Global Integration and Local Responsiveness in Managing International Branch Campuses: An Empirical Investigation of Three Canadian Cases

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Abstract

This dissertation aimed to investigate international branch campuses' strategies for addressing the managerial challenge of responding to the host country's educational demands (local responsiveness) while maintaining the educational quality comparable to that of the home institution (global integration) and factors impacting their strategies. To achieve these research objectives, I adopted case study as the research methodology and selected the McGill MBA Japan Program, Shanghai Vancouver Film School, and Algonquin College-Kuwait as the three cases. To obtain a holistic understanding of each case, I conducted interviews with their senior managers, programme directors/academic coordinators, instructors, students, and alumni, and reviewed relevant documents to supplement and validate the data gathered from the interviews. Upon the data collection, I analysed the data through a thematic analysis approach. The analysis was guided by institutional theory, the global integration and local responsiveness paradigm, and neocolonialism.

The results demonstrate that the three Canadian international branch campuses have standardised the curriculum offered at their home institutions and localised the student services as those provided by other institutions in their host countries. In terms of staffing, the McGill MBA Japan Program has maintained consistency with its home institution, whereas Shanghai Vancouver Film School and Algonquin College-Kuwait tend to hire bilingual instructors from the host and neighboring countries. Similar to many other international branch campuses, the McGill MBA Japan Program, Shanghai Vancouver Film School and Algonquin College-Kuwait are inactive in research. Such strategies are more influenced by the institutional forces in their host countries than those in their home country at the macro level. The host countries' institutional influences include relevant education regulations (Japan, China, and Kuwait), social norms of networking (China and

Kuwait), the overwork culture (Japan), the Communist values (China), and the Islamic culture (Kuwait). By contrast, the home country's institutional influences involve the student-centred education and high value attached to education quality. At the micro level, these strategies are primarily impacted by their students, home institutions, joint venture partners, and local competitors. Reflecting upon Shanghai Vancouver Film School and Algonquin College-Kuwait's strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness, I find that while internationalising the postsecondary education system in their host countries, the two Canadian international branch campuses serve as spaces reinforcing global knowledge hierarchy and educational inequality. When mimicking their home institutions' educational models, they both exercise agency by resisting Western liberal ideologies and teaching contents irrelevant to the local context, attempting to create a third space for students to engage with multiple perspectives and knowledge systems.

This dissertation makes important contributions to the field of international branch campuses. From a theoretical perspective, it constructs a comprehensive theoretical framework for researchers to investigate international branch campuses' managerial challenge of global integration and local responsiveness. From a practical perspective, it draws implications for other international branch campuses that are formulating their organisational strategies to address the managerial challenge of global integration and local responsiveness. The research results are expected to advance researchers, practitioners, and administrators' understanding of the international branch campuses' operation and promote international branch campuses' sustainable development.

Résumé

Cette thèse visait à étudier les stratégies des campus délocalisés internationaux pour adresser le défi managérial consistant à répondre aux demandes éducatives du pays d'accueil (réactivité locale) tout en maintenant une qualité éducative comparable à celle de l'établissement d'origine (intégration mondiale) et les facteurs ayant un impact sur leurs stratégies. Pour atteindre cet objectif, j'ai utilisé l'étude de cas comme méthodologie de recherche et sélectionné le programme MBA de McGill au Japon, l'école de cinéma de Shanghai Vancouver et le Collège Algonquin-Koweït comme cas. Afin d'obtenir une compréhension holistique de chaque cas, J'ai mené des entretiens et examiné des documents pertinents. À la suite de la collecte des données, j'ai analysé les données avec une approche d'analyse thématique. L'analyse a été basée sur la théorie institutionnelle, le paradigme d'intégration globale optimale et de réactivité locale et sur le néocolonialisme.

Les résultats démontrent que les trois campus internationaux ont standardisé le programme d'études proposé dans leurs établissements d'origine et ont localisé les services aux étudiants, tel que ceux fournis par d'autres établissements dans leurs pays d'accueil. Pour le personnel, le programme MBA de McGill au Japon est cohérent avec son établissement d'origine, tandis que la Shanghai Vancouver Film School et le Collège Algonquin-Koweït sont portés à embaucher des instructeurs bilingues venant du pays hôte et des pays voisins. À l'instar de nombreux autres campus internationaux, le programme MBA de McGill au Japon, la Shanghai Vancouver Film School et le Collège Algonquin-Koweït sont inactifs dans la recherche. Au niveau macro, ces stratégies sont d'avantage influencées par les forces institutionnelles de leur pays d'accueil que par celles de leur pays d'origine. Les influences institutionnelles des pays d'accueil incluent les réglementations éducatives pertinentes (Japon, Chine et Koweït), les normes sociales de réseautage (Chine et Koweït), la culture du surmenage (Japon), les valeurs communistes (Chine) et la culture

islamique (Koweït). En revanche, les influences institutionnelles du Canada comprennent une éducation centrée sur l'étudiant et une grande valeur attachée à la qualité de l'éducation. Au niveau micro, ces stratégies sont principalement influencées par leurs étudiants, leurs établissements d'origine, leurs partenaires de coentreprise et leurs concurrents locaux. En réfléchissant aux stratégies de la Shanghai Vancouver Film School et de l'Algonquin College-Kuwait pour équilibrer l'intégration mondiale et la réactivité locale, je constate que tout en l'internationalisation du système d'éducation postsecondaire dans leur pays d'accueil, les deux campus internationaux canadiens servent d'espaces renforçant la hiérarchie mondiale des connaissances et inégalités en matière d'éducation. En reproduisant les modèles éducatifs de leurs établissements d'origine et en et en enseignant du contenu non lié au contexte local, ils exercent leur capacité d'action en résistant aux idéologies libérales occidentales. Cela permet de créer un troisième espace qui permet aux étudiants de s'engager dans de multiples perspectives et systèmes de connaissances.

Cette thèse apporte de grandes contributions au domaine des campus internationaux. Du point de vue théorique, il construit un cadre théorique complet permettant aux chercheurs d'étudier le défi managérial des campus internationaux en matière d'intégration mondiale et de réactivité locale. D'un point de vue pratique, cela a des implications pour d'autres campus internationaux qui élaborent leurs stratégies organisationnelles pour relever le défi managérial de l'intégration mondiale et de la réactivité locale. Les résultats visent à approfondir la compréhension des chercheurs et des praticiens concernant le fonctionnement des campus internationaux et à promouvoir le développement durable des campus internationaux.

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After obtaining admission to McGill University in March 2017, I foresaw the numerous challenges I would encounter throughout my PhD journey and doubted that I would complete my doctoral project. Yet, it turns out that pursuing PhD at McGill has been one of the most meaningful and rewarding experiences that I have undertaken. In addition to my determination and persistence, I really appreciate to have a nurturing community of colleagues, friends, and family support me to overcome all the anticipated and unanticipated challenges. Therefore, I would like to acknowledge the people who have contributed to my doctoral project and those who have supported me to go through this journey.

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I would like to extend my sincere gratitude to my co-supervisor, Dr. Claudia Mitchell, and my committee member, Dr. Bronwen Low, for their timely and constructive feedback to my candidacy paper, research proposal, and dissertation. I am indebted to Dr. Mitchell for agreeing to serve as my co-supervisor from June 2019. Her in-depth knowledge in research methodology has helped me further elaborate the research design. Dr. Low's suggestion of adding the neocolonial

perspective has broaden my research scope. Thank you both for sharing your knowledge, insights, and wisdom!

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This dissertation is dedicated to the memory of my master's supervisor, Dr. Qiang Liu, for his continuous encouragement, strong supervision, and generous support!

Contribution of Co-Authors

This dissertation follows a manuscript-based format. As expected in this format, there are some repetitions in the text. The dissertation consists of three manuscripts, which are presented in Chapter Four to Chapter Six. As the first author of the three manuscripts, I conceptualised the research and carried out every step of it, including formulating the research questions, designing the research methodology, collecting and analysing the data, and writing the manuscripts. I also wrote the dissertation in its entirety. The three manuscripts are co-authored with different colleagues.

Chapter Four, *Global Integration and Local Responsiveness in Managing International Branch Campuses: An Empirical Investigation of the McGill MBA Japan Program*, is co-authored with Dr. Qiang Liu, Dr. Ratna Ghosh, Dr. Lu Wang, and Dr. Zhaohui Sun. It has been published by *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*. Chapter Five, *Multilevel Research on Factors Impacting International Branch Campuses' Global Integration and Local Responsiveness: An Empirical Investigation of Two Canadian Cases*, is co-authored with Dr. Ratna Ghosh, Dr. Siyi Gong, Dr. David McHardy, and Dr. Ruichang Ding. It has been submitted to *Studies in Higher Education* and received a decision of major revision. Chapter Six, *Rethinking the Neocolonial Practices at International Branch Campuses: A Comparative Study of Two Canadian Cases*, is co-authored with Dr. Ratna Ghosh and Dr. Baocun Liu. It has been submitted to *Journal of Studies in International Education*.

As my doctoral supervisor, Dr. Ratna Ghosh has always been my first reference for my inquiries and feedback requests. She provided me with a lot of constructive feedback and helped me to improve the arguments. Dr. Qiang Liu and Dr. Lu Wang helped me revise the text of Chapter Four. Dr. Siyi Gong and Dr. David McHardy helped me revise the text of Chapter Five. Dr.

Zhaohui Sun, Dr. Ruichang Ding, and Dr. Baocun Liu participated in the data analysis in each of the three manuscripts by conducting cross-checking. They helped me to ensure the accuracy of the data interpretation.

Chapter One: General Introduction

I will start this dissertation by presenting my rationale for selecting the research area of international branch campuses. In 2015 while doing my master's degree at Beijing Normal University in China, I worked with my master supervisor, Dr. Qiang Liu, on a project to produce a draft for *The Opinions on the Work of the Opening-up of Education in the New Era* that was officially released by the State Council of People's Republic of China on April 29, 2016. Through this project, I found the value of importing educational services for China's educational capacity building and was inspired to conduct research on international branch campuses (Liu & Jing, 2016). In 2018 when working as a research assistant for a Ministry of Education of China funded project "Research on the Strategies of Chinese Universities to Operate Branch Campuses Overseas", I wrote a research report presenting the motivations, strategies, and challenges of Canadian colleges and universities delivering educational products and services abroad. After reviewing over 30 relevant academic articles and grey literature reports on Canadian international branch campuses, I found Canadian colleges and universities' managerial challenge of balancing global integration and local responsiveness in addition to other issues such as institutional governance, student recruitment, and quality assurance (Jing, 2021). Having identified the research gap in the existing literature, I decided to investigate Canadian international branch campuses' strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness for my doctoral study at McGill University.

In this chapter, I will describe the research background of selecting international branch campuses as the research area and narrow it down to the research topic of global integration and local responsiveness in managing international branch campuses. After presenting the research questions, I highlight this study's contribution to original knowledge and outline the organisation of this dissertation.

Research Background

During the past half-century, with the accelerating trends of globalisation[1] and neoliberalism[2], internationalisation has become one of the major forces driving higher education development across the world (Robson & Wihlborg, 2019). Integrating an international dimension into teaching, research, and social services is assumed to be an effective approach for enhancing the quality of higher education systems (Knight, 1999), although how internationlisation is done is important. Since the turn of the 21st century, internationalisation of higher education has been prioritised in the reform agenda at both national and institutional levels (de Wit & Deca, 2020). At the national level, motivated by a variety of economic, political, socio-cultural, and academic benefits, developed countries[3] including the United States, the United Kingdom, Canada, and Australia have successively released strategies to support the process of internationalisation (de Wit & Deca, 2020). Recently, developing countries such as China[4], Malaysia, and Vietnam have also become active in promoting internationalisation, following the ideologies and practices of the Anglo-Saxon paradigm (Aziz & Abdullah, 2014; Hoang, Tran, & Pham, 2017; Zheng & Kapoor, 2021). At the institutional level, an increasing number of universities have formulated institution-wide policies for internationalisation (de Wit & Altbach, 2021a). According to the 5th Global Survey of Internationalisation of Higher Education conducted by the International Association of Universities in 2018, over 90% of higher education institutions mentioned internationalisation in

[1] Currently, there is a rise in nationalism and anti-globalisation around the world.
[2] Neoliberalism is a key example of why internationalisation happens. Scholars have focused on several negative aspects of neoliberalism, among which privatisation of public service is one.
[3] The division of developed countries and developing countries was proposed by the United Nations Development Programme according to Human Development Index. Human Development Index is a complex index comprising of three indices measuring countries achievement in longevity, education, and income. It also recognises other aspects of development such as political freedom and personal security. In this classification system, developed countries are countries in the top quartile of the Human Development Index distribution and developing countries consists of the remaining countries.
[4] Although China is one of the largest and fastest growing economies in the world and it has considerable power in the global arena, its rate of urbanisation is low, and its economic growth is not evenly distributed.

their mission statements and strategic plans (Marinoni, 2019). Prior research (de Wit, H., & Altbach, 2021a, 2021b) reveals that in practice, it is the institutions of higher education rather than the government or private sector that are the main agents driving the development of internationalisation.

Basically, internationalisation of higher education is divided into two separate but interdependent streams: (a) *internationalisation abroad*, which is related to activities happening across borders, and (b) *internationalisation at home*[5], which represents activities that help students on the home campus develop international understanding and intercultural skills (Knight, 2004). Hans de Wit (2013), a leading scholar working on internationalisation of higher education, argues that internationalisation abroad focuses on a small number of elite students, academics, and administrators. It usually takes the form of cross-border mobility of students, academics, projects, programmes, and institutions. By contrast, internationalisation at home benefits all members of the academic community, rather than only those who have a mobility experience (Beelen & Jones, 2015). Activities under this stream include curriculum, teaching and learning, extra-curricular activities, liaison with local cultural/ethnic groups, and research and scholarly activities (Knight, 2012). Due to the huge demand for higher education worldwide, internationalisation abroad is dominating the field, despite the increasing attention internationalisation at home has received (de Wit & Altbach, 2021b).

Among the different forms of cross-border mobility within the stream of internationalisation abroad, student mobility, rather than faculty mobility or international research, is the most common form of internationalisation (Varghese, 2017). Usually, mobile students can access better quality of education and develop global competency that prepare them to seek a good

[5] Note that internationalisation at home does not refer to minority communities within a country who make up a multicultural society.

job in the international labour market (Altbach & Knight, 2007). It was estimated that in 2019, there were 6.1 million students studying in foreign countries, more than twice the number in 2007 (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2021). Following student mobility, programme mobility is the second most common form (Vincent-Lancrin, 2004). It involves cross-border distance education, but mainly takes the form of face-to-face teaching offered by a foreign partner institution in cooperation with a local institution. The relationships between foreign and local institutions are regulated under diverse arrangements, such as franchises, double degree programmes, and joint degree programmes (Youssef, 2014). Institution mobility, which refers to the physical presence of an education institution across a national border, is an increasingly important form of cross-border education, although its scale is still limited (Vincent-Lancrin, 2004). It is usually delivered through international branch campuses and foreign learning centres (Youssef, 2014). Compared to student mobility, programme and institution mobility can bring greater benefits to developing countries, given their functions of alleviating brain drain and building education capacity (Vincent-Lancrin, 2004).

This dissertation focuses on international branch campuses as they represent the most advanced stage in the internationalisation of higher education (Escriva-Beltrana, Muñoz-de-Prata, & Villób, 2019; Mazzarol, Soutar, & Seng, 2003). In this dissertation, international branch campuses refer to entities that are owned, at least in part, by specific foreign higher education institutions. The foreign institutions have some degree of responsibility for the overall strategy and quality assurance of the branch campuses. The branch campuses should operate under the name of the foreign institutions and offer programming and/or credentials that bear the name of the foreign institutions. The branch campuses have basic infrastructure, such as libraries, open access

computer labs, and dining facilities, and, overall, students at the branch campuses have a similar educational experience to students at the home campuses (Wilkins & Rumbley, 2018).

Problem Statement

International branch campuses have expanded rapidly since their first establishment in the 1950s that was marked by the foundation of Johns Hopkins University's branch campus in Italy (Becker, 2009; Knight, 2008; Lane, 2011a). This is particularly true after 1995 when the World Trade Organization started to implement the *General Agreement on Trade in Services*, making higher education tradable across borders (Escriva-Beltrana, Muñoz-de-Prata, & Villób, 2019). From the beginning of the 21st century, international branch campuses increased in unprecedented numbers, rising from 67 in 2000 to 305 in 2020 (Cross-Border Education Research Team, 2020). These international branch campuses are mainly established by developed countries such as the U.S. (86), the U.K. (43), France (38), and Australia (20), whereas the receiving countries are usually developing countries, including China (42), the United Arab Emirates (33), Malaysia (15), and Qatar (11). The major factors driving the rapid growth of international branch campuses are developing countries' increasing demand for higher education and their need for highly skilled labour in the knowledge economy (Altbach & Knight, 2007). Many countries find it more efficient to invite foreign universities to establish branch campuses within their territories rather than expanding the domestic higher education sector (Girdzijauskaite & Radzeviciene, 2014).

Despite the rapid development, operating branch campuses in foreign countries involves substantial risks, considering the potential financial loss and reputational damage (Healey, 2015). For example, after operation for one semester in 2007, a branch campus established by the University of New South Wales in Singapore was closed due to its low student enrolment and resulted in a loss of US$38 million (University of New South Wales, 2007). Moreover, this failure

has been frequently cited by scholars and practitioners when offering advice to university leaders who plan to establish international branch campuses for profit (Ellison, 2017; Shams, 2012; Silver, 2015; Wilkins & Huisman, 2012). Besides this case, another 41 international branch campuses have closed since the mid-1990s, leading to approximately a 15 percent failure rate in the industry (Cross-Border Education Research Team, 2017). Although this figure is not very high compared with other international business start-ups, no university would like to see such a new operation fail. In this context, how to achieve a successful and sustainable development of international branch campuses in host countries has become a hot research topic.

To promote the sustainability of international branch campuses, researchers have examined many managerial challenges encountered by international branch campuses, such as legitimacy building (Farrugia & Lane, 2012; He & Wilkins, 2018; Zhang, 2016), leadership and governance (Borgos, 2016; Healey, 2016; Lane, 2011a), partnership administration (Wahab, 2015), organisation culture formation (Tierney & Lanford, 2015; Wood, 2011), human resource management (Cai & Hall, 2016; Neri & Wilkins, 2019; Salt & Wood, 2014; Wilkins, Butt, & Annabi, 2017, 2018; Wilkins & Neri, 2018), student recruitment (Ahmad & Buchanan, 2015; Weinman, 2014), and quality assurance (Hou, Hill, Chen, & Tsai, 2018; Yokoyama, 2011). Yet, one important issue that every international branch campus must cope with has not been adequately addressed. That is, how should international branch campuses respond to their host countries' regulatory requirements and educational demands (local responsiveness) while maintaining a comparable education quality to their home institutions when conferring degrees in their name (global integration). This issue is particularly crucial for international branch campuses located in developing countries that are significantly different from those of their home institutions.

The existing literature reveals that many researchers have noticed international branch campuses' managerial challenge of balancing global integration and local responsiveness and highlighted the benefits of addressing this challenge (Farrugia & Lane, 2012; Franklin & Alzouebi, 2014; Healey, 2018; Miller-Idriss & Hannauer, 2011; Shams, 2012; Shams & Huisman, 2012, 2016; Silver, 2015). For example, Shams and Huisman (2012) argue that by adapting to the social norms and cultural values in the host countries, international branch campuses can gain legitimacy and reduce tensions with local stakeholders, while by maintaining similarity with their home institutions, they can differentiate themselves from the local competitors and gain competitive advantages in the marketplace. Some researchers have further investigated international branch campuses' strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness, particularly those used to respond to host countries' sociopolitical and economic context. For instance, Bellini et al. (2016) report that the Overseas Campus of Tongji University in Florence integrates itself in Italy by launching teaching activities in cooperation with local actors and organising cultural activities for the local audience. There are also studies examining factors impacting international branch campuses' strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness. An investigation of six British and Australian international branch campuses in Southeast Asia demonstrates that these international branch campuses maintain equivalence with their home institutions in curriculum, but not so much in staffing. The global integration in curriculum is primarily influenced by the host countries' normative and cultural-cognitive forces, whereas the local adaptation in staffing is closely related to their home institutions' centralised controlling mechanisms (Shams & Huisman, 2016). There also have been studies in the neocolonial impact of home institutions on international branch campuses (Siltaoja, Juusola, & Kivijärvi, 2019; Xu, 2021). Despite these studies, empirical research investigating Canadian international branch

campuses' strategies of balancing global integration and local responsiveness and factors impacting their strategies is limited.

Research Questions

For this dissertation, I conducted a multiple case study to explore international branch campuses' strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness and to examine the factors influencing their strategies. Given that most international branch campus-related research is based on branch campuses established by the U.S., the U.K., and Australia, but very little work has been done on other countries. So this dissertation focuses on the Canadian institutions so as to advance readers' understanding of their development. Specifically, this study was guided by the following three research questions:

> RQ1: What strategies do international branch campuses established by Canadian postsecondary education institutions use to address the managerial challenges of global integration and local responsiveness, including the strategies used during the COVID-19 pandemic, and crisis situations in general?
>
> RQ2: What factors influence international branch campuses' strategies for addressing the managerial challenges of global integration and local responsiveness?
>
> RQ3: When balancing global integration and local responsiveness, do Canadian international branch campuses practise neocolonialism, and if so, how do they mimic and resist their home institutions' neocolonial influences?

Contribution to Original Knowledge

This dissertation is one of the first studies to investigate Canadian international branch campuses' strategies for addressing the managerial challenge of global integration and local responsiveness. By exploring the strategies used by Canadian international branch campuses for balancing global

integration and local responsiveness, this dissertation is anticipated to contribute to the research field of international branch campuses both theoretically and practically. From a theoretical perspective, it tests the applicability of Healey's (2018) optimal global integration and local responsiveness paradigm, on which I build a comprehensive theoretical framework for researchers to investigate international branch campuses' managerial challenge of global integration and local responsiveness. The empirical investigation also tests the validity of the comprehensive theoretical framework. From a practical perspective, it draws implications for other international branch campuses that are formulating their organisational strategies to address the managerial challenge of global integration and local responsiveness, and lately crisis situations such as COVID-19, and thus promotes international branch campuses' sustainable development.

Overall Structure of the Dissertation

This dissertation follows a manuscript-based format comprising three manuscripts. The first manuscript was published in the *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management* in 2020. The second manuscript has been submitted to *Studies in Higher Education* and received a decision of major revision. The third manuscript has been submitted to the *Journal of Studies in International Education*. Overall, the dissertation consists of seven chapters, among which content overlaps exist, as expected in the manuscript-based format. The subsequent chapters of this dissertation are organised as follows.

