INTERNATIONALISATION OF BUSINESS EDUCATION: A COMPARISON OF EASTERN AND WESTERN UNIVERSITIES

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ABSTRACT

Internationalisation has become a strategic focus for many universities worldwide, however there are differing explanations as to what internationalisation actually means. In order to try to define the phenomenon and examine the effects of cultural background on internationalisation strategies we studied the internationalisation aspirations and achievements of a set of universities in a 'Western' cultural setting and a set in an 'Eastern' cultural setting. Data were gathered through a survey of 70 business schools in which respondents were asked to rate their school's ideal and current level of performance in nine aspects of internationalisation. There were

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significant differences in the strategic aspirations of the two sets. These differences in aspirations led to differing internationalisation outcomes in which institutions typically performed better in those aspects of internationalisation upon which they were focused. Explanations for the differences between Western and Eastern universities are suggested in terms of economics and strategy, government action, supply and demand, perceived quality issues, academic career opportunity costs, professional accreditation and prevailing world view.

INTRODUCTION

In recent years universities throughout the world have sought a more international focus. Universities in first the West and latterly in the East, have sought to raise their level of internationalisation. International linkages have become an important source of institutional status, pride and of economic returns. Most universities have claimed they are world-class institutions offering international education (Mestenhauser, 1998), citing student exchange and international student numbers in their promotional literature. Internationalised universities have been seen as a force for global peace and shared discovery and innovation, as enhancing diplomatic ties and reinforcing international relations (Campbell, 2007).

Knight (2004) suggested that while internationalisation was changing higher education; globalisation was changing internationalisation. Knight (1999) had earlier pointed to different motives for internationalisation including political influence, economic or academic advantage, and social-cultural relationships. These different reasons for adopting an internationalisation strategy are, however, inevitably linked to changes in the international environment. Indeed Knight (1999) referred to internationalisation as the response to globalisation. Ahlawat and Ahlawat (2006) argued that success in the evolving global knowledge economy required global competencies which business schools could supply.

The increasing interdependence of national economies has increased the demand for graduates who can understand and comfortably interact in a multi-cultural, globalised society and in the different parts of that society. This interdependence has been accelerated by the rapid development and growth in newly-industrialised countries such as India and China. These changes have led universities to equip students with the necessary knowledge and skills in preparation for the job market (Sporn, 1999). Overall the changing environment required universities to aim for a significant transformation in the organisation of research, training, and administration in higher education (Cohen, 1997), as part of a search for intercultural competence (Cant, 2004).

This need for internationally focused education has been described as a pervasive and inescapable reality present on a world-wide basis (Bartell, 2003). Consequently, there has been a substantial amount of literature urging universities to adopt an internationalisation strategy (Marsella, 2001; Mittelman, 1996; Sporn, 1999). In a recent exhaustive analysis of management education, Engwall (2007) pointed out that, in Western Europe and North America in particular,

this drive had been especially influenced by the growth of professional management education associations and institutional accreditation.

Enthusiasm for internationalisation is not enough. Those responsible for a university's internationalisation strategy need to be clear about what internationalisation is in order to achieve it. Horn et al. (2007) cautioned that the fervour to internationalise has focused more on developing internationalisation in practice and less on the evaluation of the concept. This focus has limited the advancement of academic internationalisation and failed to maximise the potential educational outcomes.

There is currently no clear consensus on what a strategy of internationalisation actually involves. Some see it as teaching an internationally-focused curriculum. Others see it as involving opportunities for trans-national research agendas and exchange at the staff level. Still others cite student exchanges and the acceptance of international students as part of an internationalisation strategy. Some internationalisation strategies will use all of these methods. Excellent summaries of the range of different activities that constitute internationalisation were given by Engwall (2007) and Knight (1999).

A university's understanding of what constitutes internationalisation may be dependent upon the cultural milieu in which the university is situated. However, there have been few systematic attempts to describe how the cultural background of the university influences the university's conception of internationalisation. This paper addresses this gap in the literature through a comparative study of internationalisation at 'Eastern' and 'Western' universities.

