Mr. Kabini F. Sanga, a graduate student at the University of Saskatchewan, is writing a thesis on the governance of international activities in Saskatchewan post-secondary institutions. As part of this research, he will be conducting interviews with individuals at SIAST who have been involved in our international work. (This was recently authorized by the SIAST Management Team.) I would very much appreciate it if you could give him assistance in this research.

Yours sincerely,

Fred Harland, Director
SIAST International Services

FH/ea

F289sanga.l
APPENDIX F

U of S Authorization Letter
Memorandum

To: Kabini F. Sanga, Ph. D. Student  
Dept of Educational Administration  
College of Education

From: Asit Sarkar, Director  
University of Saskatchewan International

Re: Request for approval to conduct research study  
Date: 7 March 1996

I have reviewed your Ph.D. research proposal. My office will co-operate in your need for data collection, subject to the usual expectations of confidentiality. Prior to starting your data collection process, please give me an indication that the necessary approval from the Ethics Committee has been received.

I wish you all the best in this endeavour.

cc. Dr. Larry Sackney, Dept of Educational Administration
APPENDIX G

SIAST Summary of Projects
SIAST International Services Project Summary

Botswana  

Botswana Agricultural Project *  
1991-1994  
Project in partnership with Olds College, with Botswana College of Agriculture to strengthen continuing education program for agricultural extension workers.

Philippines  

INNOTECH  
1990-1995  
Project with the Regional Centre for Educational Innovation and Technology (INNOTECH) to support staff development, research and information exchange. Phase two is a 5 year continuation of the first INNOTECH project.

Zimbabwe  

Zimbabwe Dental Training *  
1990-1994  
Project with Zimbabwe Health Manpower Development Training Unit to assist in the development of training programs of dental para-professionals to meet oral health service and training needs.

Dominican Republic  

SIAST/IPSD Linkage *  
1990-1993  
Project to strengthen the capacity of Instituto Politecnico de Santo Domingo to deliver educational programs to women, particularly in non-traditional occupations.

Thailand  

Management Skills Training *  
1990-1993  
Project with Surat Thani Teachers College to improve faculty instructional skills and develop continuing education programs in management sciences and hospitality.

Indonesia  

Indonesia Agricultural Project *  
1991-1994  
Project, in partnership with South East Regional College, with SMT Pertanian Dumoga, an agricultural school to implement an integrated school approach and build school-community-industry linkages.

Caribbean  

Caribbean Institute Development *  
1991-1994  
Project, in partnership with Humber College and Nova Scotia Institute of Technology, with member institutions of The Caribbean Association for Technical and Vocational Education and Training (CATVET) to strengthen maintenance and shop repair, curriculum development and administrative skills.

China  

Canada-China College Linkage  
1991-1995  
Project with three technical schools in Inner Mongolia: Hohhot Transportation School, Coal Industry School of Inner Mongolia, and Electric Power School of Inner Mongolia, to develop their administration and instructional capabilities.

Bahamas  

Technical Vocational Training *  
1991-1993  
Project, funded by World Bank, to improve the quality of technical/vocational training in the Bahamas through course and curriculum design.

Philippines  

Employment Skills Training **  
1991-1995  
Project with Notre Dame University and the Catholic Educational Association of the Philippines to enable the University to deliver community based and employment related skills programming.
Jamaica  
**CCCJ Linkage**  
1994-1996  
Seneca College project, with SIAST as partner, with Council of Community Colleges of Jamaica (CCCJ) to strengthen the administrative capacity of the Council and Jamaican Community Colleges. Two year extension of existing 3 year project.

Uganda  
**Uganda Telecommunications***  
1992-1995  
Project, in partnership with Durham College, with Uganda Posts and Telecommunications Training School to strengthen their ability to deliver modular training.

Indonesia  
**Women in Management Training**  
1992-1995  
Project, in consortium with an educational agency in the Philippines and two NGO’s in Indonesia to develop a train the trainer program to assist women managers of NGO’s to increase their managerial skills.

Namibia  
**Agricultural Extension Support**  
1992-1995  
Project with Ministry of Agriculture to develop computerized management information system for agricultural research and extension activities and provide training.

Solomon Islands  
**Solomon Islands Distance Education**  
1992-1995  
Confederation College project, with SIAST as partner, with Solomon Islands College of Higher Education, to develop the capacity of technical institutions to deliver distance education programs.

Caribbean  
**Nursing Education Project**  
1990-1995  
Project, in partnership with a number of Canadian Colleges, to strengthen Nursing education in the Eastern Caribbean.

Tanzania  
**Sustaining Tanzania Literacy**  
1993-1997  
Project in partnership with the Tanzania National Literacy Center to strengthen the Center’s post-literacy work of maintaining and enhancing people’s literacy abilities.

Seychelles  
**Environmental Education**  
1993-1997  
Project, in partnership with the Marine Institute (Newfoundland), with Seychelles Polytechnic and the Seychelles Ministry of Environment, Economic Planning & External Affairs to increase their capability to deliver environmental education through the regular course offerings of the Polytechnic and to the general public.

Nepal  
**Institutional Support CTEVT**  
1992-1995  
To enhance CTEVT’s ability to advance economic development through industry appropriate technical/vocational training by strengthening its capacity in the areas of policy, planning, HRD, and program development as it relates to CTEVT’s role in coordinating and supporting the needs of other agencies involved in technical vocational training.

India  
**Instructional Systems Design**  
1993-1997  
Project in partnership with St. Xavier’s Technical Institute to develop a learning materials resource center and to increase its expertise in curriculum development for competency based education using the DACUM approach, and in the preparation of courseware for individualized instruction and group presentation.
Malawi  
Aquaculture Course Development  
1994-1998
The purpose of the project is to assist Bunda College of Agriculture to develop the aquaculture option (Specialization) within the Diploma in Agriculture course, including the evaluation of the existing curriculum, the training of curriculum specialist(s), the development of supporting curriculum materials, the development of modules for use in-service courses for extension workers and general library upgrading in the area of aquaculture and fisheries.

Vietnam  
Modularized Curriculum Development  
1994-1998
To strengthen Vietnam's Ministry of Education and Training and its Vocational Training Centers in the development and delivery of appropriate and flexible training through modularization of curriculum.

Nepal  
Health Worker Skill Training in Nepal +  
1995-1999
The project will assist the Council for Technical Education and Vocational Training (CTEVT) in Nepal to provide practical skills training through developing internal expertise in the development of skill-based teaching and learning materials and resources primarily in the area of health worker training with a secondary emphasis in general technical trades training.

Botswana/Namibia  
Sustainable Agriculture Training in Botswana and Namibia +  
1995-1999
The project will assist Botswana College of Agriculture's Centre for In-Service and Continuing Education to develop its capability for national and regional training courses in areas related to soil and water conservation, land use and natural resource protection. The Centre will need assistance in developing an extension philosophy and the structures which need to be in place to produce high quality training courses for agricultural extension workers in Botswana and Namibia.

China  
Canada-China College Linkage (Lakeland - SIAST/Hebei)  
1994-1997
Project with three technical schools in Hebei Province: Hebei Province Metallurgical Industry College (lead), Hebei Province Transportation College and Hebei Province Mechanical & Electronics College, to develop their administration and instructional capabilities.

Jordan  
Technical/Vocational Curriculum Development Project  
1994-1998
SIAST has assisted the Association of Canadian Community Colleges with training four Jordanian instructors and curriculum experts.

*  Project Completed
** Project Completed as of March 31/95
+  Starts April 1/95