Chapter Two describes the theoretical framework of this study, which consists of institutional theory, the global integration and local responsiveness paradigm, and neocolonialism. I introduce each of the three theories by presenting their historical development, their application in international branch campus research, and their applicability to this study. In the end, I construct a comprehensive theoretical framework by incorporating the three theories with the aim to adopt

it to guide the empirical investigation.

Chapter Three outlines the research methodology adopted by this study. Specifically, I present the research paradigm, research methodology, data collection methods, data analysis approach, techniques for ensuring trustworthiness, and my positionality. In the beginning, I describe the rationale of locating this study within the interpretivist research paradigm and of adopting case study as the research methodology. In order to capture the diversity of Canadian international branch campuses' strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness, I chose to conduct a multiple case study. For each case, the data was collected through interviews and documents, and it was analysed through a thematic analysis approach. This chapter ends with a description of how the trustworthiness was ensured and how my position and identity impacted the research process.

Chapter Four, *Global Integration and Local Responsiveness in Managing International Branch Campuses: An Empirical Investigation of the McGill MBA Japan Program*, is the first of my three manuscripts. In this chapter, I test the applicability of Healey's (2018) optimal global integration and local responsiveness paradigm by conducting a single case study of the McGill MBA Japan Program. Adopting Healey's (2018) optimal global integration and local responsiveness paradigm as the theoretical framework, I investigated the McGill MBA Japan Program's strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness in staffing, curriculum, and research, as well as the pull and push factors influencing its strategies.

Chapter Five, *Multilevel Research on Factors Impacting International Branch Campuses' Global Integration and Local Responsiveness: An Empirical Investigation of Two Canadian Cases*, is my second manuscript. In this chapter, I constructed a multilevel framework for understanding both macro- and micro-level factors impacting international branch campuses' strategies for

balancing global integration and local responsiveness and adopted it to guide the empirical investigation of Shanghai Vancouver Film School and Algonquin College-Kuwait. The multilevel framework incorporates institutional theory at the macro level and Healey's (2018) optimal global integration and local responsiveness paradigm at the micro level. After introducing the multilevel framework, I presented the research findings for each of the two selected cases and then compared the similarities and differences of the two cases.

Chapter Six, *Rethinking the Neocolonial Practices at International Branch Campuses: A Comparative Study of Two Canadian Cases*, is my third manuscript. In this chapter, I examine the neocolonial practices at Shanghai Vancouver Film School and Algonquin College-Kuwait during the global integration and local responsiveness process. In the Results section, I report Shanghai Vancouver Film School and Algonquin College-Kuwait's practices of mimicking and resisting their home institutions' educational models in their host countries. The comparison of the two Canadian international branch campuses' practices is presented in the Discussion section.

Chapter Seven provides an overall discussion of the three manuscripts. I first discuss how this study responds to the research questions and then draw implications to other international branch campuses. In the end, I point out the limitations of this study and offer directions for future research.

Chapter Two: Theoretical Framework

This dissertation explores international branch campuses' strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness, factors impacting their strategies, and the neocolonial practices during the global integration and local responsiveness process. To address these research questions, this dissertation draws upon institutional theory, the global integration and local responsiveness paradigm, and neocolonialism. In this chapter, I provide a brief introduction for each of the three theories, outline their application in international branch campus research, and discuss their applicability in this study. Finally, I construct a comprehensive theoretical framework by incorporating the three theories in order to adopt it to guide the empirical investigation.

Institutional Theory

Institutional theory has been a focus of academic research for more than one hundred years (Lawrence & Shadnam, 2008). It has experienced a renaissance since the 1970s and become one of the leading theories in organisational studies nowadays (Lawrence & Shadnam, 2008). In the recent decade, it has been frequently used in the studies on international branch campuses. In this section, I first introduce the key concepts in institutional theory and then present its application in international branch campus research. In the end, I describe how it was used in this study.

A Brief Introduction of Institutional Theory

Institutional theory views the social world as comprised of institutions. In the late 19th and early 20th century, sociologists such as Max Weber and Emile Durkheim started to build institutional theory from describing what institutions are and how they function, especially in relation to the formal institutions of government and the state (Bell, 2002; Lawrence & Shadnam, 2008). However, many of these early studies were challenged due to their adherence to neoclassical theory in economics, behavioralism in political science, and positivism in sociology (Scott, 2005). It was

not until the 1970s when John Meyer and Brian Rowan investigated the influences of institutions on organisational structures that institutional theory started to experience its renaissance (Lawrence & Shadnam, 2008). In their influential article, Meyer and Rowan (1977) argued that organisational structures reflect or respond to the cognitive and cultural factors in the institutional environment that consists of rules, norms, and beliefs. This marked the formulation of neo-institutional theory, a significant shift from the old institutional analysis that merely emphasised institutions themselves (Powell & Colyvas, 2008; Scott, 2005). Since then, an increasing number of scholars have participated in the development of neo-institutional theory. In the past four decades, researchers explored a wide range of issues related to it and thus focused on many interesting topics over time (Biesenthal, Clegg, Mahalingam, & Sankaran, 2018).

As reflected by the existing literature, initial research of neo-institutional theory placed its emphasis on the impact of institutions on the conformity of organisations in local social settings (Biesenthal, Clegg, Mahalingam, & Sankaran, 2018). For instance, Meyer and Rowan (1977) argue that in a highly institutionalised society, the institutional environment forces organisations within the field to align their structures with leading organisations to gain legitimacy, resources, power, and better survival opportunities. Based on this viewpoint, DiMaggio and Powell (1983) further propose that it is the coercive, normative, and mimetic forces that press organisations to take on similar structures to survive in the competitive environment. Here, the coercive factors refer to the political pressures and the force of the state, providing regulatory oversight and control towards organisations; normative factors are the potent influence of professions and the role of education; and mimetic forces stress the habitual, taken-for-granted responses to circumstances of uncertainty.

In a similar vein, Scott (1995) states that the regulative, normative, and cultural-cognitive pillars are the three analytical elements of institutions. According to Scott (1995), the regulative pillar involves the formal rules, regulations, and laws that are used to ensure stability and order in the existing society; the normative pillar refers to the social values, beliefs, and norms that specify how things should be done and what actions are appropriate; the cultural-cognitive pillar concerns the established cognitive structures in society that are taken for granted, through which individuals construct their versions of social reality within the wider pre-existing cultural systems. Using Scott's institutional framework, Kostova and Zaheer (1999) build up the concept of "institutional distance", defining it as the difference or similarity of the regulatory, normative, and cultural-cognitive institutions between an organisation's home country and host country. Therefore, in the context of international management, organisations such as subsidiaries of multinational enterprises always confront the dual pressures from their home and host country institutional environments, compelling organisations to conform to the expectations of the field in which they are located (Powell & Colyvas, 2008).

Different from the traditional view that treats institutions as constraints on organisational behaviors (Powell & Colyvas, 2008), more contemporary studies note the complexities of organisational responses to institutional environments. For instance, Oliver (1991) points out that while conformity to institutional influences is the most likely response of organisations, other responses such as acquiescence, compromise, avoidance, defiance, and manipulation are also possible considering the nature and context of the institutional pressures. More recently, studies started to examine the diversity of organisational responses to contradictory pressures and complex institutional environments (Seo & Creed, 2002). When facing institutional complexity comprising

incompatible institutional logics[6] (Greenwood, Raynard, Kodeih, Micelotta, & Lounsbury, 2011; Thornton, Ocasio & Lounsbury, 2012), organisations have to satisfy some demands while defying others to gain legitimacy and institutional support. In this case, they may use heterogeneous strategies to respond to the complex institutional environment, depending on the conditions they face. For example, Quirke (2013) reveals that within a pluralistic institutional environment with conflicting logics and weak regulations, Toronto "rogue" private schools choose to evade conformity to the dominant institutional influences if the principals are able to find enough parents that appreciate their variation and would like to send their children to study in the schools. Although this is neither international nor a higher education institution, it is an example of how education institutions respond differently to situations they face. Bertels and Lawrence (2016) report that the Canadian public schools under investigation applied four different strategies including reinterpretation, advocacy, isolation, and integration to responding to the institutional complexity stemming from the emerging logic of Aboriginal distinctiveness. The variations in organisational responses are attributed to the different roles school members play.

Although previous institutional studies examined the diversity of organisations' responses to the institutional environment, they tended to overlook the possibility of institutional change. Indeed, institutions are not static. They are evolving during the interaction process with organisations, especially when institutional complexity exists in the field (Boliari & Topyan, 2007). In this context, the concepts of institutional work and institutional entrepreneurship were introduced in recent years to examine the role of agency in promoting institutional change. Institutional work is the purposive action of individuals and organisations aimed at creating,

[6] Institutional logics was introduced by Alford and Friedland (1985) when describing how contradictory practices and beliefs inherent in modern Western societies shape individuals' actions in the political arena. It is defined as a set of material practices and symbolic constructions that constitute an institutional order's organising principle and are available to organisations and individuals to elaborate (Friedland & Alford, 1991).

maintaining, and disrupting institutions (Lawrence & Suddaby, 2006). Institutional entrepreneurs, the decision makers in organisations, have the interest, agency, and power to shape the institutions (Tracey, Phillips, & Jarvis, 2011). Different from institutional work that focuses more on maintaining and disrupting institutions (Cai & Mehari, 2015), institutional entrepreneurship emphasises how individuals and organisations create institutions. These two concepts bring agency into institutional theory and could open up space for future exploration of the field.

The Application of Institutional Theory in International Branch Campus Research

Institutional theory has been frequently used in studies on international branch campuses in the recent years, and thus became one of the most commonly used theoretical frameworks in this area of research. In this section, I present the major studies on international branch campuses that apply institutional theory as the theoretical framework.

Wilkins and Huisman (2012) adopt institutional theory to examine the motivations and strategies of higher education institutions to engage in international branch campuses establishment. Specifically, by using Scott's (1995) three pillars of institutions as the theoretical framework, they investigate the impact of macro social forces on higher education institutions' decision-making process regarding whether to establish an international branch campus. In their article, Wilkins and Huisman first explain how regulations (the regulative pillar) affect the emergence of branch campuses. On the one hand, the decrease of public funding for higher education in countries such as the U.S., the U.K., and Australia pushes universities to develop branch campuses overseas to seek alternative sources of revenue. On the other hand, the favorable policies in host countries pull foreign universities to establish branch campuses within their jurisdictions. For example, Malaysia and Singapore have encouraged foreign universities to establish branch campuses in their countries as a solution to building the educational capacity and

developing a knowledge-based economy (Welch, 2011) based on their reputation and quality of their education. Following this, Wilkins and Huisman further state that in addition to the regulative pillar, higher education institutions are also influenced by the norms and values in the existing society (the normative pillar). In many countries such as China, finding a local partner with good connections and a strong knowledge of local business practices is often the first essential step for foreign higher education institutions that contemplate establishing an international branch campus. Besides the aforementioned factors, the reason for higher education institutions from the U.S., the U.K., and Australia to be more prominent in the establishment of international branch campuses is also revealed from the cultural-cognitive pillar. This is because the education quality offered by institutions from these three countries is taken for granted to be high and their cultures considered sophisticated.

In the same study, building on Kostova's (1996) concept of institutional distance and Phillip, Tracey, and Karra's (2009) categorisation of institutional environments, Wilkins and Huisman (2012) further illustrate how a higher education institution might effectively assess its strategies for operating branch campuses overseas. As shown in Figure 2.1, if the institutional differences between a home and host country is low and the institutional uncertainty in the host country are low, then a university can simply transfer the same structures and processes and deliver the same programmes of the home institution to the host country. This is the situation facing American higher education institutions that have branch campuses in Western Europe. If the institutional differences between a home and host country are high but the institutional uncertainty in the host country is low, then the university can still establish an international branch campus in the host country, but it will have to adapt its structures and processes to respond to the local context. For some countries, the institutional difference might seem low but the institutional uncertainty in

the host country is high because the institutions in the host country are less developed or evolving rapidly. A university can then minimise the risk by seeking a local partner that has a better understanding of the local environment. In doing so, the university can gain the legitimacy to operate in the host country. If the institutional differences between a home and host country are high and the institutional uncertainty in the host country is also high, then a university would experience high levels of risk and uncertainty when operating in a host country. The effort required might not be worth the potential reward and universities should avoid such countries.

Institutional difference in host country	Institutional uncertainty in host country: Low	Institutional uncertainty in host country: High
High	**Adapt** Moderate risk, complexity, effort Establish international branch campus but adapt structures and processes to suit institutional context in host country	**Avoid** High risk, complexity, effort Do not establish international branch campus in this host country - the risks are too high
Low	**Transfer** Low risk, complexity, effort Establish international branch campus using the same structures and processes used at the home campus	**Hedge** Moderate risk, complexity, effort Establish international branch campus but a joint venture with a local partner or obtain funding and assurances from host country government

Figure 2.1 Transnational strategies for a university based on institutional difference and institutional uncertainty

Note: Adapted from Wilkins & Huisman (2012)

In the end of their article, Wilkins and Huisman (2012) point out that higher education institutions can still make different decisions and engage in different behaviors when facing common institutional pressures and this is probably caused by the human agency of leaders in the institution and individual/organisational attitudes to risk. For example, unlike other major

American universities that considered establishing international branch campuses in Asia but finally failed to do so, New York University took a different approach, setting up its first branch campus in Abu Dhabi in 2010 due to its president's personal ambition and vision to transform New York University into a global university (Krieger, 2008). Thus, it can be concluded that the strategic decision-making of an international branch campus establishment is influenced by a powerful leader.

Ammann (2014) explores the institutional complexity in the organisational field of international branch campuses. Through multiple research methods including observation, interview, and document analysis, Ammann identifies six competing institutional logics faced by the international branch campuses established in Singapore: creating new revenue streams; assuring resources for a university; building in emerging economies; increasing teaching quality of the home institution; proliferating their reach and prestige; and spreading liberal arts education all over the world. These findings are of great value since they not only help to understand decision makers' considerations in establishing international branch campuses in Singapore, but also provide a good starting point for analysing the strategies that international branch campuses use to respond to the host countries.

Wilkins (2016) proposes a framework for evaluating the opportunities and risks to establish international branch campuses with the aim to provide higher education managers with an analytical tool to refer to when contemplating establishing an international branch campus. In this study, institutional theory was used to analyse the environmental factors that are taken into consideration. More specifically, based on Scott's (1995) three pillars for analysing institutional influence, Wilkins (2016) examines the major environmental factors that might impact international branch campuses' performance. Through a rigorous review of the existing literature

and other secondary sources demonstrating the reasons for the failure of individual campus, Wilkins (2016) points out that the environmental factors include host government policies and regulations; the business environment, for example, the levels of bureaucracy and the need for social networking; changes in the macroeconomic environment; social norms, values, and cultures; the attitudes of key stakeholders in home countries to specific foreign countries; and social, political, and natural uncertainties. The evaluation framework consisting of the above-mentioned environmental factors together with other industry and organisational factors would enable higher education managers to determine the optimal entry mode in any market.

Adopting both Scott's (1995) three pillars for analysing institutional influence and Wilkins and Huisman's (2012) framework for analysing institutional influences on international branch campuses as theoretical frameworks, He and Wilkins (2018) investigate the institutional influences of three Southeast Asian countries on three international branch campuses that are operated by Chinese universities. The two researchers summarise their findings in a repertory grid (see Table 2.1) and further identify the responses of these branch campuses to the different institutional influences respectively. Based on Suchman's (1995) three clusters of legitimacy building strategies[7], He and Wilkins (2018) indicate that the combined conditions of the dependence level on local resources and the institutional influences' strength in constraining international branch campuses lead to their different legitimacy building strategies. In the case of Xiamen University Malaysia campus which relies highly on local resources and experiences strong institutional influences in the host country, it must conform to the host country's institutional environment to

[7] Suchman (1995) proposed three clusters of legitimacy building strategies: (a) efforts to conform to the dictates of preexisting audience within the organisation's current environment, (b) efforts to select among multiple environments in pursuit of an audience that will support current practices, and (c) efforts to manipulate environmental structure by creating new audiences and new legitimating beliefs. By legitimating beliefs, he refers to beliefs that have been sanctioned by authorities such as the society, religion, or state.

build legitimacy. Bangkok Business School, as an international branch campus that depends highly on local resources but only experiences weak institutional influences in the host country, can select from multiple environments favoring their practices. This strategy is also applicable to the situation where an international branch campus does not highly depend on local resources but experiences strong institutional influences in the host country. When it comes to Soochow University in Laos, since it does not highly depend on local resources and experiences weak institutional forces, it is able to manipulate the environmental structure by creating new legitimating beliefs.

Table 2.1 Repertory grid for the presence or absence of the institutional influences on the three international branch campuses

	Soochow University in Laos	Bangkok Business School	Xiamen University Malaysia campus
Funding	−	−	+
Regulatory forces in host country	+	+	+
Regulatory inhibitor	−	−	−
Culture and business practices	−	+	+
Institutional autonomy in relation to the state	−	−	+
Influence of globalisation	+	+	+
Marketisation of higher education	−	−	−
Prevalent language of instruction at other IBCs is the local language	+	−	−
Taken-for-grantedness of the quality of education	+	+	+

Note: IBC=international branch campuses

The Applicability of Institutional Theory in this Study

The above description shows that institutional theory was an appropriate theoretical framework for this study as it not only provides the rationale for international branch campuses to understand the issue of global integration and local responsiveness, but also offers the analytical units to

identify the impact of home and host countries on international branch campuses. However, institutional theory alone is not sufficient to explain the divergent organisational behaviors. Scott (2008) suggests that it is beneficial to look at multiple levels in a given study in order to enrich the understanding of institutional analysis. Therefore, I also examined the global integration and local responsiveness paradigm to explain how international branch campuses balance global integration and local responsiveness and to explore why international branch campuses respond to the dual institutional pressures differently at the micro level.

The Global Integration and Local Responsiveness Paradigm

The global integration and local responsiveness paradigm has been well accepted in the study of international business and was recently reconceptualised in the context of international branch campuses (Shams & Huisman, 2012; Healey, 2018). Although business and education face different environments, the commonality is the international aspect. In this section, I first present the emergence and evolution of the global integration and local responsiveness paradigm and then describe its application in international branch campus research. Finally, I justify its applicability in this study.

A Brief Introduction of the Global Integration and Local Responsiveness Paradigm

With the rapid expansion of multinational corporations worldwide in the 1970s, researchers noticed the complexity of the institutional environment in which multinational corporations existed and identified two basic but often conflicting organisational forces: global integration and local responsiveness (Bartlett, 1986). Global integration requires multinational corporations to deliver standardised products/services at subsidiaries across the world, while local responsiveness pushes multinational corporations to tailor their products/services to the context of different countries where the subsidiaries are located. In order to deal with this dilemma, researchers suggest

multinational corporations make a trade-off between the two ends of global integration and local responsiveness rather than pursue both extremes of the dichotomy (Bartlett, 1986; Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1987, 1989; Doz & Prahalad, 1984; Prahalad & Doz, 1987; Roth & Morrison, 1990; Taggart, 1997).

This suggestion results from a careful consideration of the benefits and risks brought by the two extremes of global integration and local responsiveness. On the one hand, the strategy of global integration can not only reduce the costs of multinational corporations' activities through economies of scale, but also improve the quality of products/services. It is easy to understand that multinational corporations can achieve better outcomes by committing themselves to improving the fewer number of products rather than investing much to many different models. In addition, the global integration strategy can also enhance customer preference, and thus increase competitive leverage (Yip, 1989). On the other hand, the drawbacks of global integration strategy cannot be neglected. First of all, it can incur significant management costs through increased coordination, reporting requirements, and added staff. Secondly, it can reduce multinational corporation subsidiaries' effectiveness in each of the host countries when the over centralisation hurts local motivation. Thirdly, it may result in product standardisation that does not fully satisfy any customers (Yip, 1989). Fourthly, the multinational corporations have negative impacts on local enterprises and products. Furthermore, the benefits of local responsiveness are also tempting. It has been confirmed that responding to the local context makes multinational corporation subsidiaries leverage a number of location advantages such as the tangible and intangible resources provided by host countries (Meyer, Mudambi, & Narula, 2011). To sum up, the flexibility to respond to the local context while maintaining a certain degree of global integration enables

multinational corporations to benefit from both local-specific advantages and competitive advantages and is thus valued by multinational corporations (Luo, 2001).

Based on this trade-off, some researchers further point out that the degree of global integration and local responsiveness that a subsidiary of multinational enterprises chooses depends on the internal dynamics within the organisation and a series of external environmental and industrial structural factors (Luo, 2001). In terms of the internal factors, Martinez and Jarillo (1991) assert that the level of global integration is correlated with the degree of coordinative activity within a multinational corporation; Luo (2001) argues that a multinational corporation subsidiary's local market orientation, and the strength of its established network with the business and governmental agencies in the host country propel local responsiveness. With regard to environmental factors, environmental complexity, and business practice peculiarity within a host country are found to promote local responsiveness while cultural distance between home and host countries is negatively associated with local responsiveness (Luo, 2001). Among the industrial factors, while competition intensity, and market demand heterogeneity are important forces promoting local responsiveness (Luo, 2001), economies of scale and differences in comparative advantages have a great influence on global integration (Birkinshaw, Morrison, & Hulland, 1995).

The Reconceptualisation and Application of the Global Integration and Local Responsiveness Paradigm in International Branch Campus Research

Inspired by the global integration and local responsive paradigm in the field of international business, Shams and Huisman (2012) find that this paradigm is also applicable to international branch campuses, given the fact that branch campuses are confronted with similar challenges as multinational enterprises. Based on a systematic review of the managerial challenges faced by international branch campuses, Shams and Huisman (2012) identify staffing, curriculum, and

research as three key areas for which international branch campuses must take a stance between global integration and local responsiveness. In order to help readers better understand their research results, Shams and Huisman (2012) depict the global integration and local responsiveness paradigm for international branch campuses in the form of a diagram. As shown in Figure 2.2, the three axes represent the three areas of curriculum, research, and staffing respectively. The zero point in the connection of the three axes represents the highest degree of global integration, indicating that one international branch campus is a complete "copy" of its home institution. Inversely, the arrowhead of each axis represents the highest degree of local responsiveness. Therefore, the orientation of an international branch campus in relation to the global integration and local responsive paradigm can be reflected by the three points on the three axes. For example, the ABC triangle in Figure 2.2 represents an international branch campus that has employed more local academic staff than others and simultaneously has greatly localised the teaching contents. However, in terms of research, the branch campus has not concentrated on the locally related issues very much. The PQR triangle demonstrates a branch campus with high degrees of research and staffing while its curriculum has been standardised to that of the home institution to a great extent. Note that the authors neglected to incorporate aspects of higher education that do not fall into the three categories such as community outreach or faculty automony.