INTERNATIONALISATION

The adjective 'international' and the verb to 'internationalise' are widely used by business schools in course titles and prescriptions. In practice, however, as noted previously there is no agreement about what internationalisation means. A common result can be people using the term to mean different things when they engage in discussion. As Bartell (2003) noted, internationalisation conveys a variety of understandings, interpretations and applications. At one end of a spectrum there could be a minimalist, instrumental and static view extending solely to admitting overseas students and perhaps securing funding for study abroad programmes. A more proactive philosophy might lead to adding activities such the international exchange of students and joint research conducted internationally. At the other end of the spectrum internationalisation is a complex, all encompassing, strategic and policy-driven process, integral to, and permeating, the life, culture, curriculum, instruction and research activities of the university and its members. Every part of the institution and its life can be internationalised.

The language of internationalisation is itself confusing. Bond and Bowry (2002) noted the term has been used broadly in a way that hampers our understanding of the phenomenon. Knight (2004) added that the term is interpreted and used in different ways in different countries and by different stakeholders. She also pointed out that the realities of the world today present

new challenges in developing a conceptual model that could help develop a basis for policy and action.

The terms internationalisation and internationalisation of the curriculum are sometimes used as if they were synonymous, but they have different meanings. Curricula are but part of the larger concept of internationalisation. The OECD (IDP, 1995) defined internationalisation of the curriculum as curricula with an international orientation in content, aimed at preparing students for performing in an international and multicultural context and designed for domestic as well as foreign students. This implied the inclusion of overseas ideas and content in the programs for domestic students and an infusion of different (probably overseas) cultural ideas.

Other authors have argued that internationalisation needs to extend beyond the curriculum to the life of the university as a whole. Knight (1999) defined internationalisation as the process of integrating international, intercultural, or global dimensions into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education. Ellingboe (1998) had seen internationalisation in similar terms as the *process* of integrating an international perspective into a college or university system. Internationalisation can be seen as a process that includes more than content. Knight (2004) remarked that internationalisation of higher education had been a complex, multifaceted, diverse, controversial, changing and challenging activity. It continued to evolve on many fronts. We have previously suggested (Elkin et al., 2005) that internationalisation is not something that is either achieved or not achieved: rather it is an engagement with a range of dimensions that may make up internationalisation. It is an ongoing, future-oriented, multi-dimensional, interdisciplinary, leadership-driven vision.

Achieving such a vision involves more than just internationalisation of curriculum (content). Burn (2002) noted that study abroad programs and student exchanges can be very effective at promoting a universities internationalisation strategy beyond content. Internationalisation of faculty is another factor sometimes cited as important for internationalisation strategy (Sangari & Foster, 1999). The experience of another way of life may be more powerful in its effects on students and faculty than just studying a distant land and meeting a few of the local people who are visiting our institution. If faculty had little knowledge or interest in international business; even an internationalised curriculum is unlikely to be implemented. It would best a set of ideas with a distant perspective. To this end Oltjenbruns and Love (1998) suggested that university management and faculty needed to critically examine their own ideas and beliefs about race and ethnicity and to connect these to beliefs about the underlying purpose of the institution. For example is Internationalisation just a cover for Western led globalisation or do Western institutions have a need and a willingness to learn form Eastern people and institutions.

The literature showed that internationalisation is most successful when undertaken as part of an institution wide strategy. A strategic focus should involve the alignment of three things - a strategic mission, a set of strategic objectives and an iterative strategic planning process (Conway et al., 1994; Johnson et al., 2006). Recent research (Elkin et al., forthcoming) has found a close alignment between strategic focus and the achievement of internationalisation.

DIFFERING INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVES

Universities in all parts of the world have addressed the importance of internationalisation, but in the management education field, Western (American) universities continue to dominate. As Engwall (2007) puts it, inspiration between Europe and the United States seemed to flow mainly one way! As a result there are sufficient commonalities to allow 'Western' universities to be treated as one group. Inspiration flows largely from the West to East and represents globalisation rather than internationalisation.