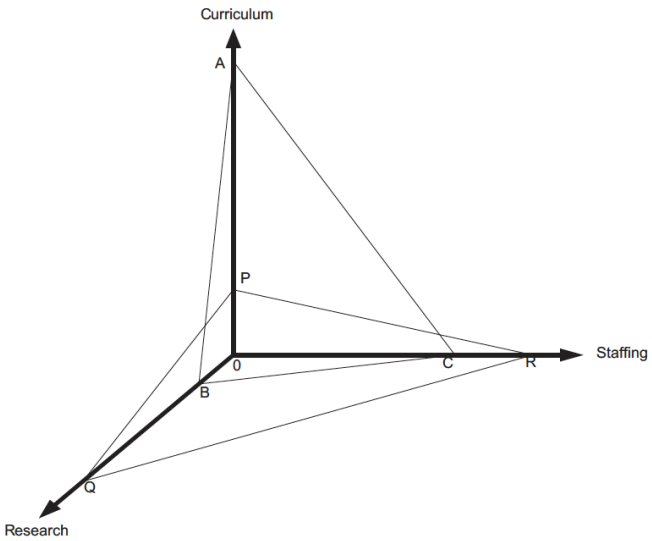

Figure 2.2 The global integration versus local responsiveness dichotomy for three areas: Research, staffing, and curriculum

Note: The figure was adapted from Shams and Huisman (2012)

Using Bartlett and Ghoshal's global integration and local responsive paradigm, Silver (2015) examines the practices of an international branch campus that has been thriving in Japan for over two decades to determine how this paradigm and other related factors may help explain the international branch campus' sustainability. Based on the data collected from interviews, documentation, and observation, Silver (2015) builds a model describing the influence of the global integration and local responsive paradigm on the sustainability of international branch campuses. As shown in Figure 2.3, the model comprises four dimensions: faculty, partnership, recognition, and positioning/marketing. Having a closer look at the figure, I found that each of the four dimensions includes multiple items that influence sustainability. Some of these items are global integration and local responsiveness strategies while others are legitimising factors. Taking the faculty dimension as an example, enabling home institutions to define the faculty hiring criteria for international branch campuses is a global integrative strategy that contributes to sustainability while hiring faculty who meet the home campus criteria and live locally fit both global integrative

and local responsive strategies. This model extends the global integration and local responsiveness paradigm by incorporating multiple items exogenous and endogenous to the framework and contributes to the existing literature by adding more components promoting international branch campuses' sustainability.

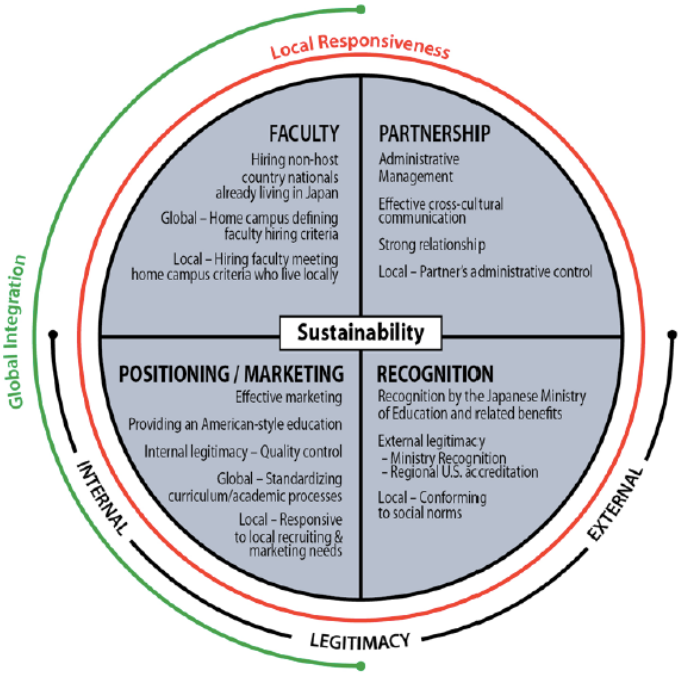

Figure 2.3. The influence of the global integration and local responsiveness framework on the four dimensions of international branch campuses' sustainability

Note: The figure was adapted from Silver (2015)

In order to identify the factors affecting international branch campuses' standpoints on standardisation and localisation as well as the strategies they used to respond to these factors, Shams and Huisman (2016) conducted a qualitative study through semi-structured interviews with 10 senior managers working at international branch campuses located in Malaysia and Singapore. Using the global integration and local responsiveness paradigm as a theoretical framework, Shams and Huisman (2016) outline the impact of dual institutional pressures from both home and host countries on international branch campuses' stance on standardisation and localisation. Shams and

Huisman (2016) find that among the three elements of institutional pressure, the normative and the cultural-cognitive pillars have greater influence on international branch campuses' choice in the standardisation and localisation dichotomy while the influence of the regulative pillar is rather limited. The normative pillar here includes the traditional norms and routines to which local students are accustomed in host countries as well as the foundational teaching beliefs and attitudes that local academic staff possess. The cultural-cognitive pillar specifically involves a set of cultural peculiarities in host countries such as freedom of speech on political and religion-related topics. And the regulative pillar mainly refers to the general trade rules and higher education quality assurance frameworks imposed by host countries. As a result, the international branch campuses that Shams and Huisman studied maintain a high level of similarity with their home institutions in terms of curriculum but not so much in staffing.

Later on, Healey (2018) optimised the global integration and local responsiveness paradigm that was reconceptualised from the field of international business to the context of international branch campuses. Healey (2018) extended Shams and Huisman's (2012) work by identifying that an international branch campus' stance on the three areas of staffing, curriculum, and research results from the power interaction between the international branch campus and its various stakeholders. After examining the perceptions of managers of 14 international branch campuses about the objectives and relative power of the key stakeholders that impacted their decision making, Healey (2018) concludes that the home university, joint venture partner, students, host country, and competitors are the most important stakeholders for international branch campuses. Although they may have different and sometimes conflicting objectives, their potential impact must be taken into consideration when international branch campus managers determine the degree to which the curriculum, research and staffing should be localised or globalised. As

shown in the outer ring of Figure 2.4, these five stakeholders are grouped into two clusters (internal or external) in the periphery of the global integration and local responsiveness paradigm, pushing or pulling international branch campuses towards either end of the three axes.

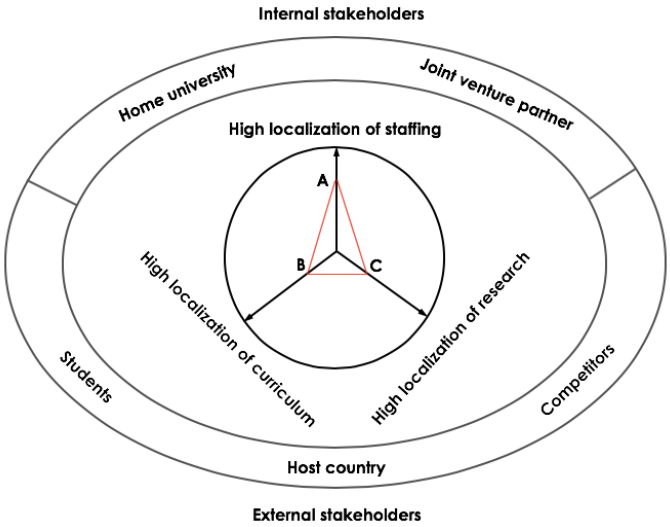

Figure 2.4. The global integration and local responsiveness paradigm and international branch campuses

Note: The central part (the three arrows) of the figure was adapted from Shams and Huisman (2012) and the outer stakeholder ring was introduced by Healey (2018)

The Applicability of the Global Integration and Local Responsiveness Paradigm in this Study

From the above description, it can be found that Healey's (2018) optimal global integration and local responsiveness paradigm not only identifies the key areas that international branch campuses should focus on to deal with the issue of global integration and local responsiveness, but also provides the push and pull factors that influence the international branch campus's management practices in balancing global integration and local responsiveness. Therefore, the global integration and local responsiveness paradigm is very appropriate to be used as the theoretical framework for this study, complementing the institutional theory at the macro level.

Neocolonialism

Based on the data collected by the Cross-Border Education Research Team (2020), the majority of the 305 international branch campuses in operation are established by developed countries in developing countries. This is also the case for the six international branch campuses established by Canadian postsecondary education institutions, either wholly owned by these institutions or jointly developed with a local partner in the host countries. These six branch campuses are: Ivey Asia, the McGill MBA Japan Program, College of the North Atlantic-Qatar, University of Calgary in Qatar, Shanghai-Vancouver Film School, Algonquin College-Kuwait, and University of Prince Edward Island's Cairo Campus. Analysing the flow direction of these international branch campuses, I found that all of them are imported from Canada, a Western country, to Eastern countries. While admitting that such flow direction promotes the education capacity building in the host countries, managers of international branch campuses should keep in mind the probability that the home institutions may impose their cultures, values, and management practices on the international branch campuses, either consciously or unconsciously.

A Brief Introduction of Neocolonialism

Since the end of World War II, neocolonialism has been developed to describe Western countries' new forms of control towards other countries, especially the former colonised countries (Alzubairi, 2019). Different from colonialism that refers to the direct military and political occupation, neocolonialism emphasises the use of economic, political, cultural, or other pressures to spread global powers' hegemony to the other parts of the world. According to Prasad (2003), neocolonialism is the continuation of colonialism, creating dominance in the West/East power relationship. Coloniality may go beyond divisions such as the East and the West or unequal power dynamics that divide the Global North and the Global South. From the neocolonialism lens,

societies in the East are inferior, passive, and uncivilised, while the West is superior, active, and civilised (Said, 1978). It is the depiction of non-Western cultures as exotic and primitive. So, the West positions itself as the saviour of the East and the East has to depend on the West to become "developed" and civilised (McKenna, 2011). In the field of education, neocolonialism leads to an apparent unquestioning superiority of Western knowledge and leads to the Eastern countries' embracing of Western education, knowledge and technology (coloniality).

Among the numerous key concepts in neocolonial studies, mimicry and resistance are Eastern countries' representative reactions to Western countries' influences (Ashcroft, Griffiths, & Tiffin, 2000). According to the neocolonial discourse, in order to become modernised, Eastern countries mimic Western countries by adopting their beliefs, values, habitus, and institutions and thus reproduce the existing power relations and social hierarchies. In this case, Western countries can successfully transfer their dominant value and knowledge into Eastern countries and will be able to control the latter. Neocolonial politics is complex and largely indirect and hidden. However, Bhabha (1994) argues in his seminal work *The Location of Culture* that the colonised subject is reproduced as "almost the same, but not quite" (p. 122) the same as the coloniser since they sometimes negotiate their own rules and resist Western hegemony. In this sense, mimicry itself represents "an ironic compromise" (Bhabha, 1994, p. 122) and "a form of resistance" (Siltaoja, Juusola, & Kivijarvi, 2019, p. 79) that frustrates the coloniser's ability to fully control the colonised. The inherent ambivalence of mimicry enables the colonised to reconstruct their identities and to deconstruct the existing power relations, creating a "third space" that lies beyond the binary oppositions (Loomba, 1998; Bhabha, 1994). Here, the notion of third space refers to a hybrid space mixing cultures of the coloniser and the colonised. It is not the sum of the two cultures, but a new creation emerging from the transformation of them (Bolatagici, 2004).

The Application of Neocolonialism in International Branch Campus Research

Neocolonialism was not a common topic in studies on international branch campuses until recently. A 2019 article that applied mimicry to explore how faculty members working at international branch campuses identify with or resist the "world-class" fantasy is influential (Siltaoja, Juusola, & Kivijarvi, 2019). According to documentary analysis and semi-structured interviews with 26 expatriates in the United Arab Emirates, Siltaoja, Juusola, and Kivijarvi (2019) found that ambivalence[8] exists in the reproduction and deconstruction of the neocolonial relations between the home institutions and branch campuses. On the one hand, international branch campuses tend to use the rhetoric such as "world class", "international", "multicultural" to construct themselves as something superior and hereby to build their prestige. On the other hand, faculty members recruited from the West[9] tend to resist some practices of mimicry, claiming that the fantasies collide with the local norms in the host country. As a consequence, the "world class" fantasy is empty in reality and becomes an approach to maintain the neocolonial relations between different cultures.

Xu (2021) examined the neocolonial practices at international branch campuses in China through the framework of mimicry and resistance. Based on a case study of the University of Nottingham Ningbo China, he reveals that by introducing world-class higher education and Western trained academics to the Global South, international branch campuses risks reproducing coloniality in importing countries and reinforcing Western supremacy in the global context. To decentralise the coloniality and reduce the harm of neocolonial practices, Xu (2021) encourages

[8] In neocolonial studies, ambivalence refers to the complex mix of attraction and repulsion that characterises the relationship between the coloniser and colonised (Ashcroft, Griffiths, & Tiffin, 2000).
[9] It is complex to identify faculty members from the West, because many of them are educated and work in the West but originated in non-Western countries.

importing countries to promote their own epistemologies and integrate their Indigenous knowledge into international branch campuses' teaching and learning.

The Applicability of Neocolonialism in this Study

At the present time, Eastern countries are enthusiastic about inviting foreign universities to establish international branch campuses within their territories with the aim to modernise and internationalise their higher education systems (Hou, Hill, Chen, & Tsai, 2018). This invariably brings the danger of neocolonialism. Conversely, Western countries encourage their colleges and universities to expand overseas to generate financial revenue and thereby maintain cultural influence (Wilkins & Juusola, 2018). Established international branch campuses in Eastern countries offer similar programmes and courses to their home institutions and capitalise on their home institutions' prestige to recruit students. In most cases, international branch campuses are regarded as superior to the domestic education institutions in their importing countries (Lane, 2011b). However, international branch campuses' operational contexts in their host countries are notably different from those of their base in the home countries and consequently, international branch campuses must negotiate with the local context in their educational practices. Given the complex situations international branch campuses face, they provide a suitable space for examining neocolonialism related topics such as mimicry and resistance.

Constructing A Comprehensive Theoretical Framework

The above analysis illustrates the relevance of institutional theory, the global integration and local responsiveness paradigm, and neocolonialism to this study. By incorporating them together, I construct a comprehensive theoretical framework to show how the three theories complement each other, although there are tensions among the three perspectives, such as cultural conflicts.

As shown in Figure 2.5, the comprehensive theoretical framework consists of three layers. The top layer is comprised of the institutional influences from both home and host countries at the macro level. While the institutional influences from the home country require international branch campuses to comply with the values, norms, and practices diffused from the home institution, the institutional influences from the host country demand them to conform to the local institutions. Adopting Scott's (1995) categorisation of institutional influence, I divided the home and host countries' institutional influences into three analytical units: regulative, normative, and cultural-cognitive pillars. The three pillars impact an international branch campus' choice toward global integration and local responsiveness.

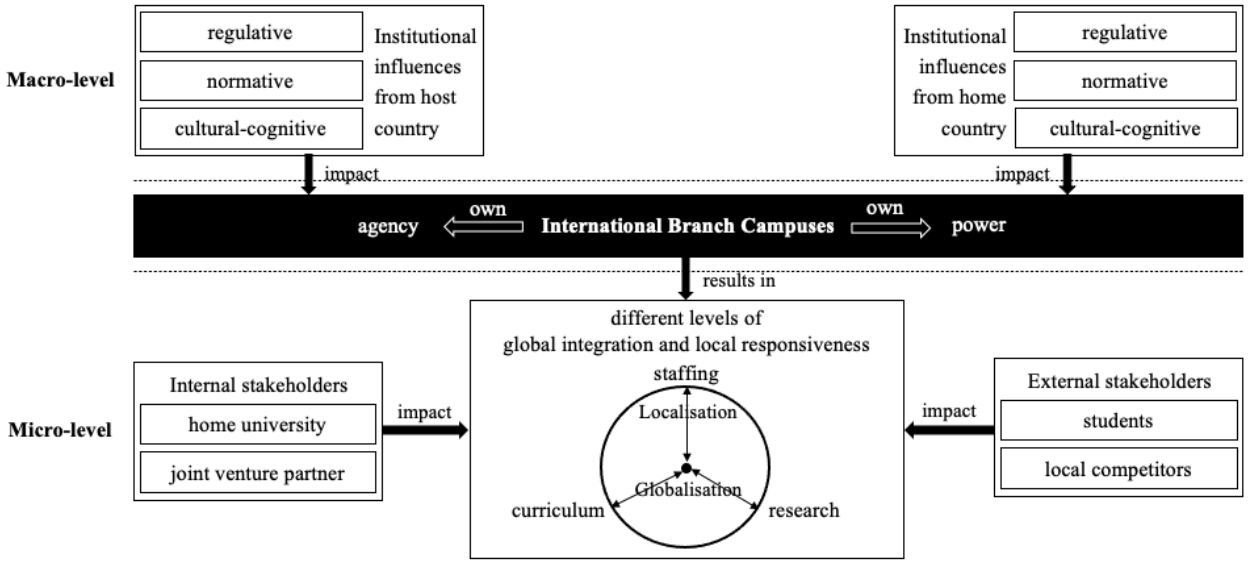

Figure 2.5 The theoretical framework for this study on the global integration and local responsiveness in managing international branch campuses

The intermediate layer represents the international branch campuses to be investigated. As the contact zone where the home country and host country meet, international branch campus creates a third space to deconstruct the power relations between the East and the West. By analysing the neocolonial practices at international branch campuses, I can explore how the

international branch campuses mimic the beliefs, values, and practices of their home institutions as well as how international branch campuses resist their home institutions' hegemony.

The lower layer of the framework comprises international branch campuses' strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness as well as the push-pull factors such as home university, students, joint venture partner, and local competitors influencing their strategies at the micro level. Staffing, curriculum, and research are the three key areas on which the international branch campuses must take a stance between global integration and local responsiveness. Besides the institutional influences at the macro level, the micro-level factors such as home university, joint venture partnership, students, and local competitors can also help understand international branch campuses' strategic choices between global integration and local responsiveness.

This chapter describes the theoretical framework of this study, comprising of institutional theory, the global integration and local responsiveness paradigm, and neocolonialism. I introduce each of the three theories by presenting their historical development, their application in international branch campus research, and their applicability to this study. Finally, I construct a comprehensive theoretical framework by incorporating the three theories with the aim to adopt it to guide the empirical investigation.

Chapter Three: Research Methodology

To adequately address the research questions, I located this study within the interpretivist research paradigm and adopted case study as the research methodology. To capture the diversity of Canadian international branch campuses' strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness, I chose to conduct a multiple case study. Specifically, I obtained the permission to study the McGill MBA Japan Program, Shanghai Vancouver Film School, and Algonquin College-Kuwait. For each case, the data was collected through interviews and documents, and was analysed through a thematic analysis approach. This chapter ends with a description of how the trustworthiness was ensured and how my position and identity impacted the research process.

Research Paradigm

The research paradigm represents a set of fundamental beliefs and values about the reality that inform researchers' understanding of knowledge, research, and the way to collect research data (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). Among the four major research paradigms - positivist, postpositivist, interpretivist, and critical theory, interpretivist paradigm - was used to guide this study.

An interpretivist paradigm claims that reality is seen from multiple points of view, and it is socially constructed (Mack, 2010). Different individuals have different interpretations about a given phenomenon. The goal of interpretive researchers is not to discover context and value free knowledge about the reality, but to understand participants' interpretations about the social phenomenon that they are interacting with (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007; Thanh & Thanh, 2015). To achieve this goal, the interpretivist paradigm employs qualitative research methodology such as case study, narrative inquiry, ethnography, and phenomenology, and research methods including interviews, observations, fieldnotes, and other documents to collect data (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017; Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). Data collected by interpretivist studies is mostly verbal

and can be used to generate theories about a social phenomenon, rather than produce results generalisable to other contexts (Mack, 2010).

This study seeks to understand the strategies adopted by Canadian international branch campuses for balancing global integration and local responsiveness, the macro- and micro-level factors impacting their strategies as well as the neocolonial practices during the global integration and local responsiveness process. In this study, international branch campuses' global integration and local responsiveness is a socially constructed phenomenon and different individuals have different interpretations about it. As the researcher, my task is to explore the participants' subjective interpretations about the phenomenon under investigation. To effectively address the research questions, I employed case study as the research methodology and adopted interviews and document analysis as the research methods.

Research Methodology

After locating my work within an interpretivist paradigm, I started to explore the research methodology that would guide me to gain knowledge about my research questions. The commonly used qualitative research methodologies underpinned by interpretivist ontology and epistemology include narrative inquiry, grounded theory, phenomenology, ethnography, and case study (Levitt, Bamberg, Creswell, Frost, Josselson, & Sua´rez-Orozco, 2018). Among them, the case study was selected as the research methodology due to its advantages in producing an in-depth analysis of "a bounded system", which represents a defined case (Stake, 1995, p. 2).

Case study is an empirical inquiry that is used to "investigate a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context" (Yin, 2014, p. 16). According to Yin (2014), a case study should be considered when: (a) the main research questions are "how" and "why"; (b) a researcher cannot manipulate the behavior of those involved in the study; and (c) the focus of the study is a

contemporary phenomenon in its natural context. It is characterised by a high degree of flexibility. Researchers can conduct different types of case studies according to their research purposes, for example, a single or multiple case study (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Ghosh, 2018; Yin, 2014); exploratory, descriptive, or explanatory study (Yin, 2014); and intrinsic, instrumental, or collective study (Stake, 1995).

Yin (2014) distinguishes a single case study from multiple case studies according to the number of cases in one research project. He points out that a single case study is appropriate when "the case represents (a) a critical test of existing theory, (b) an extreme or unusual circumstance, (c) a common case, or the case serves a (d) revelatory or (e) longitudinal purpose" (p. 56). By contrast, multiple case studies can be used to "(a) predict similar results (a literal replication), or (b) predict contrasting results but for anticipatable reasons (a theoretical replication)" (p. 57). When choices and resources are available, multiple case studies are preferred over a single case study because "the evidence from multiple cases is often considered more compelling, and the overall study is therefore regarded as being more robust" (Yin, 2014, p. 57).

Yin (2014) also separates case study into exploratory, descriptive, and explanatory ones according to their research purposes. Exploratory case study aims to identify the research questions or procedures that will be used in future research; descriptive case study describes a phenomenon and its real-life context; and explanatory case study seeks to explain how or why some events occur or do not occur. Unlike Yin (2014), Stake (1995) groups case study into intrinsic and instrumental ones. In an intrinsic case study, researchers have a genuine interest in the particularity or ordinariness of the case itself. In an instrumental case study, however, researchers aim to understand a particular phenomenon rather than to understand a particular case. That is to say, the case in an instrumental case study is used to facilitate the understanding of the phenomenon. After

deciding upon what type of case study to conduct, researchers are advised to adopt a purposive sampling approach to select their case or cases in order to achieve their research objectives (Creswell, 2013; Meyer, 2001).

In order to reach a holistic understanding of research questions and enhance the credibility of research results, researchers are encouraged to use a variety of research methods to collect data, which include but not limited to documents, archival records, interviews, direct observations, participant-observations, and physical artifacts (Yin, 2014). Among these recommended methods, interviews are recognised as one of the most important sources of case study evidence (Yin, 2014). Participants in interviews are believed to have unique experiences and therefore can tell many different stories (Stake, 1995), through which researchers can gain diverse insights about their research questions. Given the fact that case studies take place in real settings, researchers have the opportunity to conduct direct observations. Direct observations range from formal to casual data collection activities and constitute an important source of evidence for case study research. Unlike direct observations, participant-observations allow researchers to gain access to events or groups that are otherwise inaccessible. However, it should be noted that participant-observations also generate a potential issue for research results as researchers have to observe a reality from an insider's perspective. This may produce biases and threaten the data credibility. Compared to the above-mentioned research methods, archival records and physical artifacts are less frequently used. But once adopted, these two methods become important information sources, particularly when they are used in conjunction with other data collection approaches. In addition, almost every case study finds it necessary to review documents such as newspapers, annual reports, administrative documents, and articles related to the cases being studied. These documents can be used to complement, and cross-validate data gathered from other sources (Stake, 1995; Yin, 2014). In the

end, Yin (2014) asks researchers to bear in mind that data collected from different research methods contribute to the understanding of research questions in different ways. When selecting what research methods to use in their own studies, researchers should make tradeoffs of the advantages and disadvantages of these different methods and consider the amount of time, finance, and other resources needed to complete their studies.

Data analysis is recognised as the most difficult part of case studies (Eisenhardt, 1989). After collecting a large amount of data from various sources, researchers confront a serious challenge of coding and categorising data into interpretations about the cases that can properly answer the research questions. To address this challenge, Yin (2014) proposes four general analytical strategies. The first strategy is to follow the theoretical propositions, based on which the research is designed. By determining the data collection process, theoretical propositions would produce analytical priorities and thus help organize the entire analysis. The second strategy is to analyse the data from the "ground up". When there are no theoretical propositions, researchers are advised to find out the emerging themes and their connections through the inductive strategy of working from the ground up. The third strategy is to organise the case according to a descriptive framework coming from the initial literature review. The framework should consist of existing research gaps or topics that are of great interest to the researchers. The fourth strategy is to examine plausible rival explanations. This strategy is usually used in combination with the previous three strategies. Baxter and Jack (2008) remind researchers to ensure the convergence of data to understand the whole case instead of various parts of the case. This is regardless of which analytical strategy researchers choose to use.

In the reporting stage, researchers' major responsibility is to organise their analysis into a report that can be easily understood by the audience. Yin (2014) suggests researchers take three

steps to complete their case study reports, which involve identifying the target audience, defining the compositional format, and having others review the draft. Yin (2014) further presents that the potential case study audience may include: (a) academic colleagues, (b) non-specialists such as policy makers, practitioners, and community leaders, (c) special groups such as a dissertation committee, and (d) funders of the research. These different audiences have diversified needs. For example, academic colleagues would expect to learn about the links between the case study findings and previous theories or research; non-specialists, who do not have research background knowledge, prefer to know the real-world situations and recommendations for future action; a dissertation committee would like to evaluate the student's mastery of the methodology and relevant theories; research funders, however, care more about the significance of the case study findings. Therefore, researchers have to write in different styles to serve their target audience. With regard to the compositional format, Yin (2014) summarises case study reports into four categories: (a) a classic single case study report that consists of one section describing and analysing a single case; (b) a classic multiple case study report that is comprised of several separate sections presenting individual cases and one additional section covering a cross-case analysis; (c) question-and-answer format for either a single or multiple case study; (d) several sections of cross-case analysis for a multiple case study. After completing the draft of their case study report, researchers are advised to invite peers and participants to review the report. This would help validate the research results and enhance the accuracy of the case study.

Case study was adopted in this study because I aimed to explore how Canadian international branch campuses balance global integration and local responsiveness in their host countries, why they develop such strategies to balance global integration and local responsiveness, and how neocolonialism is practiced at these international branch campuses during the global

integration and local responsiveness process. Moreover, the phenomenon of global integration and local responsiveness takes place in the natural context, and I, as a researcher, could not manipulate the practices of international branch campuses. In this study, I conducted a multiple, explanatory, and instrumental case study with the aim of capturing the variability of international branch campuses' strategies and producing more compelling research results. Since I am not interested in the cases themselves, the cases were used as instruments to understand the above-mentioned how and why research questions.

Table 3.1 The profile of Canadian international branch campuses

Institution Name	Host Country	Founding Year	Focus Area	Educational Level	Affiliation in Canada
Ivey Asia	China (Hong Kong)	1998	Business	Graduate (Master's Degree)	Western University
McGill MBA Japan Program	Japan	1999	Business	Graduate (Master's Degree)	McGill University's Desautels Faculty of Management
College of the North Atlantic-Qatar	Qatar	2002	Business, Information Technology, Engineering, Health Sciences	Undergraduate (Bachelor's Degree); Diploma; Certificate	College of the North Atlantic
University of Calgary in Qatar	Qatar	2007	Nursing	Undergraduate (Bachelor's Degree); Graduate (Master's Degree)	University of Calgary
Shanghai Vancouver Film School	China	2014	Film, Game Design	Diploma	Vancouver Film School
Algonquin College-Kuwait	Kuwait	2015	Business, Computer Science	Diploma	Algonquin College
University of Prince Edward Island's Cairo Campus	Egypt	2020	Business Administration, Engineering, Computer Science, Political Science	Undergraduate (Bachelor's Degree); Graduate (Master's Degree)	University of Prince Edward Island

Data source: The information presented in the table was collected from the Cross-Border Education Research Team and the official websites of these international branch campuses.

According to the data collected by Cross-border Education Research Team (2020), Canadian postsecondary education institutions have established seven international branch campuses worldwide (see Table 3.1). These international branch campuses spread over five countries and focus on diverse areas at various educational levels. Considering the significant time and resources needed to investigate each case, I decided to select three cases to conduct the empirical investigation. After contacting the managers of the seven international branch campuses, I obtained permission to study the McGill MBA Japan Program, Shanghai-Vancouver Film School, and Algonquin College-Kuwait and to use their actual names. In order to obtain a holistic understanding of the research questions and gain high-quality research results, I collected data from two key information sources, interviews and documents, and used thematic analysis to analyse the data collected. The thematic analysis is guided by the theories presented in Chapter Two. The research results are presented by following a classic multiple case study report.

Research Sites

In this section, I introduce the background information about the McGill MBA Japan Program, Shanghai Vancouver Film School, and Algonquin College-Kuwait so that readers will become familiar with the research contexts.

The McGill MBA Japan Program is a professional MBA Program established in 1998 by McGill University's EQUIS-Accredited Desautels Faculty of Management in Tokyo, Japan. McGill University, located in Montreal, Canada, is reported to be one of the top 50 universities in the QS World University Rankings in 2021, and Desautels Faculty of Management is listed in the Financial Times Global Top 100 Business Schools that year (McGill Desautels Faculty of Management, 2021). This indicates that both McGill University and the Desautels Faculty of Management have high quality reputations in the international arena. But unlike many other

international branch campuses that have local partners and receive funding from the host country governments (Farrugia & Lane, 2012), the McGill MBA Japan Program has been wholly owned and operated by the Desautels Faculty of Management despite receiving official recognition from Japan's Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology in 2015 as an international branch campus offering courses of a foreign university in Japan (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, 2015). The McGill MBA Japan Program admits around 30 students every year based on a combination of work experience, academic background, recommendations, GMAT score, extracurricular activities, and an interview (McGill Desautels Faculty of Management, 2016). After two years' study, students can obtain the same qualification as students graduating from McGill University's Desautels Faculty of Management in Montreal (McGill Desautels Faculty of Management, 2016). To prove its highly international character, the McGill MBA Japan Program claims to have trained more than 500 graduates from 20 countries in addition to Japanese students (McGill Desautels Faculty of Management, 2016).

Shanghai Vancouver Film School was established by Vancouver Film School at the invitation of Shanghai University in 2014 to prepare qualified professionals for the rapidly growing entertainment and movie sector in Shanghai, China. The home institution, Vancouver Film School, is an internationally recognised private postsecondary career training institution based in the province of British Columbia, whereas the local partner, Shanghai University, is a public comprehensive university in Shanghai. According to the *Regulations of the People's Republic of China on Chinese-Foreign Cooperation in Running Schools*, Shanghai Vancouver Film School, as an institution offering higher education for non-academic qualifications, is subject to the supervision of the Shanghai Municipal Education Commission, which is the agency of the Shanghai Municipal Government in charge of education. Following Vancouver Film School's

teaching model, Shanghai Vancouver Film School provides one-year intensive programmes in Film Production, 3D Animation & Visual Effect, Sound Design for Visual Media, Makeup Design for Film & Television, Acting for Film & Television, Writing for Film & Television, and Game Design (Shanghai Vancouver Film School, 2021). As of Spring 2021, nearly 600 students, the vast majority of whom are Chinese, have graduated from Shanghai Vancouver Film School.

Algonquin College-Kuwait is a private postsecondary institution established in 2015 by Algonquin College and its local partner, Orient Education Services, to facilitate the expansion of the private education sector in Kuwait. As one of the largest and highest-ranking colleges in the province of Ontario (Algonquin College, 2019), Algonquin College offers curriculum and operational advice to Algonquin College-Kuwait. Similar to Vancouver Film School, Algonquin College was invited by its partner to open a branch campus in Kuwait although the partner is an education and training company. To meet Kuwait's increasing educational and vocational demands in business and information technology, Algonquin College-Kuwait offers two-year diploma programmes in Accounting, Management & Entrepreneurship, Marketing, and Computer Programmer (Algonquin College Kuwait, 2021). During its five years of existence, Algonquin College-Kuwait has cultivated 216 graduates, nearly 20% of whom are non-Kuwaiti students with origins primarily from South Asian and other Middle Eastern countries.

Data Collection

Having identified the McGill MBA Japan Program, Shanghai Vancouver Film School, and Algonquin College-Kuwait as the three cases to study, I employed interviews as the primary research method to collect data. In addition, document review was conducted to complement and validate the data gathered from interviews. The multiple sources of data enabled me to obtain a holistic understanding of research questions and enhance the credibility of research results.

Interviews

Interviews represent an interactive process where a researcher seeks particular information from participants through a series of questions (Adhabi & Anozie, 2017). They are often used when researchers seek to understand participants' experiences, beliefs, and opinions about a particular issue in natural settings (Rowley, 2012). Interviews are usually classified into different types according to different parameters. For example, depending on the number of interviewees in one interview, they can be divided into individual interviews and focus groups (Bolderstone, 2012); in terms of the communication medium, they can be categorised into face-to-face interviews, telephone interviews, and Internet interviews (Bolderstone, 2012); according to the power possessed by interviewers, they can be grouped into structured interviews, semi-structured interviews, and unstructured interviews (Adhabi & Anozie, 2017; Alshenqeeti, 2014).

These different types of interviews have different features and strengths and are therefore suitable for different occasions. More specifically, individual interviews are typically used to collect detailed accounts of the participants' personal thoughts, attitudes, and knowledge of a given phenomenon whereas focus groups aim to gain interactive data resulting from discussions among a number of participants (Lambert & Loiselle, 2008). The latter is believed to increase the depth of inquiry and uncover some aspects that are less accessible through other research methods (Guest, Namey, Taylor, Eley, & McKenna, 2017). Traditionally, face-to-face interviews were the preferred mode of interviews. However, with technological development, the techniques of conducting interviews have been advancing. Nowadays, researchers increasingly use telephone, email, instant messaging, and videoconferencing to conduct interviews (Adhabi & Anozie, 2017). The key feature of structured interviews is that the interviews are organised around a set of predetermined questions and each participant is asked the same set of questions with the same wording and in the

same order (Doody & Noonan, 2013). While enabling participants to easily and efficiently engage in the interview, structured interviews leave little room for unanticipated discoveries (Hofisi, Hofisi, & Mago, 2014). Semi-structured interviews also involve a set of predetermined questions. But different from structured interviews, semi-structured interviews allow interviewers to ask some follow-up questions to elicit further clarifications (Horton, Macve, & Struyven, 2004). In this way interviewers can obtain more information that may not have been considered in the beginning (Doody & Noonan, 2013). By contrast, unstructured interviews do not have well-planned pre-determined questions. Instead, they often start with a broad question concerning the research topic, and the subsequent questions are proposed depending on interviewee's responses. From these descriptions, it can be found that interviews provide researchers with great flexibility to explore research questions under investigation although they are time and resource consuming.

In this study, I selected individual semi-structured interviews as the primary data collection method considering their advantages in data collection, especially during the COVID-19 pandemic when face-to-face contact was severely curtailed. Compared to focus groups, individual interviews enabled me to collect detailed accounts of the participants' personal thoughts, attitudes, and knowledge of the research questions. Semi-structured interviews on the one hand enabled participants to focus on the predetermined questions and on the other hand offered them an opportunity to provide some additional information while clarifying their responses (Horton, Macve, & Struyven, 2004). Due to the geographical distance and the travel constraints caused by the COVID-19 pandemic, I decided to conduct the interviews online via Skype, Zoom or WeChat with participants living in Japan, China, and Kuwait. Only participants who were working or studying in Montreal, Canada were interviewed in person.

Upon receiving the research ethics approval, the renewal of ethics approval from McGill University, and the permission of conducting research at the three selected international branch campuses (see Appendix 1, 2, and 3), I contacted the programme director of the McGill MBA Japan Program, the executive president of Shanghai Vancouver Film School, and the president of Algonquin College-Kuwait to seek their support in participant recruitment. I asked them to send out an email (see Appendix 4) to their senior managers, programme directors/academic coordinators, instructors, students and alumni to invite them to participate in this study. 69 potential participants expressed their interest in being interviewed by responding to the invitation email. After receiving these potential participants' emails, I sent them the participants' consent form (see Appendix 5), outlining the purpose of the study, research involvement, confidentiality, potential risks, and communication of results. Ultimately, a total number of 62 participants (see details in Table 3.2) signed the consent form and were interviewed. The interviews for the case of the McGill MBA Japan Program were conducted in mid 2019 and the interviews for the two cases of Shanghai Vancouver Film School and Algonquin College-Kuwait were conducted in late 2020 and early 2021.

Table 3.2 The number of participants at the three international branch campuses

Position at the IBC	McGill MBA Japan Program	Shanghai Vancouver Film School	Algonquin College-Kuwait
Senior managers	3	4	3
Programme directors/ Academic coordinators	2	4	3
Instructors	5	3	5
Students	5	4	8
Alumni	2	7	3
Government official*	1	0	0
In total	18	22	22

* The government official assisted the McGill MBA Japan Program with applying for the official recognition from Japan's Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology in 2015.

The interview questions (see Appendix 6, 7, 8, and 9) for the case of the McGill MBA Japan Program mainly cover five aspects: (1) the participant's demographic information and work/study experience at the international branch campus; (2) the establishment and development process of the McGill MBA Japan Program; (3) the McGill MBA Japan Program's strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness in staffing and stakeholders' impact on its strategies; (4) the McGill MBA Japan Program's strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness in curriculum and stakeholders' impact on its strategies; and (5) the McGill MBA Japan Program's strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness in research and stakeholders' impact on its strategies. Based on the research results generated from this study, I made some changes to the research questions for the cases of Shanghai Vancouver Film School (see Appendix 10, 11, 12, and 13) and Algonquin College-Kuwait (see Appendix 14, 15, 16, and 17). The interview questions were expanded into seven groups: (1) demographic information and work/study experience at the international branch campus; (2) the establishment and development process of the international branch campus; (3) the international branch campus' strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness in staffing and the macro- and micro-level factors' impact on its strategies; (4) the international branch campus' strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness in curriculum and the macro- and micro-level factors' impact on its strategies; (5) the international branch campus' strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness in research and the macro- and micro-level factors' impact on its strategies; (6) the international branch campus' strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness in student services and the macro- and micro-level factors' impact on its strategies; (7)) the international branch campus' educational practices during the COVID-19 pandemic. Depending on the participants' responses, I asked them some follow-up

questions to elicit further clarifications and provide more information. The interview protocols for senior managers, programme directors/programme coordinators, instructors, students and alumni were slightly different. The interviews were conducted in English or Chinese, depending on the participants' preference. Each of the interviews lasted about one hour. The shortest interview was half an hour, and the longest was three hours. All the interviews were audio recorded. After the interviews were completed, the data was transcribed and coded to generate meaningful themes that respond to research questions.

Documents

In this study, government policy papers, institutional reports and files, media reports, and other public documents related to the McGill MBA Japan Program, Shanghai Vancouver Film School, and Algonquin College-Kuwait were reviewed to provide background information about the establishment and operation of the three international branch campuses, to offer additional insights about the research questions and to triangulate the data collected from the interviews.

Document analysis is a systematic procedure for reviewing or evaluating documents, including both printed and electronic materials such as advertisements, brochures, diaries, journals, newspapers, institutional reports, and various public records (Fischer, 2006). Similar to other qualitative research methods, document analysis is used to elicit meaning, gain understanding, and develop empirical knowledge (Bowen, 2009). Although it can be used as a standalone method (Dalglish, Khalid, & McMahon, 2020), documents analysis is often used in combination with other qualitative research methods such as interviews, observations, and physical artifacts (Denzin, 1970). By examining information collected from different research methods, researchers can seek convergence and divergence of the research results and reduce the impact of potential biases.

Notably, as a research method, document analysis is particularly applicable to qualitative case studies (Bowen, 2009).

According to Bowen (2009), documents can serve different purposes in a study, the first of which is to provide background information about the research context. In addition to providing contextual information, they can indicate some questions that need to be asked in interviews and situations that need to be observed. Documents' third function is to supplement research data collected from other sources. Fourth, documents provide a means of tracking change and development, so that researchers can identify the changes of an organisation or a programme over time. Finally, documents can be analysed to verify findings generated from other data sources. Camic, Rhodes, and Yardley (2003) caution that when adopting the research method of document analysis, researchers should not simply copy words and passages from documents and paste them in their research reports. Instead, they should determine the relevance of documents to the research questions and establish the meanings of the documents. Compared to other qualitative research methods, document analysis is more time and cost effective (Bowen, 2009).

In this study, I collected documents from two sources. The first source is the Internet. Government policies and literatures about establishing and operating international branch campuses in Japan, China, and Kuwait, and Canada's policies of exporting educational services and products were collected to outline the research contexts. The official websites of the three selected international branch campuses were also examined to provide me with hints for designing interview questions and to triangulate the information collected from interviews. The second document source is from the participants. The senior managers of the three international branch campuses provided internal documents such as quality assurance policies to supplement the data collected from interviews.

Data Analysis

After conducting interviews and collecting documents for each case, I adopted a thematic analysis approach to analyse the data. Thematic analysis has been extensively used in qualitative research and has become one of the most used analytic approaches in social sciences (Seal, 2016). It suits any area where qualitative research questions about experience, understanding, human practices and behaviors are proposed (Terry, Hayfield, Clarke, & Braun, 2018). According to Braun and Clarke (2006), thematic analysis is a method for identifying, organising, and reporting patterns of meaning (themes) within data. Rather than simply summarise data content, it is used to identify and interpret key features of data that are relevant to research questions (Clarke & Braun, 2017).

One prominent advantage of thematic analysis that distinguishes it from other qualitative analytic approaches is its flexibility (Braun & Clarke, 2006, 2012; Braun, Clarke, & Weate, 2016; Clarke & Braun, 2017; Terry, Hayfield, Clarke, & Braun, 2018), which provides researchers with a wide range of analytic options and helps researchers generate a high quality of data analysis. This flexibility is manifested in a few ways. Firstly, thematic analysis can be grounded in various ontologies and epistemologies, ranging from realism, (post)positivism, critical theory, and interpretivism (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Braun, Clarke, & Weate, 2016). Secondly, thematic analysis is theoretically independent, which means that it can be used to address a wide range of research questions that stem from or require different theoretical frameworks (Terry, Hayfield, Clarke, & Braun, 2018). Thirdly, thematic analysis is suitable to analyse a variety of data types, from traditional face-to-face collection methods such as interviews and focus groups, to emerging methods such as qualitative surveys, diaries, story completion, and online discussion forums (Clarke & Braun, 2017; Terry, Hayfield, Clarke, & Braun, 2018). Fourthly, in terms of coding, thematic analysis can be used for either inductive (data driven) analysis or deductive (theory driven)

analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Clarke & Braun, 2017; Terry, Hayfield, Clarke, & Braun, 2018). Fifthly, in respect to the meaning generating, thematic analysis captures both semantic (explicit) and latent (underlying) meanings (Clarke & Braun, 2017; Braun, Clarke, & Weate, 2016; Terry, Hayfield, Clarke, & Braun, 2018). Finally, with regard to data reporting, researchers who adopt thematic analysis can choose to present a rich description of the overall data set or a more detailed and nuanced account of some aspects of the data. The flexibility of thematic analysis, along with its accessibility, makes it a robust method for novice researchers like me.

In addition to illustrating the flexibility of thematic analysis, many researchers (e.g., Berg, 2001; Braun & Clarke, 2006; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Saldaña, 2013) outline the procedures of conducting thematic analysis, among which Braun and Clarke's (2006) six-phase guide is most famous. Braun and Clarke's six-phase guide indicates that thematic analysis starts when researchers begin to look for patterns of meaning in the data and ends with the reporting of the patterns of meaning. It is noteworthy that thematic analysis is not a linear process where researchers move from one phase to the next. Instead, researchers have to move back and forth between the entire data set throughout the data analysis process. Specifically, the first step of Braun and Clarke's six-phase guide is to familiarise the researcher with the data. Familiarisation involves repeated reading of and critical engagement with the data. When the data is verbal, researchers should transcribe it into written words. While reading the written words, researchers can take notes and look for ideas that address their research questions. In the second phase of generating initial codes, researchers' main task is to identify codes. Codes here refer to the most basic data segments that are relevant to research questions (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Braun, Clarke, & Weate, 2016; Terry, Hayfield, Clarke, & Braun, 2018). The data segment can be coded when it: (a) is repeated in several places in the data, (b) surprises the researcher, (c) is explicitly stated by the participant

that it is very important, (d) has already been reported by other studies, or (e) is relevant to a theory or concept. The second phase ends with a list of different codes and data segments relevant to each code. It should be noted that codes are different from themes that are broader and are analysed in the next step. In the third phase, researchers' role is to group the codes identified in the second phase into overarching themes based on the codes' similarities and differences. In this phase, visual presentations such as tables and mind-maps can help sort different codes into themes. The fourth phase is to review the candidate themes identified in the third phase. This phase involves two levels of analysis. The first level involves reviewing the coded data segments. Researchers should read all the data segments for each code and theme to ensure that they are relevant to the code and theme and the data segments are coherent in themselves. At the second level, researchers have to make sure that the codes and themes accurately reflect the meanings evident in the whole data set. The fifth phase starts with a satisfactory thematic map of the data. In this phase, researchers will name the themes to determine what each theme is about and what aspect of the data each theme captures. Themes should be made clear and should not overlap with each other. Also, it is important to ensure that the themes fit into the overall story that researchers are telling about the data. In the concluding phase of producing the final report, researchers should, on the one hand, choose interesting data segments to demonstrate the themes, and on the other hand, present critical analysis of the data segments.