There has been research showing a sharply increased focus on internationalisation in universities in Australia (Harman, 2004), Canada (Bond & Bowry, 2002), Europe (Callan, 2000) and Japan (Horie, 2002). Internationalisation goals are even evident at universities where they are still in the early stages of implementing an internationalisation strategy (Webb et al., 2000). As Knight (1999) pointed out, there are distinct differences in the motivation for internationalisation from academic competitiveness to direct economic advantage. In particular, she pointed to Australia's need to offset budget cuts by foreign student fees as the key motivator for the significant growth in international students entering that part of the world.

Another study that highlights the differences in approaches to internationalisation around the world comes from a survey of 150 universities in 47 countries carried out by a French marketing firm (Noir sur Blanc, 1999). They suggested American and Australian universities have a more pro-active approach, while universities in Northern Europe have a more academic approach. Universities in Eastern Europe are divided between a desire for recognition based on an entirely academic model and a pro-active approach. Universities in Latin America are extremely open with a highly academic approach at the local level, but adopt a pro-active approach at a regional level. In Germany, Spain and Canada pro-active approaches are slowly developing and the situation in France somewhat mixed in orientation.

The report also mentioned the barriers to internationalisation. Most prominent among these was finance. Lack of funds was cited as an obstacle by 32% of responding universities. This finding has been supported by other research. Lambert (1995) noted that within the US, institutional and external funding providers were becoming increasingly less willing to fund internationalisation programmes. It is worth noting that in some cases a lack of funds was a spur to internationalisation; as universities located in economically underdeveloped areas seek to gain financial and institutional security through an international focus. Administration concerns such as difficulties with accommodation of foreign students, government bureaucracy, quotas of international students and credit recognition were also cited as barriers to internationalisation.

Prominent among the obstacles to internationalisation were issues of language and culture. Many people in Eastern societies learn English as a second language but few Westerners learn Eastern languages. Such barriers may hinder the willingness of students and faculty to go to foreign universities; especially when those universities are in very different cultural milieus.

Ahlawat and Ahlawat (2006) pointed out that this is a particular problem in US business schools which often lack genuine international curriculum and the acquisition of foreign languages.

The challenges occur on both sides of foreign exchanges. Thorstensson (2001) outlined the considerable struggles on the part of Asian international students to adapt in a US business school and the need for more genuine international interest. On the other hand, Kim (2005) found that Western faculty struggle to find acceptance in Korean universities. Moreover, faculty members who travelled abroad for teaching and research developed family complications, a decrease in income and an increase in personal expenditure (Hser, 2005). Their career advancement also suffered (Harari & Reiff, 1993).

Some university administrators discouraged their staff from research overseas, seeing it as creating problems with teaching and of questionable scholarly merit (Goodwin & Natch, 1991; Hser, 2005). Students face similar problems, with many faculty complaining that study abroad programs lower the academic quality of the student's education, interfere with their personal lives, and delay their professional development. (Hser, 2005).

MODELLING INTERNATIONALISATION

The 'star' model of internationalisation (Elkin & Devjee, 2003) was developed initially as a result of discussion with those involved in internationalisation at the University of Otago (New Zealand). This involved International Office staff, Exchange Program Coordinators and Exchange Advisors. These discussions demonstrated there was some agreement as to what might, in combination with other dimensions, constitute internationalisation and form the basis for a definition as an aid to further research. A search was conducted of the websites of overseas universities regarded as exemplars in internationalisation to seek evidence about what was meant by internationalisation. In addition, a literature search concerning the meaning of internationalisation was conducted.

The initial model of internationalisation was presented as a series of 13 radiating spokes. The 13 dimensions are Likert scaled ranging from 0 = little to 10 = a lot. Participants were asked to plot the ideal extent of internationalisation on each dimension. The current extent of internationalisation on each item was plotted in a similar fashion. The model created a picture of the extent of current and desired (ideal) internationalisation.

A pilot study to examine and explore the framework of internationalisation was sent to 70 international partner universities of the University of Otago, School of Business via email. Participants were requested to plot actual and desired levels of internationalisation on all 13 scales using the framework. This created a picture of the extent of current and desired (ideal) internationalisation. Participants were also asked to define internationalisation, thus allowing for the addition of factors that may be missing from the framework. Further comments about the concept of internationalisation were encouraged. Participants were also asked if the mapping was a useful activity. Seventeen institutions responded – a success rate of 24%. Participants reported

no difficulties in using the model. Responses were uniformly encouraging, with all 17 responding institutions reporting it a useful means to understand and clarify their intentions.

Considerable further discussion took place with colleagues and staff at the University of Otago who were involved in the international activities of the university. This revealed some duplication in the contents of the scales. The framework was therefore modified to include 11 of the original 13 dimensions. Further field testing of the framework led to a consolidation to nine dimensions. This eliminated double counting of dimensions that were too similar to each other such as *staff interaction in international context* and *attendance at international conferences*. The analysis showed that some dimensions were overrepresented, e.g. *internationally recognised research activity* and *international research collaboration*, both of which related to international research. The paper by Elkin et al. (2005) summarises the earlier studies and illustrates a more detailed use of the model.

The nine dimensions used for the next stage of the study were:
1.   Undergraduate international students
2.   Postgraduate international students
3.   Student exchange programs
4.   Staff exchange programs
5.   Staff interaction in international context/ attendance at international conferences
6.   Internationally focused program of study
7.   International research collaboration
8.   Support for international students
9.   International institutional links

The model of internationalisation developed incorporated enough dimensions for people to be confident they are speaking in the same conceptual space as each other.

METHOD

For this study we expanded the sample size considerably, including a number of faculty responses from a Business and Economics International Conference held in Florence in July 2006. Consequently the whole data set as expanded from the 17 responses recorded in the 2003 study to 70 responses in this one. These business schools were from 11 countries, with significant clusters in Canada, China, India, U.K, US and Egypt. It proved extremely difficult to obtain large numbers of responses from Asian institutions. We divided the set into two groups, Western universities (Europe, North America, Australia and New Zealand) and Eastern universities (which were in a broadly defined Asia). The majority of Eastern responses were from India and China. We then compared the mean scores and standard deviations for each of the nine factors. T test were carried out to test for the significance of differences between means.

FINDINGS

Table 1 presents the current levels of internationalisation at the Western and Eastern universities, the data from which is presented graphically in Figure 1.

TABLE 1
Current Levels of Internationalisation

	Current	International Undergraduates	International Grad. & Post Grad.	Student Exchanges	Staff Exchanges	International Research Collaboration	Internationally Focussed Study Programmes	Attendance at International Conferences	Support for International Students	International Institutional Links	Mean
Western	mean	5.9	6.5	5.4	3.6	5.2	5.2	6.5	6.1	6.2	5.6
	sd	2.4	2.2	2.4	2.5	2.8	2.2	2.4	2.1	2.5	2.4
Eastern	mean	2.6	3.0	4.2	5.4	4.8	4.8	6.2	4.0	5.0	4.4
	sd	1.7	1.5	1.7	1.9	1.0	2.3	2.0	2.3	2.0	1.8
	Difference	**-3.3**	**-3.5**	**-1.2**	**1.8**	**-0.4**	**-0.4**	**-0.3**	**-2.1**	**-1.2**	**-1.2**