Following Braun and Clarke's (2006) guide, I conducted thematic analysis in this study in six steps. In the first step, I identified the codes for the three manuscripts according to the theoretical framework presented in Chapter Two. The first manuscript was guided by Healey's (2018) optimal global integration and local responsiveness paradigm. According to this paradigm, staffing, curriculum, and research, the three important areas that need to deal with global

integration and local responsiveness, were coded as parent nodes[10]. Global integration and local responsiveness were coded as two first-level child nodes under the parent nodes. The international branch campus's strategies and the impact of the home institution, students, host government, and local competitors on the strategies were coded as the second-level child nodes. The second manuscript was guided by the comprehensive theoretical framework constructed at the end of Chapter Two and the research results generated from the first manuscript. The areas that need to deal with global integration and local responsiveness were expanded to staffing, curriculum, research, and student services. These four areas were coded as parent nodes. The two domains, global integration and local responsiveness, were coded as the first-level child nodes under each parent node. International branch campus's strategies, the macro-factors, and the micro-level factors that impact the strategies were coded as second-level child nodes under each first-level child node. The macro-level factors such as the regulative, normative, and cultural-cognitive pillars at home and host countries of the international branch campus and micro-level factors such as home university, joint ventures, students, and local competitors were coded as third-level child nodes. The third manuscript was framed by the neocolonial lens. In this study, the coding scheme was informed by Siltaoja, Juusola, and Kivijarvi's (2019) categorisation of mimicry, which includes cynical mimicry, bounded mimicry, and failed mimicry.

In the second step, I read and reread the interview transcripts and documents to identify themes about international branch campuses' strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness, factors impacting their strategies, and their neocolonial practices. The second step was a cycling process that involved moving back and forth several times with the aim to refine the

[10] A node represents a code or a theme about the data in a qualitative project (Wong, 2008). It is a basic unit of a data structure, such as a tree data structure, in data analytics. A child node is a node extending from another node. The inverse relationship is that of a parent node.

codes. After the codebook was developed, I invited a co-author to complete the third step of coding in NVivo 11.0 or NVivo 12.0. The coding was completed by the two coders separately. We coded the data into appropriate nodes by their relevance to the theme. After all the transcripts were coded, we conducted a coding comparison query in NVivo to assess inter-rater reliability in the fourth step. The co-author and I discussed about the disagreements of the coding until consensus was reached. Then we proceeded to the fifth step by reading all the data segments for each code to ensure that they were relevant to the codes and the codes accurately reflect the meanings evident in the whole dataset. The codes were made clear and did not overlap with each other. In the final step, we selected data segments to demonstrate the themes.

Ensuring Trustworthiness

After the data analysis was completed and the research results were reported, I reflect upon the whole research process to assess the quality of the research findings. In qualitative research, the concept of trustworthiness was developed to describe the quality of a study (Connelly, 2016). Specifically, it is used to signify the degree of researchers' confidence in data collection and interpretation. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), trustworthiness is one way in which researchers persuade themselves and readers that their research findings are worthy of attention.

To evaluate trustworthiness in qualitative research, many scholars have proposed their criteria (Emden, Hancock, Schubert, & Darbyshire, 2001; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Neuendorf, 2002; Polit & Beck, 2012; Schreier, 2012), among which Lincoln and Guba's (1985) four criteria of credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability are most widely accepted (Shenton, 2004). Credibility addresses the fit between participants' responses and researchers' interpretation (Tobin & Begley, 2004). It is established when research findings represent plausible information drawn from participants' responses and the responses are correctly interpreted by researchers

(Graneheim & Lundman, 2004; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Transferability refers to the degree to which the research results can be generalised to other contexts and other participants. Studies suggest that transferability can be achieved when researchers provide sufficient information about themselves and the research context, research processes, participants, and researcher-participant relationships (Morrow, 2005). Dependability is defined as the stability of research findings over time and under different conditions. Therefore, the process through which the research findings are generated should be stated explicitly as much as possible (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Morrow, 2005). Conformability is concerned about the degree to which the research results can be confirmed or repeated by other researchers (Baxter & Eyles, 1997). Researchers need to ensure that their research findings are derived from the participants' responses rather than from researchers' personal perspective on the research (Connelly, 2016; Tobin & Begley, 2004).

It is revealed that to ensure the trustworthiness of qualitative research, numerous techniques such as prolonged engagement, triangulation, peer debriefing, thick description, member checking, stepwise replication, code-recode strategy, and reflexive journals have been proposed to address credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability (Anney, 2014). Prolonged engagement in the research site enables researchers to establish rapport with participants and to collect in-depth information about the research questions under investigation, increasing credibility of a qualitative study. Triangulation, which is widely used to ensure credibility and conformability of qualitative research, involves the use of multiple data resources, research methods, and researchers with the aim to reduce bias inherent in a single data source, research method, or researcher (Long & Johnson, 2000). Peer debriefing allows researchers to discuss their research methodology, data analysis, and data interpretations with peers who are not directly involved in the study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Feedback from peers enhances the quality of the

findings and the credibility of the research. Thick description requires researchers to provide sufficient details about the research processes such as the research context, data collection methods, and data analysis approaches so that readers are able to determine the extent to which the research findings can be transferred to other contexts and participants (Hadi, 2016). Member checking means that researchers send their research findings to participants for them to assess the analysis and interpretations made by researchers and to suggest changes that they feel inappropriate (Anney, 2014). It is regarded as the most important technique to ensure credibility (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007). In stepwise replication, at least two researchers analyse the same data separately and compare their analysis. The inconsistencies among different researchers' analysis need to be addressed to promote the dependability of qualitative research (Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh, & Sorensen, 2010). The code-recode strategy means that the same researcher code the same data twice at different time periods. The coding results also need to be compared to see whether the research results are the same. Reflexive journals document researchers' personal reflections on the data collection and interpretation process. Researchers should assess the impact of their background, perceptions, and interests on the research to establish conformability (Krefting, 1991). According to Creswell (2006), in any qualitative study, at least two strategies should be adopted.

In this study, techniques including triangulation, stepwise replication, thick description, member checking, and peer debriefing were adopted to ensure trustworthiness. Firstly, during the data collection phase, I adopted interviews and documents as the research methods and interviewed different groups of participants in order to triangulate the data collected from different sources and to enhance the credibility of the study. Secondly, during the data analysis phase, I used stepwise replication strategy by inviting a co-author, who is an experienced qualitative researcher, to code

the data independent of me and to discuss the coding differences with him to reach consensus. Thirdly, I used thick description technique when presenting the research methodology and research results to enable readers to evaluate the transferability of this study. Fourthly, I sent the three manuscripts to the programme director of the McGill MBA Japan Program, the executive president of Shanghai Vancouver Film School, and the president of Algonquin College-Kuwait to conduct member checking. Finally, I shared the three manuscripts with my supervisors, committee members, and McGill Peer Writing Group members to seek their feedback and presented the three manuscripts at different international conferences to further enhance their quality.

Positioning Myself in the Research

In social science research, the term positionality refers to the position of the researchers in relation to the social and political context of their studies (Rowe, 2014). It is shaped by the researchers' age, gender, ethnicity, race, social class, nationality, political beliefs, religious faith, personal experiences, and so on (Holmes, 2020; Sikes, 2004). Prior studies (e.g., Olukotun et al., 2021; Rowe, 2014) reveal that the position adopted by researchers affects every stage of the research process, from the way in which research questions are proposed, the research design, to the approaches through which data is collected and analysed, and finally, how the knowledge is constructed and disseminated. Moreover, researchers' positionality is not fixed and does change over time (Rowe, 2014). Hence, it is essential for researchers to be reflexive about their positionality throughout the research process to avoid obvious, conscious, and systematic bias (Holmes, 2020).

In qualitative research, particularly in cross-cultural studies, there has been a key debate about the insider-outsider position, because the position of the researcher as an insider or an outsider provides the researcher with various advantages and has different impacts on the research

process (Weiner-Levy & Queder, 2012). According to Merton (1972), insiders are researchers belonging to the social group under investigation, while outsiders refer to non-member researchers. The advantages of insiders' position include: (a) easier access to the culture being studied; (b) more possibilities to ask meaningful questions; (c) being more trusted by the participants, and (d) being able to better understand participants' responses. Conversely, the outsiders' advantages are: (a) the ability to bring an external perspective to the research process; (b) being able to inspire participants to provide more explanations that may be obvious to insiders, and (c) being able to stimulate participants to disclose more sensitive information. It is notable that the insiders' advantages are the outsiders' weakness and vice versa (Merriam, Johnson-Bailey, Lee, Kee, Ntseane, & Muhamad, 2001).

With regard to how researchers should identify their positionality, Savin-Baden and Major (2013) propose three major ways, which have been widely accepted. The first way is to locate researchers in relation to the subject, i.e., acknowledging the personal positions that may influence the research. The second one is to locate researchers in relation to the participants, i.e., considering how researchers view themselves and how others view them. The third one is to locate researchers in relation to the research context and the research process, i.e., recognising that the research will be influenced by themselves and by the research context. Based on Savin-Baden and Major's (2013) viewpoint, Holmes (2020) adds time as the fourth way for researchers to identify their positionality. He reminds novice researchers that exploring positionality takes considerable time.

In this study, I acknowledge that my identity as a Chinese student pursuing doctoral degree at a renowned Canadian university enabled me to get the research approval from the three international branch campuses being studied, to encourage the participants to share more insights about the research questions, and to better understand the participants' responses. First, although

I was a doctoral student at McGill University while doing the study about the McGill MBA Japan Programme, I was in a different Faculty. My identity helped me gain trust and support from the programme director of the McGill MBA Japan Program, the executive president of Shanghai Vancouver Film School, and the president of Algonquin College-Kuwait. After receiving my request to study their strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness, the senior managers of the three Canadian international branch campuses quickly approved my request, generously offered support in participant recruitment, and shared relevant internal documents for me to review. Although they did not explicitly state why they would like to provide strong support my research, I do believe that they would not do so to researchers from other countries. Moreover, having been educated in Canada for several years, I was aware of the features of its teaching model and its institutional distance from Japan, China, and Kuwait, the host countries of the three selected international branch campuses. Secondly, my identity as a doctoral student allowed me to guide the semi-structured interviews with professionalism and to establish rapport with the participants. During the interviews, I was regarded as an expert by the participants. With such assumption in mind, the participants were very open to talk about their feelings of their programme/institution's practices on global integration and local responsiveness. Consequently, I collected much richer data than expected. Thirdly, my identity as an insider of the Chinese culture and as an outsider of the Japanese culture and the Islamic culture impacted the data collection process. My familiarity with the Chinese culture enabled me to understand the underlying meaning of the participants' responses about the case of Shanghai Vancouver Film School, whereas my unfamiliarity with the Japanese culture and the Islamic culture triggered me to ask many follow-up questions about the cases of the McGill MBA Japan Program and Algonquin College- Kuwait. Recognising my

positionality, I consistently reminded myself to avoid bringing my assumptions and biases into the research process.

Chapter Four: Global Integration and Local Responsiveness in Managing International Branch Campuses: An Empirical Investigation of the McGill MBA Japan Program

Abstract: The study investigates the practices of the McGill MBA Japan Program in dealing with the issue of adapting to the host country while providing education comparable to that of the home institution. Based on semi-structured interviews with academic directors, academic staffs, administrators, students and other stakeholders of the McGill MBA Japan Program, we found that the McGill MBA Japan Program maintained a very high degree of global integration with the home institution regarding staffing and curriculum and like many other international branch campuses, it does not emphasise the importance of localising research in operation. These findings, we argue, result from the interaction between the McGill MBA Japan Program and its external stakeholders including McGill University's Desautels Faculty of Management, students, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology in Japan and local competitors.

Keywords: global integration; local responsiveness; international branch campuses; managerial challenge; the McGill MBA Japan Program; staffing, curriculum and research

Introduction

Over the past several decades, transnational education has gained increasing popularity in the field of higher education as promoted by the trends of globalisation, internationalisation and neoliberalism (Moutsios, 2008; Sidhu, 2007). In order to satisfy the huge and diversified educational demands worldwide, many different types of transnational education activities have been developed such as twinning programs, joint/double/multiple degree programs, international branch campuses, franchise universities, and distance education courses (Knight, 2016). This paper focuses on international branch campuses as they have accounted for most transnational education growth since the turn of the century (Wilkins & Balakrishnan, 2013; Wilkins & Huisman, 2012).

To make our readers have a clear idea of this key concept, we follow Wilkins and Rumbley's (2018) definition that regards international branch campus as an entity that is owned, at least in part, by a specific foreign higher education institution. This foreign institution has some degree of responsibility for the overall strategy and quality assurance of the branch campus. The branch campus should operate under the name of the foreign institution and offer programming and/or credentials that bear the name of the foreign institution. The branch has basic infrastructure, such as a library, an open access computer lab, and dining facilities, and, overall, students at the branch have a similar student experience to students at the home institution.

International branch campuses have experienced a rapid expansion since its first establishment in 1955 (Becker, 2009; Knight, 2008; Lane, 2011). This is especially true after 1995 when the World Trade Organization started to implement the *General Agreement on Trade in Services*, making the international mobility of people, programs and institutions much easier (Escriva-Beltrana, Muñoz-de-Prata, & Villób, 2019). Since the beginning of the 21st century, the number of international branch campuses increased at an unprecedented speed with the economic boom of developing countries, surging from 67 in 2000 to 247 in 2017, with another 22 projects under development (Cross-Border Education Research Team, 2017a). According to the data collected by Cross-Border Education Research Team (2017b), these international branch campuses are overwhelmingly exported by western countries. The largest exporters are the United States (77), the United Kingdom (38), France (28), Russia (21), and Australia (14). By contrast, the largest importers are eastern countries including China (32), the United Arab Emirates (32), Singapore (12), Malaysia (12), and Qatar (11).

However, despite this rapid development, operating branch campuses in foreign countries are quite risky considering the potential financial loss and reputational damage (Healey, 2015).

For example, the University of New South Wales withdrew a branch campus in Singapore due to a lack of student enrollment after opening for just one semester in 2007, creating a loss of US $38 million (Becker, 2009). More seriously, this unsuccessful case has been frequently cited by both scholars and practitioners when offering advice to university leaders who are considering establishing international branch campuses for profit (Ellison, 2017; Shams, 2012; Silver, 2015; Wilkins & Huisman, 2012). Besides this case, another 41 international branch campuses have also been closed since the mid-1990s, leading to an approximately 15 percent failure rate in the industry (Cross-Border Education Research Team, 2017a). While this figure is not very high compared with other international business start-ups, no university would like to see the new operation fail. In this context, how to achieve a successful and sustainable development of international branch campuses in host countries has become a hot research topic.

To date, researchers have examined many managerial challenges encountered by international branch campuses, such as legitimacy building (Farrugia & Lane, 2012; He & Wilkins, 2018; Zhang, 2016), leadership and governance (Borgos, 2016; Healey, 2016; Lane, 2011), human resource management (Cai & Hall, 2016; Neri & Wilkins, 2019; Salt & Wood, 2014; Wilkins, Butt, & Annabi, 2017, 2018; Wilkins & Neri, 2018), student recruitment (Ahmad & Buchanan, 2015; Weinman, 2014) and quality assurance (Hou, Hill, Chen, & Tsai, 2018; Yokoyama, 2011). Yet, one important issue that every international branch campus must cope with has not been sufficiently analysed. That is, how should international branch campuses respond to the host country's regulatory requirements and educational demands (local responsiveness) while maintaining the comparable education quality to confer degrees in the name of the home institution (global integration). Some researchers have noticed this intractable problem and made consistent efforts to address it (Farrugia & Lane, 2012; Franklin & Alzouebi, 2014; Healey, 2018; Miller-

Idriss & Hannauer, 2011; Shams, 2012; Shams & Huisman, 2012, 2016; Silver, 2015), but empirical studies are still very limited. We thereby conducted an in-depth case study of the McGill MBA Japan Program to explore its practices in balancing the tension between global integration and local responsiveness and to examine the pull and push factors influencing its practices. The aim of our study is to provide guidance to other international branch campuses already in operation as well as future ones.

The structure of the paper is as follows. The second section describes the optimal global integration-local responsiveness paradigm as the theoretical framework of this study. It then sets out to the third section about the research method by which the data was collected and analysed. In the following sections, we present and discuss the findings resulting from the thematic analysis of the data. The final section concludes with contributions of this study and suggestions for future studies.

Theoretical Framework

Amongst the approaches used to analyse the management practices of international branch campuses, the theoretical framework of this study is the global integration-local responsiveness paradigm (hereinafter I-R paradigm), which has been well accepted in the field of international business and was recently reconceptualised to be more easily applied to transnational education (Shams & Huisman, 2012, 2016; Healey, 2018). In the 1980s, the I-R paradigm was first proposed for multinational enterprises to deal with the dilemma of delivering standardised products/services at subsidiaries across the world or tailoring their products/services to the context of different countries where the subsidiaries were located. For multinational enterprises, the strategy of global integration can reduce costs, improve the quality of products/services, enhance customer preference, and increase competitive leverage. However, the benefits of local adaptation strategies

are also tempting and cannot be neglected (Yip, 1989). Therefore, researchers suggest multinational enterprises make a trade-off between the two ends of global integration and local responsiveness rather than pursue either extreme of the dichotomy (Bartlett, 1986; Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1987, 1989; Doz & Prahalad, 1984; Prahalad & Doz, 1987; Roth & Morrison, 1990; Taggart, 1997). Based on this trade-off, some researchers further point out that the degree of integration-responsiveness that a subsidiary of multinational enterprises chooses depends on the internal dynamics within the company and the external environmental factors such as competition intensity, business specificity, and cultural distance (Birkinshaw, Morrison, & Hulland, 1995; Luo, 2001; Samiee & Roth, 1992).

Inspired by this viewpoint, Shams and Huisman (2012) find that the I-R paradigm is also applicable to transnational education institutions, including international branch campuses. Indeed, these institutions are confronted with similar challenges as multinational enterprises. Based on a systematic review of the managerial challenges faced by international branch campuses, Shams and Huisman (2012) identify staffing, curriculum, and research as the three key areas for which international branch campuses must take a stance between global integration and local responsiveness and depict the I-R paradigm for international branch campuses in the form of a diagram. As shown at the center of Figure 1, the three arrows represent the curriculum, research and staffing, while their central point of connection represents the highest degree of global integration, indicating that one international branch campus is a complete "copy" of its home institution. Inversely, the head of each arrow represents the highest degree of local responsiveness. Therefore, the orientation of an international branch campus in relation to the I-R paradigm can be reflected by the three points on the three arrows. For example, the red ABC triangle in Figure 1

presents an international branch campus that has employed more local staffs and simultaneously has greatly standardised the teaching contents and research topics with its home institution.

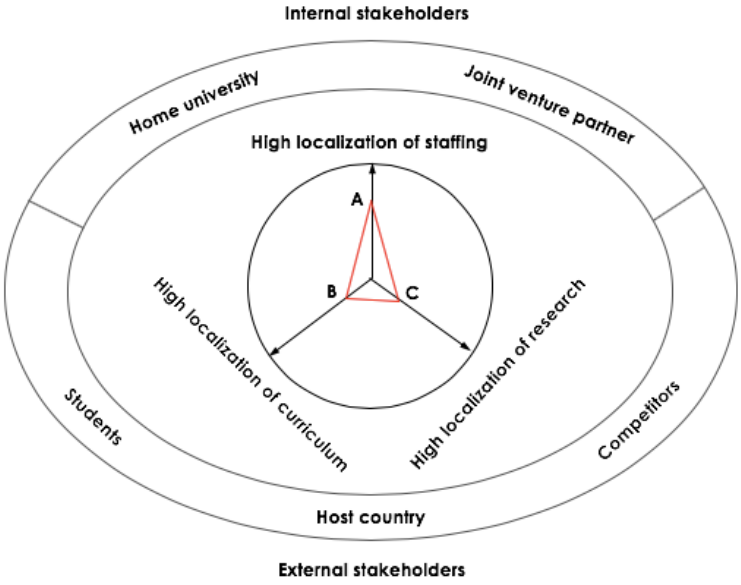

Figure 4.1 The I-R paradigm and international branch campuses

Note: The central part (the three arrows) of the figure was adapted from Shams and Huisman (2012) and the outer stakeholder ring was introduced by Healey (2018)

This paradigm is further optimised by Healey (2018) who proposes to analyse international branch campuses' stance on the three I-R dichotomies as a result of the power interaction between its managers and various stakeholders. After examining the perceptions of international branch campuses managers about the objectives and relative power of the key stakeholders that impacted their decision making, Healey concludes that the home university, joint venture partner, students, host country, and competitors are the most important stakeholders for international branch campuses. Although they may have different and sometimes conflicting objectives, their potential impact must be taken into consideration when international branch campus managers determine the degree to which the curriculum, research and staffing should be localised. As shown in the outer ring of Figure 1, these five stakeholders are grouped into two clusters (internal or external

stakeholders), pushing or pulling international branch campuses towards either ends of the three arrows.

From the above description, we can see that the optimal I-R paradigm is very appropriate to act as the theoretical framework for this study as it not only identifies the key areas that we should focus on, but also enables us to systematically analyse the factors influencing the international branch campus's management practices in balancing the tension between global integration and local responsiveness.

Research Methodology

In this section, we give a brief introduction of McGill MBA Japan Program (hereinafter the MBAJ Program) and the rationales to select it as the case to conduct an in-depth investigation. The procedures of data collection, analysis and validation are presented subsequently.

Case Selection

The MBAJ Program is a professional MBA program established in 1998 by McGill University's EQUIS-Accredited Desautels Faculty of Management (hereinafter Desautels) in Tokyo, Japan. McGill University, located in Montreal, Canada, is reported to be one of the top 50 universities in the QS World University Rankings in 2019, and Desautels is listed in the Financial Times Global Top 100 Business Schools that year (McGill Desautels Faculty of Management, 2019). This indicates that both the McGill University and Desautels have high quality reputations in the international arena. But unlike many other international branch campuses that have local partners and receive funding from the host country governments (Farrugia & Lane, 2012), the MBAJ Program has been wholly owned and operated by Desautels despite of receiving official recognition from Japan's Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology in 2015 as an international branch campus offering courses of a foreign university in Japan (Ministry of

Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, 2015). The MBAJ Program admits around 30 students every year based on a combination of work experience, academic background, recommendations, GMAT score, extracurricular activities and an interview (McGill Desautels Faculty of Management, 2016). After two years' study, students can obtain the same qualification as students graduating from Desautels in Montreal (McGill Desautels Faculty of Management, 2016). To prove its highly international character, the MBAJ Program claims to have trained more than 500 graduates from 20 countries in addition to Japan (McGill Desautels Faculty of Management, 2016).

We have two rationales to select the MBAJ Program as our case. Firstly, compared with many studies about international branch campuses established by American, British and Australian universities, studies examining the operation of international branch campuses run by Canadian universities are quite limited. Thus, this study is an attempt to fill the gap. Secondly, we believe the MBAJ Program, as an early and successful international branch campus, have generated valuable experience worth sharing with the community to guide managers and administrators of other international branch campuses in a different cultural and regulatory environment.

Data Collection

We conducted semi-structured interviews to supplement the online data (such as the official website, brochures and other reports) about the MBAJ Program's practices in balancing the tension between global integration and local responsiveness. There were 18 interviewees in total, including two academic directors, five academic staffs, three administrators, seven students, and one government official working in the Embassy of Canada in Tokyo. Table 4.1 provides a summary of the interviewees from different positions and how we coded them. Their diverse relationships with the MBAJ Program allowed us to gain a broader understanding about the operation of the

program. The interview questions were designed according to the optimal I-R paradigm for international branch campuses, inviting interviewees to share their perceptions about the MBAJ Program's practices towards global integration and local responsiveness in the three areas of staffing, curriculum, and research, as well as the push-pull effect of the key stakeholders on the practices. Examples of the semi-structured interview questions include:

- How many professors are sent from Montreal to teach the MBAJ Program? Why does Desautels send these professors from Montreal to Tokyo in spite of the huge cost?
- How many professors are recruited separately to teach for the MBAJ Program? Why does Desautels recruit these professors in Tokyo to teach for the MBAJ Program?
- What are the similarities between the MBA Program in Tokyo and Montreal in terms of curriculum, teaching and learning? Why do they have these similarities in different contexts?
- What are the differences between the MBA Program in Tokyo and Montreal in terms of curriculum, teaching and learning? Why do they have these differences?
- What is/are Desautels/the MBAJ Program students' expectations regarding academic staffs conducting research activities in Tokyo?
- What other differences do exist between the MBA Program in Tokyo and Montreal?

Besides the questions listed above, the interviewer also asked some follow-up questions wherever appropriate. For example, when interviewees mentioned that they needed to fit the 39 hours teaching over a thirteen-week trimester into two weekends, the interviewer further questioned the strategies they used to engage the students in the classroom. All of the interviews were completed on a one-to-one basis except four in pairs (A1 with D2, and A2 with A3). The

interviews with those working or studying in Montreal were conducted face to face while others were done via Skype. The interviews lasted for about one hour and they were all audio recorded.

Table 4.1 Numbers and coding system of interviewees by position

Position in the McGill MBA Japan Program	Number of interviewees	Coding system
Academic directors	2	D1-D2
Academic staffs	5	F1-F5
Administrators	3	A1-A3
Students and alumnus*	7	S1-S7
Government official**	1	G1
In total	18	

* Among the 7 student and alumni interviewees, there are three Canadian nationals, two Indian, one Chinese and one Japanese.

** The government official assisted the MBAJ Program with applying for the official recognition from Japan's Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology in 2015.

Data Analysis and Validation

After completion, the interviews were transcribed and thematically analysed in the qualitative analysis software N-vivo 11.0. The coding system was developed according to the I-R paradigm with curriculum, staffing and research being coded as parent nodes and global integration, local responsiveness, the push-pull effect of the home institution, students, host government and local competitors coded as child nodes. Interviewee narratives were coded into the nodes by their relevance to the theme. To examine the validity and reliability of the analysis, we triangulated the data from different sources and diverse perspectives to ensure they did not conflict with each other. In addition, we also shared our interpretations with the interviewees, inviting them to clarify or change the data interpretations.

Results

In this section, we describe the analysis of the MBAJ Program's practices in balancing the tension between global integration and local responsiveness in curriculum, staffing, and research. We also analyse the push-pull effect of the home institution, students, host government and local competitors on the MBAJ Program's stance in each of the three areas.

Staffing

According to the interviewees, since 1998 when the MBAJ Program was launched, Desautels in McGill University has been sending academic staffs to teach students in Japan. It is estimated that 13 professors fly to teach the core courses in Year 1 and another 10 professors fly to teach electives in Year 2 (A2). Also, the MBAJ Program has recruited one adjunct professor from another Japanese university to deliver courses and three local administrators to help operate the program. This approach of employing McGill and Japanese professors is codetermined by Desautels, students as well as local competitors of the MBAJ Program.

Among the three stakeholders mentioned above, Desautels is the decision maker with regard to the degree of global integration and local responsiveness of the MBAJ Program in staffing. When the program was established, Desautels decided to adopt fly-in model to ensure the teaching quality of the MBAJ Program. All of the academic directors and academic staffs interviewed in this study affirmed this approach to be reasonable. For example, one interviewee commented,

> My understanding with our MBA Japan Program is that we have to offer in Japan what we offer here in Montreal. Therefore, it has to be McGill professors and McGill courses. You know, if you were to create something new with other professors, that would be something different (F4).

To coordinate the teaching staffs and other resources between the two programs in Montreal and Tokyo, Desautels appoints one academic staff as the academic director of the MBAJ Program. The academic directors, either current or previous, always adhere to Desautels's policy to select tenure track professors from the home institution to teach the MBAJ Program, regardless of the huge cost incurred and the frequent requests from professors in Tokyo to teach the program. From the students' perspective, Desautels's selection policy is exactly what attracts them to apply to the program (The Globe and Mail, 2015). As one student stated,

> This [the MBAJ Program] is a McGill MBA program, so they should use the McGill professors to teach the courses. Otherwise, it will be another program to which I may not apply (S1).

When compared to local competitors such as the MBA programs offered by Globis University, Waseda University, Hitotsubashi Univeristy, and Temple University (Japan Campus), the MBAJ Program has a higher ratio of foreign professors. The program's academic director regards the fly-in model as its unique advantage in the Japanese MBA market. One academic director emphasised that,

> The English programs offered by Japanese universities are not all taught by foreign professors. And when they're foreign professors, they're not full-time academics and researchers. Our professors are tenured McGill professors who are active researchers and are teaching MBA courses in North America. They are different quality professors when they get into the program (D2).

From these quotations, we can infer that the MBAJ Program's commitment to standardise their staff is highly valued by the various stakeholders as an effective approach to maintain its competitiveness in the market.

For the courses that are closely related to Japanese business such as organisational behaviour, and cross-cultural management, the MBAJ Program recruits one adjunct professor from another Japanese university instead of sending professors from the home institution to teach.

> This is because the professor has been teaching in Japan for many years whilst he himself is a westerner. He is familiar with the Japanese entrepreneurs and has strong connections with Japanese companies, making him competent to share insights on the related topics (D1).

In addition to employing one local professor, the MBAJ Program also recruit three administrators to deal with marketing, financial, and other operational issues with the aim to make the program easier to operate in Japan. In summary, the degree of global integration of the MBAJ Program in staffing is rather high although it has localised the staffs to some extent.

Curriculum

The interviewees reported that the MBAJ Program replicates the curriculum offered for the MBA Program at Desautels in almost every aspect, including credit requirements, course arrangements, language of instruction, teaching materials, and assessment methods. This "copy-and-paste" strategy is not only constructed by Desautels but also influenced by the external stakeholders such as students, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology in Japan, and local competitors.

There are four primary rationales for the MBAJ Program to standardise curriculum. First of all, from Desautels's standpoint, since the world-class education it has been delivering is widely recognised around the globe, the curriculum should be transplanted to its branch campus in Japan. More importantly, as the qualifications issued to the MBAJ Program graduates bear the name of McGill University, Desautels has the responsibility to provide a comparable educational experience to students regardless of the campus or program in which they are enrolled (McGill

Desautels Faculty of Management, 2016). In this sense, it is essential for the MBAJ Program to maintain a higher level of global integration in curriculum. Coincidently, these arrangements fulfill the students' expectations before applying to the program. These expectations constitute the second rationale for standardised curriculum. The majority of the interviewees (16 out of 18) expressed that the main reason students apply to the MBAJ Program is,

> They want to receive a real and high quality North American education without quitting their jobs in Japan. They are eager to experience the comparable teaching and learning activities with their counterparts at the home institution (D2).

Therefore, providing a standardised curriculum is indispensable for the MBAJ Program to meet students' demands. Thirdly, Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, the regulatory authority for international branch campuses in Japan, requires the MBAJ Program to deliver equivalent courses to students as a designated location of a foreign university in Japan. It (2004) stipulates that,

> a) the degree awarded at completion of a course at the designated location in Japan is that of the main campus of the foreign university;
>
> b) credits awarded at the designated location in Japan are those of the main campus of the foreign university.

The interviewees confirmed the influence of these policy provisions on the MBAJ Program to achieve a higher level of global integration in curriculum (D1, A3). The final rationale for the MBAJ Program to standardise curriculum is local competitors. One interviewee remarked,

> Some good MBA programs already exist in Japan regardless of being offered by domestic universities or other international branch campuses. But as the only program whose home institution is listed on the Financial Times, the MBAJ Program is believed to be better off when modelling the curriculum offered at the home institution (S2).

However, while the MBAJ Program intends to replicate the curriculum offered for the MBA Program at Desautels, in practice it does not precisely do so. Specifically, the program has been adjusted with regard to scheduling and elective courses. To adapt to Japan's culture that encourages employees to work overtime, the MBAJ Program deliver courses during weekends rather than weekday nights to accommodate students, the majority of whom have full-time jobs. Several interviewees expressed,

> Unlike the MBA Program in the home institution that distributes the courses over the thirteen-week trimester, the MBAJ Program offered intensive courses on weekends, typically two weekends each month, to accommodate the students' busy schedule (D1, D2, F1, F2, F4, F5).

The MBAJ Program also differs from the MBA Program at Desautels by offering fewer elective courses. Consequently, the program is more general than the MBA Program in the home institution where students are allowed to choose a dual specialisation among marketing, finance, business analytics, and global strategy and leadership (McGill Desautels Faculty of Management,2018).

In order to help students achieve comparable learning outcomes as those of their counterparts in Montreal, academic staffs make diverse endeavours to enhance the quality of their teaching such as providing additional online materials (D1, S3, S6, S7), integrating more Japanese business-related case examples (F1, F3, F5, S1, S3, S4, S5), and conducting more experiential learning and interactive activities (F2, F4). Through these efforts, students can get better prepared before entering classroom and become more engaged in teaching activities.

To compensate those who want to select more electives, the MBAJ Program provides four alternative options. First, students may transfer to the home institution in Year 2 to take courses that meet their professional learning objectives (S1, S2). Students may also take courses from a double-degree program organised by School of Management at Zhejiang University in China in

partnership with McGill University's Desautels Faculty of Management. Students at the MBAJ Program can travel to China to take a course they might be interested in (A1). Among the seven student interviewees, three students (S3, S4, S7) went to China to take one elective course and they all found the learning experience amazing. Alternatively, students may have an optional study trip to the neighbouring countries such as Vietnam, Myanmar and India (A1, S2). This enables students to feel and understand the Asian culture and businesses and offers tremendous opportunities for investment, trading and more (McGill Desautels Faculty of Management, 2016). Finally, students may take one elective course after graduation if the course she/he wants is not provided in her/his second year (D2, S2).

From the above analysis, we can conclude that the degree of global integration of the MBAJ Program in curriculum is also high at the same time that it responds to the relevant regulations and educational needs in Japan to a great extent.

Research

Regarding the degree of global integration and local responsiveness in research, the interviewees stated that most of the academic staffs at the MBAJ Program do not conduct research projects while teaching. When professors conduct research activities, attend academic conferences, or give presentations in Japan, their research topics are not locally relevant. Therefore, the degree of local responsiveness of the MBAJ Program in research is rather low. This is probably problematic. As one student remarked,

> One point that is missing out in the MBAJ Program is the connections with the Japanese companies while other Japanese university MBA programs have professors as board members of companies. To have a better understanding of the market, increase the variety of the program and to create a stronger network with Japanese companies, I hope the professors are active and eager in conducting research

activities in Japan. This will also be beneficial for students in finding jobs through professors and lead to career expansion after graduation from the program (S2).

Two factors were found to lead to the MBAJ Program professors' lack of localised research. First of all, as working professionals, students at the MBAJ Program are eager to acquire knowledge and skills transferrable to their management practices. They do not have much interest in research. While admitting professors' activity in localised research might help improve teaching quality, most of the student interviewees do not consider it indispensable. Also, Desautels believes that as a self-financed unit, the MBAJ Program should prioritise teaching to meet students' learning objectives. Hence, it does not provide any special support or incentives for academic staffs to conduct research activities in Japan, despite the fact that some interviewees acknowledged "research is a potential valuable area that we don't explore sufficiently. It would be something to explore and an opportunity for growth" (F5). Considering both students' expectations towards the program and the program's teaching-centred approach, it is understandable that professors of the MBAJ Program do not bother to conduct research projects related to Japanese business.

Discussion

The results show that the MBAJ Program has maintained a high degree of global integration with the home institution in terms of staffing and curriculum and like many other international branch campuses, it does not emphasise the importance of research in operation. These findings result from the interaction between the MBAJ Program and its external stakeholders including McGill University's Desautels Faculty of Management, students, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology in Japan, and local competitors.

First of all, sharing academic staffs with the MBA Program at Desautels is highly valued by students at the MBAJ Program. However, we should be aware that such a high ratio of fly-in academic staffs is very risky, and it sometimes poses challenges to branch campus' institutional

management. The MBAJ Program makes flying professors to Japan possible by charging high tuition fees from students working in business. Since not many institutions have the capacity to afford the huge expenses incurred, such a high ratio of fly-in academic staffs is not very common among other international branch campuses. Thus, this fly-in staffing approach cannot be easily borrowed by other non-business-related international branch campuses.

Secondly, although the MBAJ Program's curriculum does not precisely conform to that of the home institution, the quality of the MBAJ Program remains high. For students, this quality is enhanced by scheduling accommodations and professors' commitment. Students express satisfaction with the weekend course offerings that serve to accommodate their busy schedules. They feel their unique needs are met by professors' efforts to customise their teaching to the Japanese context. Tailoring curriculum to Japanese context also serves to fulfill the MBAJ Program's vision: "to make an impact by connecting MBA candidates and graduates who are familiar with Asia, interested in Japan and globally minded, with industry players who value them" (McGill Desautels Faculty of Management, 2016). In this way, students become more familiar with the Japanese and Asian business environment while acquiring knowledge on international business. Given students' need to know about Japanese business and the MBAJ Program's vision to develop students' context-based knowledge, it is reasonable for the MBAJ Program to localise its curriculum. But to achieve a higher student satisfaction, the MBAJ Program should strive to provide more elective courses. This will give students the opportunity to develop their expertise in diversified specialisations.

Thirdly, while admitting that the majority of international branch campuses, particularly those with a specialised program, are inactive in research (Lane, 2011; Pohl & Lane, 2018), we still advise the MBAJ Program to support the academic staffs to conduct some Japanese business-

related research projects. This will not only deepen the academic staffs' understanding of Japan's local context, but also expand their network with Japanese companies, which will assist to recruit prospective students.

Table 4.2 Summary of the presence or absence of stakeholders on the I-R dichotomy in the case of the McGill MBA Japan Program

Area	I-R dimension	Stakeholders			
		Internal stakeholders	External stakeholders		
		Desautels Faculty of Management	Students	Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology in Japan	Competitors
Staffing	Global Integration	+	+	-	+
	Local Responsiveness	+	-	-	-
Curriculum	Global Integration	+	+	+	+
	Local Responsiveness	-	+	-	-
Research	Global Integration	-	-	-	-
	Local Responsiveness	-	-	-	-

Note: + represents that there is influence of the stakeholder on the I-R dichotomy in that area. Otherwise it's -.

Table 4.2 summarises the links between the presence or absence of the key stakeholders and the MBAJ Program's strategic stance on the I-R dichotomy in the three areas of staffing, curriculum, and research. As presented, except the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology in Japan, all other stakeholders including Desautels, students and local competitors push the program to pursue the end of global integration in staffing while Desautels also promotes some extent of local adaptation. Therefore, as a matter of fact, almost all of the

academic staffs are sent from Desautels on a regular basis to teach the program. When it comes to the curriculum, the picture is mixed. While all of the stakeholders have a strong preference towards standardisation, students also expect the MBAJ Program to integrate some local elements, making them informed of the marketing operations in East Asia where they have been working. Different from staffing and curriculum, the lack of interest from the key stakeholders results in the lack of research tailoring to Japanese business. So how to motivate the academic staffs to localise their research projects in Japan will be another important issue for the MBAJ Program to explore.

Conclusion and Future Directions

This article contributes to the field of international branch campuses both theoretically and practically. On the one hand, to the best of our knowledge, it is the first article applying the optimal I-R paradigm as the theoretical framework to investigate the practices of an international branch campus in balancing the tension between global integration and local responsiveness. The results are conducive to increasing the robustness and applicability of the paradigm. On the other hand, it provides practical guidance for other international branch campuses on how to cope with the managerial issue of standardisation and localisation. The findings suggest managers of international branch campuses consider the degree of adaptation in each area of staffing, curriculum, and research during different stages of development and thoroughly analyse the internal and external stakeholders' impact to figure out where and how to make adaptations. The optimal degree should always be the point where students feel satisfied whereas the home institutions achieve their strategic objectives.

To provide directions for future studies, this paper calls on multiple case studies to better illustrate the complexity of global integration and local responsiveness in managing international branch campuses and increase the generality of the I-R paradigm. Future research should also

explore the possibilities to include student services in the areas to deal with the I-R dichotomy and consider home country as another external stakeholder impacting international branch campuses' stance on the dichotomy. In the case of the MBAJ Program, some of the interviewees expressed their concerns about the negative effect of student services that are not at the same level as the home institution on students' overall satisfaction, but the evidence is not strong enough to prove it as important as staffing, curriculum, and research that must cope with the tension between global integration and local responsiveness. In a similar vein, we noticed that some countries such as Australia and the United States have regulated to provide comparable education in international branch campuses as that of the home institutions (Healey, 2018; Smith, 2010) although no regulations have been imposed by the Canadian government on Desautels to operate an international branch campus in Japan. Therefore, the role of home country in balancing the tension between global integration and local responsiveness should also be further explored.

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Bridging Statement

In Chapter Four, *Global Integration and Local Responsiveness in Managing International Branch Campuses: An Empirical Investigation of the McGill MBA Japan Program*, I tried to answer the first and the second research questions of this dissertation. The questions were about Canadian international branch campuses' strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness and factors influencing their strategies.

To address these two research questions, I described the findings generated from the first case study of the McGill MBA Japan Program. This study adopted Healey's (2018) optimal global integration and local responsiveness paradigm as the theoretical framework, which identifies staffing, curriculum, and research as the three key areas for which international branch campuses must take a stance between global integration and local responsiveness. It also advises international branch campus managers to consider the impact of the home university, joint venture partner, students, host country, and competitors when determining the degree to which the curriculum, research and staffing should be localised.

The findings indicate that the McGill MBA Japan Program has maintained a high degree of global integration with the home institution in staffing and curriculum, but it does not emphasise the importance of research in operation. These findings result from the interaction between the McGill MBA Japan Program and its external stakeholders including McGill University's Desautels Faculty of Management, students, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology in Japan, and local competitors.

Specifically, in terms of staffing, the McGill MBA Japan Program has been inviting academic staff affiliated with McGill University's Desautels Faculty of Management to teach its students in addition to recruiting one adjunct professor from another Japanese university and

employing three local administrators to help operate the programme. This high degree of global integration is determined by McGill University's Desautels Faculty of Management, students as well as local competitors of the McGill MBA Japan Program. While these three groups of stakeholders push the McGill MBA Japan Program to pursue the end of global integration, McGill University's Desautels Faculty of Management also promotes local adaptation to some extent.

Regarding curriculum, the McGill MBA Japan Program replicates the curriculum offered for the MBA Program at McGill University's Desautels Faculty of Management, such as credit requirements, course arrangements, language of instruction, teaching materials, and assessment methods. Meanwhile, academic staff localise the curriculum by integrating more Japanese business-related case examples and providing an optional study trip to the neighbouring countries. Such strategies are not only constructed by McGill University's Desautels Faculty of Management, but also influenced by the external stakeholders such as students, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology in Japan, and local competitors. While all these stakeholders have a strong preference towards global integration, students also expect the McGill MBA Japan Program to integrate some local elements, making them more informed of the marketing operations in East Asia and better preparing them to continue to work in Japan.

With respect to research, most of the academic staff at the McGill MBA Japan Program do not conduct research projects while teaching. When professors conduct research activities, attend academic conferences, or give presentations in Japan, their research topics are not locally relevant. The results reveal that the lack of interest from McGill University's Desautels Faculty of Management and students results in the McGill MBA Japan Program' lack of research tailored to Japanese business.

At the end of Chapter Four, to provide directions for future studies, I call on multiple case studies to further test the applicability of Healey's (2018) optimal global integration and local responsiveness paradigm and to better illustrate the complexity of global integration and local responsiveness in managing international branch campuses. I also encourage future research to explore the possibilities to include student services in the areas to deal with the managerial challenge of global integration and local responsiveness and consider the home country as another external stakeholder impacting international branch campuses' strategies.

To respond to these calls, I conducted a multiple case study of Shanghai Vancouver Film School and Algonquin College-Kuwait and described this study in Chapter Five, *Multilevel Research on Factors Impacting International Branch Campuses' Global Integration and Local Responsiveness: An Empirical Investigation of Two Canadian Cases*. A literature review finds that previous studies (e.g., Bellini, Pasquinelli, Rovai, & Tani, 2016; Critchley & Saudelli, 2015; Shams & Huisman, 2016) have investigated international branch campuses' strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness as well as the macro- or micro-level factors impacting their strategies. However, it remains unclear how both levels of factors influence international branch campuses' strategies. To fill this research gap, I construct a multilevel framework for understanding both macro- and micro-level factors impacting international branch campuses' strategies and adopt this multilevel framework to guide the empirical investigation.

Chapter Five: Multilevel Research on Factors Impacting International Branch Campuses' Global Integration and Local Responsiveness: An Empirical Investigation of Two Canadian Cases

Abstract: The considerable institutional distance between home and host countries of most international branch campuses (IBCs) necessitates that they address the managerial challenge of balancing global integration and local responsiveness. Previous studies have investigated IBCs' strategies for addressing this challenge as well as the macro- or micro-level factors impacting their strategies. This study extends previous research by constructing a multilevel framework for understanding both macro- and micro-level factors to guide the empirical investigation of two Canadian cases. The results demonstrate that the two selected IBCs have maintained a high level of consistency with their home institutions in curriculum but a high level of inconsistency in staffing and student services. Like many other IBCs, these two IBCs are inactive in research despite supporting relevant activities. Such strategies are more influenced by the institutional forces in their host countries than those in their home country at the macro level. At the micro level, the strategies are primarily impacted by their students' educational demands. These findings exemplify strategies for other IBCs and for Canadian postsecondary institutions that may consider opening overseas branch campuses.