FIGURE 1
Current Levels of Internationalisation
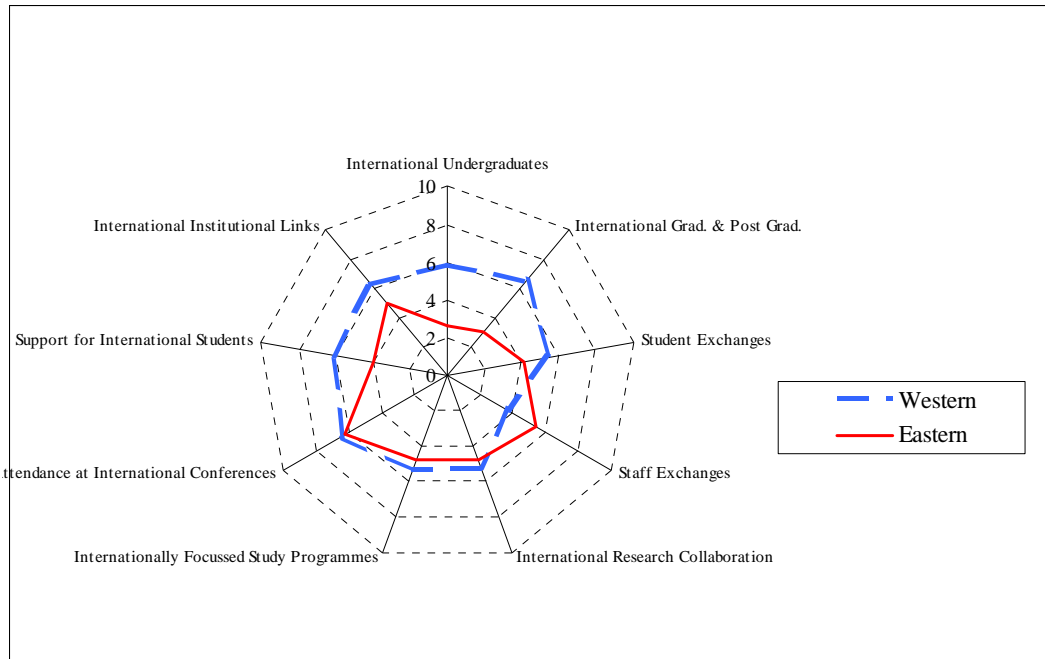
As can be seen, Western universities have achieved a higher degree of internationalisation on most of the measures. Much internationalisation has likely been driven by the reality of the economic priorities of different locations and also the extent institutions understand the idea of internationalisation and the level of development of a strategy to achieve it. Universities in the West recognise that international students, especially graduate ones, bring in a lot of additional revenue. Many Western universities have graduate programmes; especially in the high-cost technical areas and depend on foreign students in order to survive.

The one exception to this is the area of staff exchange, where Eastern universities had a much higher average score of 5.4 compared to Western universities, with an average score of 3.6. It could be argued that Eastern universities may have been driven by the desire for international, mostly Western, credibility and the value of English proficiency and so favour staff exchanges. It seems unlikely that Western academics have a desire for similar outcomes from going to the East. We suggest that the West is more attractive to the East than the East is to the West.

The biggest differences in the current level of achievement can be found when considering international undergraduates and international graduate and postgraduate students.

For the first of these, Western universities had an average score of 5.9, compared to 2.6 for the Eastern universities. For international graduate and postgraduate programmes, Western universities had a score of 6.5, compared to 3.0 for Eastern universities. The demand for post graduate management education is much greater than the supply in the East. For example management education in India is largely offered at Masters and PhD levels. In the West management education is available at the undergraduate level. In India there is huge competition to gain entry to one of the 1,200 places in Indian Institutes of Management (Phillip, 2003). Graduates of these schools gain key roles in Indian and multinational corporations. Those who do not qualify for admission and who have the capacity to go overseas, tend to do so. This is in the context of a rapidly growing middle class with increasing disposable income. In addition, Western government aid and scholarships will facilitate study abroad.

A survey of 1,000 students from 10 Asian countries (Hong Kong, India, China, Indonesia, Japan, Singapore, Malaysia, Korea, Chinese Taipei and Thailand) regarding Study Abroad Programmes revealed that students chose overseas programmes for the apparent better quality of foreign education (28%), broadening their experiences (26%), wanting to live overseas (23%), higher respect for foreign education (17%), followed by family desire for foreign education (14%), non availability of courses or problems in local admission (14%) and for desire to improve English (10%) (EduWorld, 2001; OECD, 2004). The US was the most attractive destination for Asian students where in the year 2002-03 Indian students comprised 12.7% of all the international students followed by China accounting for 11%, and Korea 7.8% (Euh, 2007).

Some Eastern universities may culturally prefer international knowledge transfer to begin at the staff level and not the student level particularly if it is limited. This would explain their great emphasis on staff-level international exchanges.

There may be a perceived career opportunity cost to internationalisation for academic staff in the West. Engwall (2007) and Knight (1999) pointed to the overriding US-orientation of business education and the importance of US-based publications and the location of key multinationals. The career success of academics depends on going to big conferences in the West In this context, international staff exchanges may not be valued by Western university respondents and seen as a real career opportunity cost. The chance of losing one's place on a career ladder may be seen as too high a price for Western academics to take. The benefits are likely to be long term through relationships that develop. In the West the performance rewards may be remorselessly short-term.

In contrast, respondents at universities in the East might see such exchanges as critical for local credibility and would view the acquisition of English language and cultural skills in dominant Western reference points as positive career opportunities

Engwall (2007) and Kuchinke (2007) pointed to the growing importance of professional associations and the growth of accreditation in the development of business education. It could be argued that some of the differences in internationalisation efforts tie in with the gap between a relatively matured accreditationalism in universities in the West and a still developing level of internationalisation in the East.

In the West, foreign students are seen as satisfying both economic and strategy needs, as well as the need for global accreditation requirements. As Engwall (2007) pointed out, most of the international rankings of business schools are US based, or to a lesser extent – UK-based. Many students want to go to the US schools and their global rankings are supported by such exchanges. In contrast, universities in the East are still developing, and aspiring towards Western credentials.

There were some aspects of internationalisation where Western and Eastern universities had similar levels of achievement. These are international research collaboration; internationally focussed study programmes; and attendance at international conferences. In all of these areas the difference in achievement between Western and Eastern universities was statistically insignificant.

TABLE 2
Ideal Level of Internationalisation

	Aspirations	International Undergraduates	International Grad. & Post Grad.	Student Exchanges	Staff Exchanges	International Research Collaboration	Internationally Focussed Study Programmes	Attendance at International Conferences	Support for International Students	International Institutional Links	Mean
Western	mean	6.9	7.7	7.1	6.2	7.3	7.0	7.7	7.4	7.7	7.2
	sd	2.7	2.3	2.6	2.7	2.5	2.3	2.1	2.0	2.2	2.4
Eastern	mean	3.9	5.5	6.8	8.1	7.8	7.2	8.2	5.7	8.2	6.8
	sd	2.3	1.9	1.2	1.4	1.1	1.9	1.8	1.8	1.3	1.6
	Difference	**-3.0**	**-2.2**	**-0.4**	**1.9**	**0.5**	**0.2**	**0.5**	**-1.7**	**0.4**	**-0.4**