Keywords: Global integration and local responsiveness; international branch campuses; Canada; multilevel research; transnational education

Introduction

International branch campuses (hereafter referred to as IBCs) are entities owned, at least in part, by foreign postsecondary institutions and operated under the name of these institutions. The IBCs' on-site programmes and credentials also bear the foreign institutions' names, which gives the

institutions some responsibility for the overall strategy and quality assurance of the branch campuses (Wilkins and Rumbley 2018). As a popular form of transnational education, IBCs have experienced significant growth worldwide over the past two decades, rising from 67 in 2000 to 305 in 2020 (Cross-Border Education Research Team, 2020). These IBCs are primarily exported by western countries such as the United States (86), the United Kingdom (43), France (38), Russia (29), and Australia (20), whereas the importing countries are mainly located in Asia, including China (42), the United Arab Emirates (33), Singapore (16), Malaysia (15), and Qatar (11). Although South-to-South and North-to-North flows exist, a vast majority of the IBCs are established in the Global South by the Global North (He and Wilkins 2018), which indicates a considerable institutional distance between home and host countries of most IBCs. Thus, these IBCs must address the managerial challenge of providing education comparable to that of their home institutions[11] (global integration) while adapting to their host countries' political, economic, and cultural demands (local responsiveness).

Shams and Huisman (2012) highlight the benefits of balancing global integration and local responsiveness. They argue that by adapting to the host countries, IBCs can gain legitimacy and reduce tensions with local stakeholders, while by maintaining similarity with their home institutions, they can differentiate themselves from the local competitors and gain competitive advantages in the marketplace. Some researchers have further investigated IBCs' strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness, particularly those used to respond to the host's sociopolitical and economic context. For example, Critchley and Saudelli (2015) find that the University of Calgary in Qatar designs its development priorities in accordance with Qatar's National Health Strategy and the University of Calgary's Eyes High Vision. To support its

[11] Home institutions refer to the foreign postsecondary institutions as defined by the international branch campuses.

development priorities, this IBC invites many faculty members from the home institution to teach its students, while increasing collaborations with other institutions to conduct research, and maintaining strong partnerships with a number of organisations at home and abroad. Bellini et al. (2016) report that the Overseas Campus of Tongji University in Florence integrates itself in Italy by launching teaching activities in cooperation with local actors and organising cultural activities for the local audience.

There are also studies examining factors impacting IBCs' strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness. An empirical investigation of six British and Australian IBCs in Southeast Asia demonstrates that these IBCs maintain equivalence with their home institutions in curriculum, but not so much in staffing. The global integration in curriculum is primarily influenced by their host countries' normative and cultural-cognitive forces, whereas the local adaptation in staffing is closely related to their home institutions' centralised controlling mechanism (Shams and Huisman 2016). A case study of the McGill MBA Japan Program illustrates that this IBC maintains a high degree of global integration with its home institution in staffing and curriculum, and like many other IBCs, it does not emphasise the importance of research. Such strategies result from the interaction between the McGill MBA Japan Program and its stakeholders including students studying in the programme, McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management, Japan's Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, and competing Japanese education institutions (Jing et al. 2020).

Drawing on the existing research findings, we note that previous studies have investigated IBCs' strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness as well as the macro- or micro-level factors impacting their strategies. However, it remains unclear how both levels of factors influence IBCs' strategies. To fill this research gap, we constructed a multilevel framework

for understanding both macro- and micro-level factors impacting IBCs' strategies and adopted it to guide the empirical investigation. Consequently, we will be able to promote theoretical developments addressing IBCs' managerial challenge and bring readers closer to the reality faced by IBCs. Given that most IBC-related research is based on branch campuses established by the U.S., the U.K., and Australia, this study focuses on the Canadian ones to advance readers' understanding of the impact of Canada's institutional environment on its IBCs' development.

Postsecondary Education in Canada: Governance at Home

Despite being the second largest country in geography worldwide, Canada has a small-scale postsecondary education system, consisting of approximately 100 universities, 200 colleges, and hundreds of polytechnics, apprenticeships, private vocational colleges, and language schools due to its small population (Usher 2019). According to the 1867 Constitution Act, these postsecondary institutions are largely regulated by their provincial governments. The Ministry of Education in each province has a direct and central role in postsecondary education governance within its jurisdiction. Notably, each provincial system is characterised by a high level of autonomy, leaving the decision-making authority on key academic issues such as admission standards, curriculum development, and programme quality assurance to individual institutions (Shanahan and Jones 2007). Although there is no national Department of Education in Canada, Colleges and Institutes Canada and Universities Canada serve as platforms for colleges and universities to coordinate sectoral policies and share institutional information (Jones and Noumi 2018).

Since the 1990s, Canadian postsecondary education has been greatly influenced by internationalisation. To enhance an international outlook, universities and colleges sought to increase overseas delivery of education services and products. According to a survey conducted

by the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada[12] (2014), 81% of the 70 responding institutions offer at least one kind of international programme. In recent years, the Government of Canada (2019, 9) provided support to "increase the sales and licensing of educational services and products abroad". During the COVID-19 pandemic, Global Affairs Canada (2020, 2021) reiterated its assistance for education institutions to promote international partnerships and exports. In this context, investigating how Canadian IBCs balance global integration and local responsiveness will provide information for the education institutions considering branch campuses overseas.

A Multilevel Theoretical Framework

As mentioned above, previous studies investigate either macro- or micro-level factors impacting IBCs' strategies. This study extends the previous research by constructing a multilevel theoretical framework to guide the empirical investigation. This framework combines institutional theory at the macro level and the global integration and local responsiveness paradigm at the micro level.

Institutional theory has been widely used in organisational studies since the 1970s. It emphasises that in a highly institutionalised society, the institutional environment forces organisations within the field to align their structures with the leading organisations to gain legitimacy, resources, and better survival opportunities (Meyer and Rowan 1977). Following this perspective, Scott (1995) proposes three pillars for analysing institutions: the regulative, normative, and cultural-cognitive pillars. The regulative pillar involves formal rules, regulations, and laws used to ensure social stability and order; the normative pillar refers to social values, beliefs, and norms; and the cultural-cognitive pillar indicates established cognitive structures in society that are taken for granted. To compare and contrast the regulatory, normative, and cultural-cognitive institutions in an organisation's home and host countries, Kostova and Zaheer (1999) establish the

[12] The Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada is the precursor of Universities Canada. It is a non-profit national organisation that represents the universities and colleges in Canada.

concept of "institutional distance". In the context of international management, organisations such as multinational corporations and IBCs always confront dual institutional pressures from their home and host countries, particularly when the institutional distances are large.

To deal with the two basic but often conflicting institutional pressures, Bartlett and Ghoshal (1987) develop the global integration and local responsiveness paradigm for foreign subsidiaries of multinational corporations, advising them to make a trade-off between replicating the products/services offered at their headquarters in home countries (global integration) and tailoring the offerings to host countries (local responsiveness). After analysing the managerial complexities of running IBCs, Shams and Huisman (2012) reconceptualise Bartlett and Ghoshal's paradigm to the study of IBCs and depict it in a diagram. As shown in the central part of Figure 1, the three arrows represent staffing, curriculum, and research that are identified as the three key areas in which IBCs must balance global integration and local responsiveness. The connection of the three arrows represents the highest degree of globalisation, whereas the head of each arrow represents the highest degree of localisation.

When determining the degree to which these three areas should be globalised and localised, Healey (2018) asserts that IBC managers should consider the impacts of home university, joint venture partner, students, host country, and competitors since they are IBCs' most important stakeholders. Healey (2018) further groups these stakeholders into internal and external clusters depending on their relationships with IBCs (see outer ring of Figure 1). According to the case study of the McGill MBA Japan Program, Jing et al. (2020) advise future researchers to explore the possibilities of adding student services as the fourth area to balance global integration and local responsiveness and consider the home country as another external stakeholder impacting IBCs' strategies.

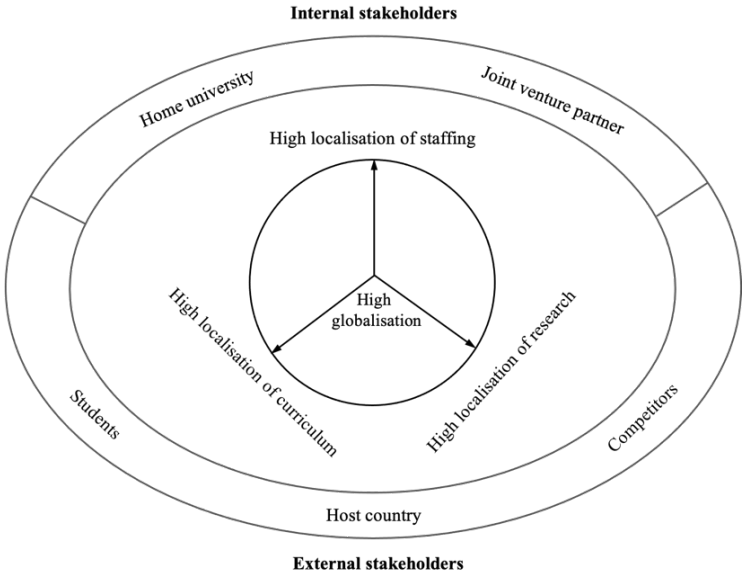

Figure 5.1 The global integration and local responsiveness paradigm and international branch campuses

Note: The central part of the figure was adapted from Shams and Huisman (2012) and the outer stakeholder ring was introduced by Healey (2018)

To sum up, institutional theory provides the rationale for IBCs to balance global integration and local responsiveness. It indicates that while the institutional forces from home countries require IBCs to comply with the vision, mission, and practices of their home institutions, the institutional forces from host countries require them to conform to the local regulations, values, and norms. Moreover, Scott's three pillars of institutions offer the analytical units to identify the macro-level factors from IBCs' home and host countries. However, institutional theory alone is not sufficient to explain IBCs' strategies. As a complement, the global integration and local responsiveness paradigm is used to examine the impact of micro-level factors such as home university, joint venture partnership, students, and local competitors. Additionally, this paradigm identifies staffing, curriculum, research, and student services as the key areas to which IBCs should pay particular attention. To have readers better understand the relationships of the different

elements in institutional theory and the global integration and local responsiveness paradigm, we present the multilevel theoretical framework in Figure 2.

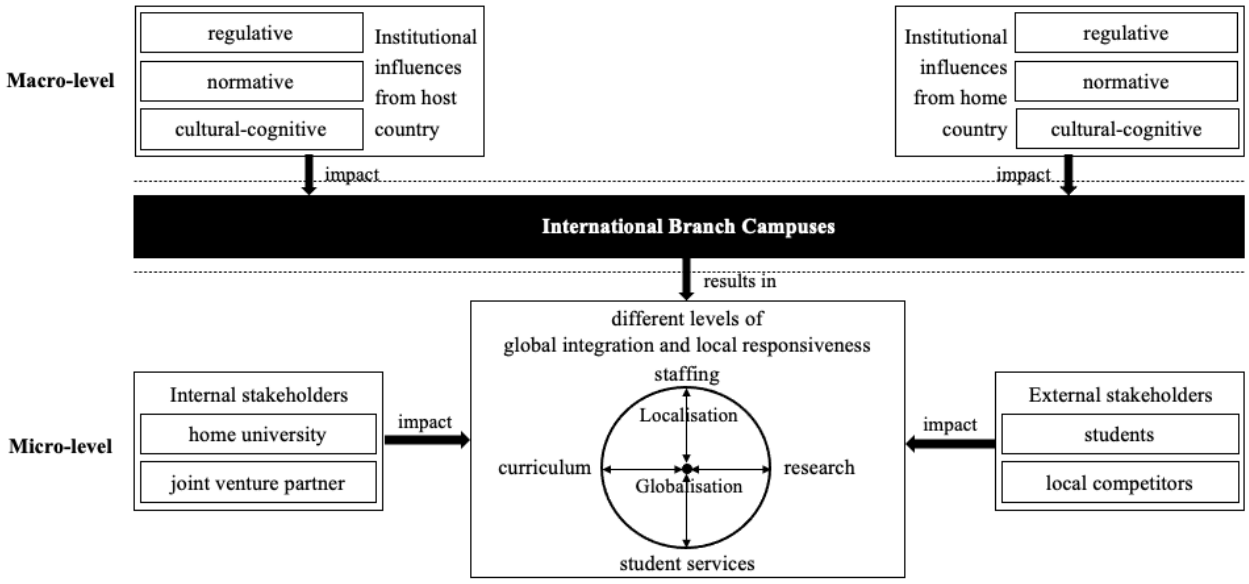

Figure 5.2 The multilevel theoretical framework for understanding factors impacting IBCs' strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness

Research Methodology

To obtain an in-depth understanding of how Canadian IBCs balance global integration and local responsiveness as well as macro- and micro-level factors impacting their strategies, we adopted case study as the research methodology. According to Yin (2014, 16), case study should be conducted when the research purpose is to "investigate a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident".

Case Selection

According to the Cross-Border Education Research Team (2020), Canadian postsecondary institutions are operating seven IBCs in East Asia and the Middle East that focus on diverse areas (e.g., business, engineering, nursing, film, and information technology) at different educational

levels (e.g., diploma, bachelor, and master). Considering the geographical and institutional distances between East Asia and the Middle East, we decided to select one case in each region to conduct the empirical investigation. After contacting the seven IBCs' managers, we obtained permission to study Shanghai Vancouver Film School (hereafter SHVFS) and Algonquin College-Kuwait (hereafter AC-Kuwait).

SHVFS was established by Vancouver Film School at the invitation of Shanghai University in 2014 to prepare qualified professionals for the rapidly growing entertainment and movie sector in Shanghai, China. The home institution, Vancouver Film School, is an internationally recognised private postsecondary career training institution based in the province of British Columbia, whereas the local partner, Shanghai University, is a public comprehensive university in Shanghai. According to the *Regulations of the People's Republic of China on Chinese-Foreign Cooperation in Running Schools*, SHVFS, as an institution offering higher education for non-academic qualifications, is subject to the supervision of the Shanghai Municipal Education Commission, which is the agency of the Shanghai Municipal Government in charge of education. Following Vancouver Film School's teaching model, SHVFS provides one-year intensive programmes in Film Production, 3D Animation & Visual Effect, Sound Design for Visual Media, Makeup Design for Film & Television, Acting for Film & Television, Writing for Film & Television, and Game Design. As of Spring 2021, nearly 600 students, the vast majority of whom are Chinese, have graduated from SHVFS.

AC-Kuwait is a private postsecondary institution established in 2015 by Algonquin College and its local partner, Orient Education Services, to facilitate the expansion of the private education sector in Kuwait. As one of the largest and highest-ranking colleges in the province of Ontario (Algonquin College, 2019), Algonquin College offers curriculum and operational advice

to AC-Kuwait. Similar to Vancouver Film School, Algonquin College was invited by its partner to open a branch campus in Kuwait although the partner is an education and training company. To meet Kuwait's increasing educational and vocational demands in business and information technology, AC-Kuwait offers two-year diploma programmes in Accounting, Management & Entrepreneurship, Marketing, and Computer Programmer. During its five years of existence, AC-Kuwait has cultivated 216 graduates, nearly 20% of whom are non-Kuwaiti students with origins primarily from South Asian and other Middle Eastern countries.

Data Collection and Analysis

To achieve our research objectives, we conducted semi-structured interviews in addition to collecting data from the two cases' institutional websites. After obtaining university ethics approval, we contacted the executive president/president of SHVFS and AC-Kuwait to seek their support in participant recruitment. Ultimately, a total number of 44 participants from both cases were interviewed (see details in Table 5.1). The interview questions were clustered into five groups: (1) demographic information and work/study experience at the IBC; (2) the IBC's global integration and local responsiveness strategies in staffing and macro- and micro-level factors impacting its strategies; (3) the IBC's global integration and local responsiveness strategies in curriculum and macro- and micro-level factors impacting its strategies; (4) the IBC's global integration and local responsiveness strategies in research and macro- and micro-level factors impacting its strategies; and (5) the IBC's global integration and local responsiveness strategies in student services and macro- and micro-level factors impacting its strategies. Due to the travel constraints caused by the COVID-19 pandemic, the interviews were conducted individually via Zoom or WeChat, depending on the participants' choice. Each interview lasted half an hour to

three hours and was audio recorded. Upon data collection, approximately 55 hours of interviews were transcribed verbatim.

Table 5.1 Summary of data collection

Position at the IBC	Shanghai Vancouver Film School		Algonquin College-Kuwait	
	Number of interviewees	Total hours of interviews	Number of interviewees	Total hours of interviews
Senior managers	4	7	3	4
Programme directors/ Academic coordinators	4	10	3	3
Instructors	3	5.5	5	7
Students	4	4	8	4.5
Alumni	7	7.5	3	2.5

Data analysis consisted of within-case and cross-case analysis (Yin 2014). Within each case, the first and fifth authors developed a coding scheme through a combination of inductive and deductive approaches. After identifying the coding scheme, they worked independently to perform the coding in NVivo 12.0. Once all the transcripts were coded, a coding comparison query was conducted to assess inter-rater reliability. The Kappa coefficient across all nodes was reported to be 0.77, indicating a substantial agreement between the two coders (Landis and Koch 1977). The coders discussed the disagreements until consensus was reached. After the completion of data analysis, we reported the results for each case separately and discussed the similarities and differences of both cases through cross-case analysis.

Results

In this section, we summarise the data analysis from each of the two cases, including SHVFS and AC-Kuwait's strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness in staffing, curriculum, research, and student services. We also present the macro- and micro-level factors impacting their strategies.

The Case of Shanghai Vancouver Film School

Since its inception in 2014, SHVFS has experienced one major leadership change, dividing its development into two stages. The interviews revealed that during the two development stages, SHVFS gradually moved from globalisation towards localisation, particularly in staffing and curriculum. Its strategies are primarily influenced by students studying in the school, Vancouver Film School, and Shanghai University in addition to the institutional forces in China and Canada.

In the initial stage, SHVFS aimed to provide an authentic Canadian film education to Chinese students. To achieve this goal, Vancouver Film School seconded its instructors and teaching assistants to teach at SHVFS. After one-year's operation, becoming aware of students' struggles with English, SHVFS replaced the Canadian teaching assistants with Chinese ones, who were bilingual and took professional courses at the school. These Chinese teaching assistants were able to translate the instructors' in-class teaching and slides while undertaking the responsibilities of their Canadian counterparts. Later, due to the home institution instructors' lack of interest in relocation, Vancouver Film School started to recruit international staff who had worked in the North American film industry to teach at SHVFS. Although these international staff did not teach at the home institution, their familiarity with the industry enabled them to deliver high-quality courses as confirmed by the alumni participants. To facilitate their integration into the Chinese teaching context and enhance their understanding of Chinese culture, SHVFS provided Canadian and international instructors with Chinese language teaching.

Noticing the disconnection between SHVFS students and the Chinese film industry, the SHVFS Board of Governors, which includes representatives from Shanghai University and Vancouver Film School, recruited a Chinese executive president from the industry in 2019 and granted her more autonomy to run the school. Under the executive president's leadership, SHVFS

has strengthened its relationship with the local film industry by hiring more Chinese instructors with overseas education and domestic work experience. These instructors supplemented the curriculum with the knowledge and skills essential for students to work in the local workplace and taught the curriculum in a culturally responsive way. Additionally, SHVFS invited local practitioners to offer hands-on experiences to their students during the weekend. Owing to the travel restrictions caused by COVID-19 and the need to reduce human costs, SHVFS continued to increase the number of Chinese instructors after 2020. To ensure the overall teaching quality at SHVFS, however, the positions of vice president in charge of education and the directors of the seven programmes have always been held by instructors seconded from Vancouver Film School. Moreover, they have been running training programmes for Chinese and international instructors to improve their teaching capacity.

Like staffing, the curriculum offered at SHVFS maintained a high level of consistency with that of Vancouver Film School when the programmes launched. According to the cooperative agreement, Vancouver Film School was responsible for providing the curriculum system and teaching model to SHVFS. Therefore, after investing millions of dollars in building construction and professional facilities, SHVFS used the course outline, lesson plan, and slides designed at Vancouver Film School to teach its students about Hollywood film industry standards. One exception is that the Programmes of Game Design and Film Production added contents about Chinese laws and ethics as required by the Shanghai Municipal Education Commission. To guarantee comparable learning outcomes to their counterparts at the home institution, SHVFS instructors implemented student-centred teaching approaches and diverse assessment methods to evaluate academic performance, despite the fact that most Chinese students were educated in traditional teacher-centred approaches and primarily assessed through exam-oriented methods.

Gradually, SHVFS noticed the disadvantages of the standardised curriculum delivery and therefore urged the instructors to localise their courses. The instructors' efforts in curriculum localisation concentrated on the following aspects. Firstly, given that most SHVFS graduates chose to work in the Chinese film industry, the instructors added modules necessary for the local workplace into the curriculum, which included but were not limited to Chinese film history for the Programme of Film Production, ancient Chinese makeup for the Programme of Makeup Design for Film & Television, and Chinese drama rehearsals for the Programme of Acting for Film & Television. Secondly, the instructors integrated more Chinese-related cases into the courses to improve students' understanding of the teaching content. Thirdly, the instructors encouraged students to build their work on traditional Chinese culture. An instructor in the Programme of Makeup Design for Film & Television reported a shift away from the trend of advising students to base their work on western figures, drawing inspiration from "classical Chinese stories such as the *Journey to the West* and the *Strange Stories from a Chinese Studio.*" Fourthly, the instructors expanded the one-lesson career planning course at Vancouver Film School to one term at SHVFS and invited local experts to teach students practical job-seeking skills. From a general viewpoint, the technique-oriented programmes such as 3D Animation & Visual Effect, Sound Design for Visual Media, and Game Design have made minimal adjustments whereas the programmes involving more cultural elements have changed more substantially.

Since 2019, when the executive president came into office, SHVFS has implemented more radical reforms to facilitate the curriculum localisation. For example, the Programme of Sound Design for Visual Media is conducting a pilot project by reorganising the teaching sequence in accordance with the requirements of different positions in the local industry. This new teaching method replaces the previous step-by-step teaching approach, through which knowledge and skills

were delivered in order of difficulty. The new method will better prepare students for employment. Once verified to be effective, this new teaching method will be expanded to other programmes.

As expressed by the senior managers, SHVFS was founded as a teaching institution tasked to produce qualified practitioners for the rapidly growing Shanghai film industry. Therefore, it did not involve a research dimension for the first several years. To boost Shanghai University's research capacity in film studies, SHVFS established the Cinematic Art Research Centre in late 2020 together with Shanghai Film Academy, an affiliated college. SHVFS and Shanghai Film Academy invited Marco Müller, an Italian producer, to serve as the director of the Centre. Although the Centre has not initiated any research projects yet, one senior manager will advise it to conduct studies about the internationalisation of Chinese film.