FIGURE 2
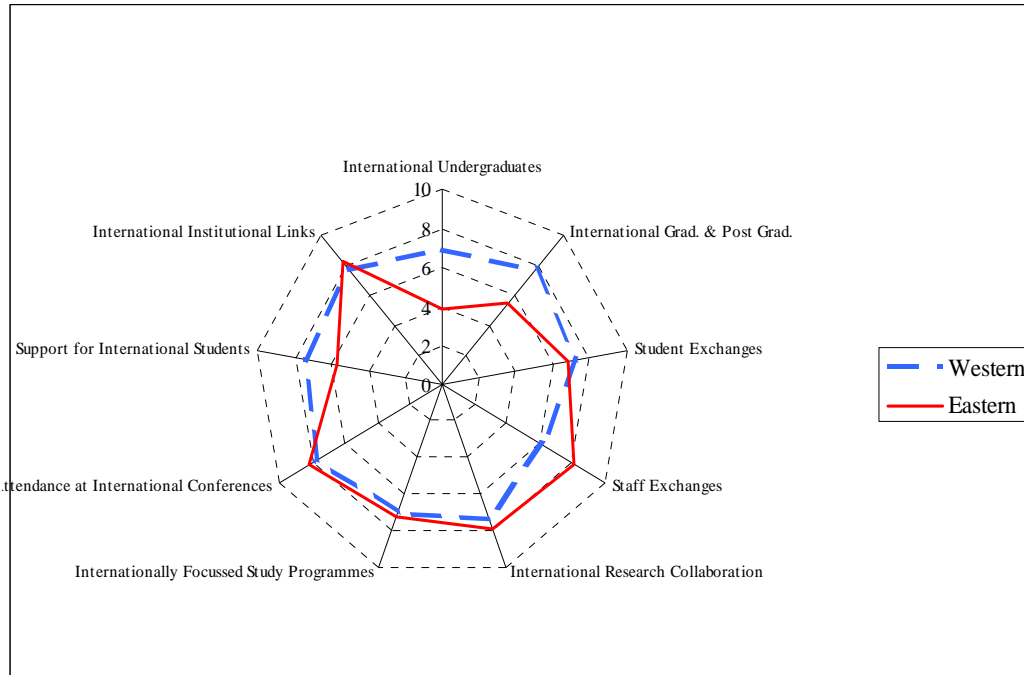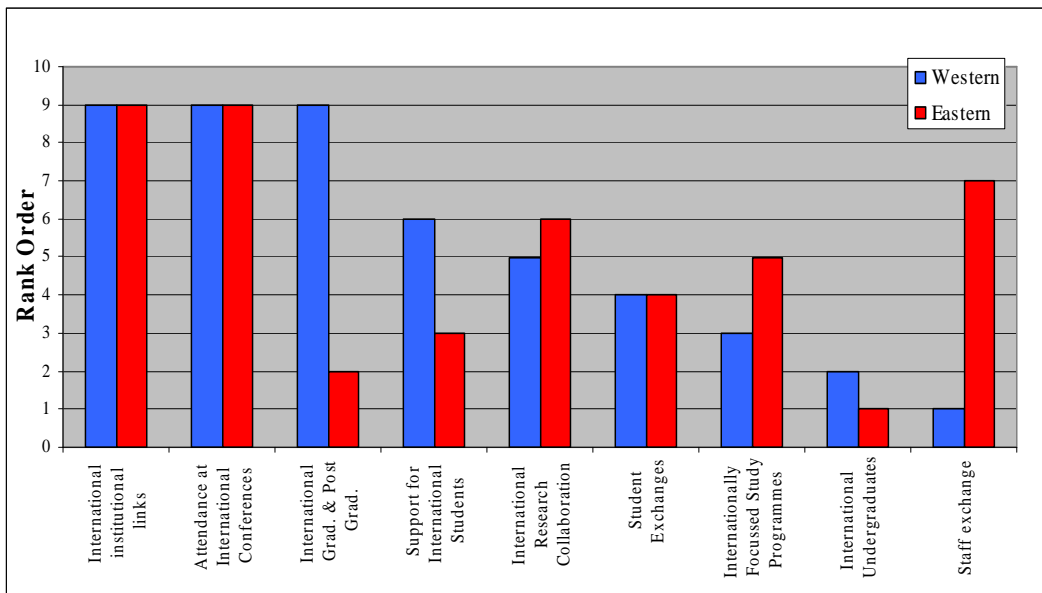**Ideal Level of Internationalisation**

Table 2 presents the differences in ideal internationalisation between Western and Eastern universities. These are also represented graphically in Figure 2. The aspirations of the two sets of universities displayed less divergence than their actual achievements. International research collaboration; internationally focused study programmes; attendance at international conferences and international institutional links were all cited as important goals by both universities. Major differences related to the question of attracting international undergraduates or international post graduates, which Western universities were more likely to regard as more important both strategically and economically. Eastern universities were more likely to see staff exchange as a top priority in their internationalisation strategy.

Western universities have adopted a strategy of collaboration with Asian educational institutions which required less commitment and limited direct investment (Dawes, 1995). This strategy provided choice to the collaborating university and involved low risk but access to the local partner's intellectual resources and market network. To the Asian universities it provided opportunities for collaborative work, international exposure to curriculum and faculty and student exchange. Participation in international conferences was also felt necessary to share the research

at international level and create opportunities for professional development and academic networking.

FIGURE 3
Ranked Ideal Internationalization

Comparing these results with those displayed in Figure 1, we can see that the aspects of internationalisation the two sets of universities favour are generally also the ones they are most successful at. This would suggest that the form internationalisation takes is intimately connected with the goals and aims of the internationalisation strategy.

The differences between the two sets of universities' aspirations can be more clearly seen in Figure 3. This presents how the universities ranked the importance of each of the nine aspects of internationalisation. Those that were ranked first received a score of 9; while those that were ranked last received a score of 1. The most noticeable discrepancy is over international graduate and postgraduate students. Western universities considered them the most important part of an internationalisation strategy, whereas Eastern universities considered them the second-least important.

In addition to the large and growing number of Asian students who travel to the West, some other trends are emerging within the East. India provides a good illustration of increasing

government intervention to encourage internationalisation including flows of students to the East. In 2002 the Indian University Grants Commission (UGC), adopted a plan for the promotion of internationalisation and the export of higher education. This included the Study India Abroad programme (UGC, 2002). It has funded this project with a view to promoting the free flow of students from other nations to India and vice versa (UGC, 2002).

With government encouragement some Indian universities have set up centres abroad. Indira Gandhi National Open University a distance learning university has been offering its business and management programmes in more than half a dozen countries in the Middle East, Africa, Indian Ocean Islands and South East Asia. Few Western students enrol, however, and this is a kind of regional internationalisation. Similar arrangements exist for the Management Development Institute, (MDI) Gurgaon, the University of Delhi, Manipal Academy of Higher Education, and others (Prakash, 2005). The leading business schools in India have begun arrangements for joint degree programmes and student exchanges with leading business schools in Europe, USA and Canada. There is every indication that the flow of students may increase from the West to the East.

An additional explanation for the differences between East and West may lie in the different world views held in the West and the East. The West tends to see the world as known and knowable. This leads to a mechanistic or spectator view of the world, with the human world being in some ways a transcendent reality. In the West it is possible to have an unconscious assumption that we know the way - or understand the model and nature of reality. Those in the West wish to share the knowledge for the benefit of all. They may also misunderstand how much more there is to know, and so be less energetic about or open to learning outside the West.

A more common Eastern approach would be to accept that as a given the world cannot be known as a spectator, but has to be known by being in the world and learning from experience. This pragmatic view requires turning to experience and relationships in the other world in order to gain knowledge and construct reality. The world is largely experienced through people in relation with others as individuals and in collective experience. This means that to know, requires people to relate together in culturally informing settings. Hence the emphasis on staff exchange, personal links, institutional arrangements, face to face conferences and research collaboration in the East. The presence of Western students at Eastern universities would be seen as a poor substitute for having contacts in the West with whom to collaborate.

CONCLUSION

We have suggested that there are several underlying factors that may account for the differences found between eastern and Western universities. These include differing strategic priorities, economic imperatives, inertia, supply and demand and perceptions of reputation and contrasting world views.

The most noticeable difference between the internationalisation of Western and Eastern universities are in their respective attitudes towards students - both undergraduate and postgraduate. Eastern universities do not seem to consider attracting them a high priority in their internationalisation strategy; a goal that is shown in the low number of Western students such universities attract. The reasons for this discrepancy may simply reflect reality – both economic and cultural. Western students face greater barriers in going to Eastern universities. These barriers are more than just language and culture, they also relate to the relative prestige of the two types of universities and perhaps to a different world view and understanding about what it means to know and how to learn.

A long history of Western domination has led Western universities to be more highly regarded than their Eastern counterparts. The Western student may be less motivated to attend universities in the East than the Eastern student wishing to go to the West.

Eastern universities focus on staff exchange. This, combined with a focus on building international institutional links and attendance at international conferences, suggests that Eastern universities look at internationalisation as a means of enhancing their university's research strength. This leads us to conclude that Western and Eastern universities have different purposes in mind when they embark on a strategy of internationalisation. For Eastern universities internationalisation is about enhancing the research strength of the university and building on-going relationships within which long term learning can occur. For Western universities, the focus is more on the ability to attract students.

It is important not to overstate the differences found in this exploratory study, as the two sets of universities also had goals in common, such as enhancing institutional links and attendance at international conferences. Significant variations in how Western and Eastern universities approach internationalisation were found. This research suggests that these variations should be further investigated to enhance our understanding of the nature of the internationalisation of business education and the most effective ways to implement a strategy of internationalisation.

Caution is needed when using sweeping categorisations such as Western and Eastern. Variations between different Eastern countries (for example India and China) and between varying Western countries (e.g. Canada and Italy) may be very large. Much more research is required to improve the sample size and to take account of cultural differences. More targeted research is needed to be sure who we are talking about when we reflect a range of views. Is an institutional view or a personal one that we recorded. However the use of the model of internationalisation for a fourth time gives growing faith in the usefulness of the model and the measure.

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