Similarly, SHVFS localised student services to a large extent by sharing campus infrastructures and support services with Shanghai University. After the cooperative agreement was signed in 2013, Vancouver Film School sent an architect to Shanghai to design the building for SHVFS, which is based in one of the campuses of Shanghai University. The building itself was renovated following Vancouver Film School's style to ensure students' equivalent experiences to their counterparts at the home institution. SHVFS students share other facilities and services such as dining facilities, sporting facilities, psychological counselling, and health services with students at Shanghai University. As some instructors highlighted, the localisation strategy does not mean that SHVFS offers low-quality student services. SHVFS has actually done better than Vancouver Film School in many respects. For example, the guest lectures organised by SHVFS are not available at the home institution. Moreover, the accommodations provided by SHVFS make life in Shanghai more convenient and inexpensive. Overall, the student and alumni participants expressed a high level of satisfaction with the services they received.

The Case of Algonquin College-Kuwait

The interviews revealed that AC-Kuwait adopted diverse global integration and local responsiveness strategies in different areas. Specifically, when moving from globalisation to localisation in staffing, it has maintained a high level of consistency with its home institution in curriculum but a high level of inconsistency in student services. Like many other IBCs, AC-Kuwait does not emphasise the importance of research despite supporting instructors' research engagement. Such strategies result from AC-Kuwait's interactions with students studying in the college, Algonquin College, and local competitors apart from the institutional forces in Kuwait and Canada.

When AC-Kuwait was launched in 2015, it recruited many Canadian and American instructors with over two years' professional work experiences in North America according to Algonquin College's requirements. The senior managers assumed that these instructors would be able to speak fluent English and deliver high-quality student-centred education. AC-Kuwait also had several local instructors in place to comply with the Private Universities Council's stipulation that private education institutions in Kuwait employ no less than 25% domestic labour. Although these local instructors lacked international work experience, they obtained their master's degrees in western countries, so they had professional knowledge and could easily adopt western teaching methods. Later, the instructors and senior managers noticed students' difficulty with learning in English as they sometimes needed Arabic explanations of concepts. Therefore, when experiencing financial constraints and logistical problems in seeking western instructors' work permits, AC-Kuwait recruited more bilingual instructors from Kuwait and other Middle Eastern countries such as Jordan, Lebanon, and Syria. These instructors' social networks connected students to the local labour market. To ensure teaching quality, the academic team at AC-Kuwait has been conducting

regular performance appraisals, through which they identify the instructors' weaknesses and implement remedial measures. AC-Kuwait has carried out additional teaching training to raise instructors' awareness of students' learning habits inherited from traditional education. For example, the instructors are reminded that students have probably never worked in groups. Such training improves the organisation of classroom activities. In addition, during their initial orientations, AC-Kuwait has made its instructors aware of who its competitors are, where they are located, and what they offer.

Unlike the gradual localisation in staffing, AC-Kuwait has maintained a high level of consistency with Algonquin College's curriculum throughout its existence. Before each new semester starts, Algonquin College sends a folder including syllabi, slides, and assessments for each course to AC-Kuwait, so the instructors will be able to deliver the pre-designed curriculum to their students. Although the instructors at AC-Kuwait usually stick to Algonquin College's standards, they sometimes adjust the curriculum to accommodate their students' learning abilities or to adapt to the local religious, economic, and political background. They modify the curriculum in six major ways. Firstly, to improve their students' English language proficiency, AC-Kuwait has increased the teaching hours for English and integrated English language acquisition into the whole programme. Secondly, in response to students' weak foundation in mathematics, the instructors have simplified the initial teaching contents and added extra exercises. Thirdly, since the students have little knowledge of the Canadian and international companies covered in the curriculum, the instructors have included more Kuwaiti company examples in their lessons. Fourthly, the instructors have removed references to alcohol and gambling, which are taboo in Islamic culture, and occasionally have had to access alternative teaching materials because the materials used in Canada contained images that would not be acceptable in Kuwait. Fifthly, given

that most students work in Kuwait after graduation, AC-Kuwait has substituted teaching contents about Canadian taxation, business law, auditing rules, and international relations with Kuwaiti ones. Sixthly, the instructors are cautious about politically sensitive topics such as democracy, freedom, terrorism, human rights, and culturally sensitive issues such as religions other than Islam. They usually avoid these topics in class, instead, providing extra resources for the students to study on their own. At the end of each semester, AC-Kuwait submits a curriculum review report for each course to Algonquin College to provide feedback on the pre-designed curriculum and to report any changes made.

In addition to the self-report, Algonquin College and the Private Universities Council have established rigorous quality assurance processes to control the course delivery at AC-Kuwait. Each year, Algonquin College appoints a quality assurance team to conduct an audit of one or more programmes delivered at AC-Kuwait, either in-person or remotely. The team usually interviews instructors and students, observes classrooms, and reviews relevant documents at AC-Kuwait to finish a quality assurance report. During the audit, the team particularly records the changes made by the instructors. Upon completion, the quality assurance report is submitted to Algonquin College's Director of International Education Centre, Vice President (International), and Vice President (Academic) for review. In Kuwait, the Private Universities Council requires all private education institutions including AC-Kuwait to submit comprehensive annual reports and, every five years, to undergo institutional re-accreditation. Each institutional re-accreditation is conducted by an independent external team formed by the Private Universities Council for that particular re-accreditation process and involves audit team visits, interviews with students and employees, and reviews of administrative and academic documents and practices. Its goal is to ensure that each institution is continuing to serve Kuwait's developing economic and workforce development needs.

Although AC-Kuwait is a teaching institution, it has supported its instructors' engagement in research. Five out of the eight academic coordinators and instructors reported that they were conducting research for the sake of their professional development. These academic coordinators and instructors are either pursuing or planning to pursue doctorate degrees in the next few years. A closer look at their research projects discloses their main focus on issues within the Kuwaiti context and the broader Gulf region. For example, one academic coordinator is examining the relationship between language and culture by investigating AC-Kuwait's English & Skills Foundations Programme. To expand their academic and social impact, these academic coordinators and instructors also seek opportunities to present their work in peer-reviewed journals and professional conferences.

Compared to Algonquin College, AC-Kuwait has a smaller campus with fewer students. Therefore, it cannot provide equally diverse student services as its home institution. Nonetheless, to help students achieve academic success and improve their well-being, AC-Kuwait has established a writing centre, a math centre, a student success centre, and an in-house clinic similar to those available at other local postsecondary institutions. In addition, to cultivate students' sense of belonging to Canadian and Kuwaiti cultures, AC-Kuwait has organised many extracurricular activities to celebrate festivals in both countries.

Discussion

This study sought to investigate how SHVFS and AC-Kuwait balance global integration and local responsiveness as well as macro- and micro-level factors impacting their strategies. Several similarities and differences between the two cases can be observed from the cross-case analysis.

First, both SHVFS and AC-Kuwait began by recruiting many Canadian instructors, but after several years' operation, they have given preference to bilingual instructors with overseas

degrees. Prior research (e.g., Salt and Wood 2014) demonstrates that international instructors, including those seconded from home institutions, are crucial contributors to IBCs' education quality. However, such instructors often encounter difficulties when teaching students from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds (Healey 2015). To foster their understanding of the host cultures, SHVFS and AC-Kuwait provide international instructors with intercultural training. In accordance with Wilkins's (2017) finding, SHVFS and AC-Kuwait recognise the challenges in attracting and retaining international staff. Unlike most IBCs, which prefer international recruitment (Hou et al. 2018), SHVFS and AC-Kuwait shift their focus to bilingual instructors knowledgeable about western pedagogy and local students' learning styles. These instructors develop close relationships with students and help them to enter the domestic job market. Several senior managers and programme directors/academic coordinators, nonetheless, admitted that they should recruit more Canadian instructors to maintain an international outlook. IBC instructors should also strengthen communication with their peers at home institutions to exchange ideas about best practices in teaching, as encouraged by existing literature (e.g., Neri and Wilkins 2019) highlighting the importance of regular virtual meetings and site visits to improve teaching quality.

Second, when delivering the curriculum developed at home institutions, SHVFS and AC-Kuwait make adaptations to fit the local contexts, particularly to accommodate their host countries' institutional environment and students' educational demands. Wilkins, Balakrishnan, and Huisman (2012) point out that some stakeholders expect IBCs to deliver programmes adhering to the same standards and procedures of their home institutions. SHVFS and AC-Kuwait endeavour to meet this expectation by importing the curriculum from their home institutions. However, since most students choose to work or further study within the country after graduation, the two IBCs tailor their teaching contents to their host countries' political, economic, and cultural conditions, despite

their different levels of institutional autonomy in curriculum redesign. To ensure students' comparable learning outcomes, their home institutions make diverse efforts to measure curriculum equivalence between campuses. While Vancouver Film School requires the seconded vice dean and programme directors to control the academic standards at SHVFS, Algonquin College meets regularly (at least monthly) with the academic leadership team at AC-Kuwait to monitor academic delivery and provide ongoing guidance and support and uses an annual assessment and review process to assure academic quality. Irrespective of the processes used, assessing academic equivalence is complex, as it not only involves comparisons of content and assessment but also of relevance to local context and employment. The criteria for home institutions to determine curriculum equivalence currently remain unclear.

Third, although SHVFS and AC-Kuwait are inactive in research, they support relevant activities to respond to their joint venture partner's and instructors' requests. Hill and Thabet (2018) argue that to survive in the competitive market, most transnational education institutions including IBCs prioritise teaching in the early development stages. This prioritisation particularly applies to SHVFS and AC-Kuwait because, like their home institutions, their goal is to support national industrial and workforce development by providing local business and industry with highly-skilled, employment-ready graduates. Motivated to obtain practical skills and credentials, students are more concerned about their institutions' teaching quality rather than research capacity. Therefore, both SHVFS and AC-Kuwait are reluctant to provide financial investment in research projects. Only when the joint venture partner and instructors request institutional support do they offer assistance. On one hand, their assistance will reinforce their relationships with the stakeholders involved. On the other hand, the research outputs will potentially publicise the institutions in academic and practical venues and improve professional practice. We believe that by indirectly

contributing to knowledge production, SHVFS and AC-Kuwait's strategy may provide a model for other IBCs facing similar issues.

Fourth, SHVFS and AC-Kuwait adopt a localisation strategy in student services to improve students' learning experiences. As both SHVFS and AC-Kuwait are small institutions with fewer than ten programmes, they cannot afford to offer similar student services as their home institutions, which is common for IBCs with fewer than 1,000 students (Wilkins 2020). Yet, to support students' on-campus life and increase their overall satisfaction, SHVFS and AC-Kuwait have designed student services that make the best use of available resources. While SHVFS shares facilities and services with Shanghai University, AC-Kuwait operates several centres directed by their instructors. Despite previous evidence that SHVFS and AC-Kuwait's student services are sufficient, the students interviewed in this study reported that they need to use these services more effectively.

In addition, we notice some interesting findings after comparing the macro- and micro-level factors impacting SHVFS and AC-Kuwait's strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness. With regard to the macro-level factors, SHVFS and AC-Kuwait are more strongly impacted by their host countries' institutional forces than those in their home country. China and Kuwait influence their IBCs' strategies through relevant education regulations and the social norms of networking. Both IBCs highlighted the positive impact of bilingual instructors' social network on increasing students' employment, constituting one rationale for staffing localisation. Moreover, as noted in other Middle Eastern countries (Wilkins 2017), Kuwait's Islamic culture and limitations on freedom of speech compel AC-Kuwait to localise its curriculum. In contrast, Canada influences the two IBCs' strategies through the student-centred education and high value attached to education quality under the normative pillar. With the number of IBCs

increasing in the next few years, Canada should formulate formal quality assurance policies by learning from the U.S., the U.K., and Australia, which have established clear procedures to ensure the quality of education provided overseas (Hou et al. 2018).

In terms of the micro-level factors, SHVFS and AC-Kuwait's strategies are mainly influenced by their students, home institutions, joint venture partners, and local competitors. Among these factors, students have the most extensive and profound impact on SHVFS's and AC-Kuwait's strategies. The two IBCs always consider students' education backgrounds and attempt to meet their development needs when deciding to promote global integration or local responsiveness in each of the four areas of staffing, curriculum, research, and student services. Conversely, the home institutions push the two IBCs to pursue global integration in staffing and curriculum due to their responsibility for quality assurance, while the joint venture partners encourage them to pursue local responsiveness in curriculum and student services. Unlike AC-Kuwait somehow influenced by their local competitors, SHVFS is unique in its host country and does not have real competitors, according to the senior managers.

Conclusion

This article is of theoretical and practical significance to the study of IBCs. From a theoretical perspective, it constructs a multilevel framework for understanding the macro- and micro-level factors influence how IBCs balance global integration and local responsiveness. From a practical perspective, it provides potential strategies for other IBCs to address the same managerial challenge and for Canadian postsecondary institutions considering branch campuses overseas. To promote future research, we advise scholars to test the multilevel framework by conducting interviews and on-site fieldwork in other national contexts. Such efforts will yield greater insight into the research questions under investigation.

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Bridging Statement

In Chapter Five, *Multilevel Research on Factors Impacting International Branch Campuses' Global Integration and Local Responsiveness: An Empirical Investigation of Two Canadian Cases,* I still focus on the first two research questions of this dissertation, which were about Canadian international branch campuses' strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness and factors influencing their strategies. Building on Chapter Four, this chapter further explores the two questions by constructing a multilevel framework for understanding both macro- and micro-level factors impacting international branch campuses' strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness and adopting it to guide the empirical investigation of Shanghai Vancouver Film School and Algonquin College-Kuwait.

The multilevel framework constructed in this study incorporates institutional theory and Healey's (2018) global integration and local responsiveness paradigm. It identifies staffing, curriculum, research, and student services as the four key areas in which international branch campuses must balance global integration and local responsiveness. More importantly, it divides factors impacting international branch campuses' strategies into macro- and micro-levels. The macro-level factors are the institutional influences from international branch campuses' home and host countries, whereas the micro-level factors include international branch campuses' home university, joint venture partnership, students, and local competitors.

The findings resulting from the empirical investigation demonstrate that the two cases have maintained a high level of consistency with their home institutions in curriculum but a high level of inconsistency in staffing and student services. Like many other international branch campuses, these two international branch campuses are inactive in research despite supporting relevant activities. Such strategies are more impacted by their host countries' education regulations and the

social norms of networking than their home country's institutional influences. In addition, the institutional forces in their home country influence the two international branch campuses' strategies through the student-centred education and high value attached to education quality under the normative pillar. At the micro level, the strategies are primarily impacted by their students, home institutions, joint venture partners, and local competitors, among which students are particularly important.

Regarding the case of Shanghai Vancouver Film School, it gradually moved from globalisation towards localisation, particularly in staffing and curriculum. The strategies are primarily influenced by students studying in the school, the home institution, and the local partner in addition to the institutional forces in China and Canada. In the beginning, Shanghai Vancouver Film School employed instructors and teaching assistants seconded from Vancouver Film School to teach its students. However, considering students' struggles with English and the home institution instructors' lack of interest in relocation, Shanghai Vancouver Film School hired more Chinese instructors and teaching assistants with overseas education and domestic work experience. Similar to staffing, in the initial stage, Shanghai Vancouver Film School used the course outline, lesson plan, and slides designed at Vancouver Film School to teach its students about Hollywood film industry standards. After several years' operation, Shanghai Vancouver Film School localised the curriculum by adding modules necessary for the local workplace, integrating more Chinese-related cases into the courses, encouraging students to build their work on traditional Chinese culture, and inviting local experts to teach students practical job-seeking skills. Being founded as a teaching institution, Shanghai Vancouver Film School did not involve a research dimension until Shanghai University decided to boost its research capacity in film studies. Although no research projects have been initiated, the school will probably facilitate studies about the

internationalisation of Chinese film. To ensure students' equivalent experiences to their counterparts at the home institution, Shanghai Vancouver Film School renovated the teaching building following Vancouver Film School's style. But the student services are localised to a large extent by sharing campus infrastructures and support services with Shanghai University to satisfy students' demands.

Regarding the case of Algonquin College-Kuwait, it adopted diverse global integration and local responsiveness strategies in different areas. Such strategy results from Algonquin College-Kuwait's interactions with students studying in the college, Algonquin College, and local competitors apart from the institutional forces in Kuwait and Canada. When being launched in 2015, Algonquin College-Kuwait recruited many Canadian and American instructors according to Algonquin College's requirements. Having noticed students' difficulty with learning in English, it turned to recruit bilingual instructors from Kuwait and other Middle Eastern countries. Unlike the gradual localisation in staffing, Algonquin College-Kuwait has maintained a high level of consistency with Algonquin College's curriculum throughout its existence. It borrows the syllabi, slides, and assessments for each course from Algonquin College and sometimes adjusts the curriculum to accommodate their students' learning abilities or to adapt to the local religious, economic, and political background. In terms of research, Algonquin College-Kuwait does not emphasise its importance despite supporting instructors' research engagement to promote their professional development. As for student services, Algonquin College-Kuwait has implemented a localised strategy. It has established a writing centre, a math centre, a student success centre, and an in-house clinic similar to those available at other local postsecondary institutions to help students achieve academic success and improve their well-being.

Reflecting upon the two international branch campuses' practices of balancing global integration and local responsiveness, some important questions emerge: what forms of neocolonialism may be imported from Canada to Shanghai Vancouver Film School and Algonquin College-Kuwait? How do the two international branch campuses deal with the various aspects of neocolonialism in their different national contexts? Prior research (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007; Shams & Huisman, 2012; Wilkins, 2011) argues that while bringing huge benefits to both home and host countries, international branch campuses serve as a form of neocolonialism, perpetuating Anglophone hegemony through education. Building on this perspective, in Chapter Six, I analysed the data collected for Chapter Five from the lens of neocolonialism. Specifically, Chapter Six, *Rethinking the Neocolonial Practices at International Branch Campuses: A Comparative Study of Two Canadian Cases*, explores how Shanghai Vancouver Film School and Algonquin College-Kuwait mimic and resist their home institutions' education model in their importing countries.

Chapter Six: Rethinking the Neocolonial Practices at International Branch Campuses: A Comparative Study of Two Canadian Cases

Abstract: Since the beginning of the 21st century, international branch campuses have experienced significant growth worldwide, and most of them are established in the Global South by the Global North, reproducing Western hegemony through education. In this context, we conducted a comparative study to analyse the convergence and divergence of the neocolonial practices at Shanghai Vancouver Film School and Algonquin College-Kuwait, two international branch campuses established by Canadian postsecondary institutions. The results demonstrate the two international branch campuses modernise and internationalise the postsecondary education system in their importing countries but meanwhile serve as spaces reinforcing global knowledge hierarchy and educational inequality. When mimicking their home institutions' educational models, they both exercise agency, albeit to different degrees, by resisting Western liberal ideologies and teaching contents irrelevant to the local context, attempting to create a third space for students to engage with multiple perspectives and knowledge systems.

Keywords: International branch campuses; neocolonialism; mimicry; resistance; Canada

Introduction

An international branch campus (hereafter referred to as IBC) is an entity owned, at least in part, by a specific foreign postsecondary institution and operated under its name. The IBC's on-site programmes and credentials also bear the foreign institution's name, and therefore the foreign institution has some responsibility for the overall strategy and quality assurance of the branch campuses. The branch has basic infrastructure, and, overall, students at the branch have a similar experience to students at the home institution (Wilkins & Rumbley, 2018). Since the beginning of the 21st century, the number of IBCs has significantly grown worldwide, rising from 67 in 2000

to 305 in 2020 (Cross-Border Education Research Team, 2020). A closer look at the data reveals that the majority of these IBCs are exported by Western countries, such as the United States (86), the United Kingdom (43), France (38), and Australia (20), into Asian countries, including China (42), the United Arab Emirates (33), Singapore (16), Malaysia (15), and Qatar (11). Although South-to-South and North-to-North flows occur, most of the IBCs are established in the Global South by the Global North (He & Wilkins, 2018).

Obviously, IBCs can bring huge benefits to both exporting and importing countries. For exporting countries, they have been proven to help generate extra income, enhance academic reputation, and promote cross-cultural understanding (Wilkins & Juusola, 2018), whereas for importing countries, they are believed to increase education capacity, reduce brain drain, and facilitate knowledge transfer (Girdzijauskaite & Radzeviciene, 2014; Wilkins, 2011). Despite these benefits, the development of IBCs has received many criticisms, among which IBCs being a form of neocolonialism is frequently mentioned (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007; Shams & Huisman, 2012; Wilkins, 2011). Neocolonialism refers to hierarchical power relations between the Global North and the Global South and it is argued that the knowledge flow in IBCs is unidirectional and such flow may reinforce the hegemonic influence of the Global North (Shams and Huisman, 2012). Donn and Al Manthri (2010) also assert that in terms of knowledge production, IBCs increasingly benefit the exporting countries while marginalising the importing countries, perpetuating Anglophone hegemony through education.

Building on this perspective, some researchers investigated how neocolonialism is practised at IBCs. After conducting fieldwork in business-school IBCs operating in the United Arab Emirates, Siltaoja, Juusola, and Kivijärvi (2019) analysed “how IBCs reproduce the fantasy of being so-called world-class operators and how the onsite faculty members identify with or resist

this world-class fantasy" (p. 75). Employing Siltaoja, Juusola, and Kivijärvi's (2019) analytical approach, Xu (2021) examined the neocolonial practices at a British IBC in China, revealing that the establishment of IBCs risks reproducing coloniality in importing countries and reinforcing Western privilege in the global context. The present article builds on this research by undertaking a comparative study to explore whether two Canadian IBCs practise neocolonialism, and if so, it further analyses how the two IBCs deal with different aspects of neocolonialism which diverge and converge in the different national contexts. Specifically, drawing upon Bhabha's (1984) notion of mimicry, this research investigates how the two IBCs mimic and resist their home institutions' education model in their importing countries. This study is of particular significance in a globalised world due to the rise in nationalism and resistance to political globalisation, as it will stimulate managers to rethink IBCs' relationship with their home institutions and perhaps redesign their development strategies.

The article is divided into six sections, first detailing the theoretical and pedagogical background for the study and then presenting and analysing the results. The first section describes neocolonialism as the analytical framework of this study, then the second section presents the research methodology by which the data was collected and analysed. The third section contextualises this research vis-a-vis the internationalisation of higher education in China and Kuwait, and then the subsequent sections outline and discuss the findings resulting from the data analysis. The conclusion highlights the study contributions suggestions for future research.

Analytical Framework

This study adopts a neocolonialist analytical framework, particularly the concepts of mimicry and resistance. Since the end of World War II, the concept of neocolonialism has been developed to describe Western countries' subtle forms of control over other countries, especially the former

colonised countries (Alzubairi, 2019). Different from colonialism that refers to direct military and political occupation, neocolonialism emphasises the use of economic, political, cultural, or other pressures to spread global powers' hegemony indirectly to the other parts of the world. As Prasad (2003) indicates, neocolonialism is the continuation of colonialism, creating dominance in the power relationship between the Global South and the Global North. From the neocolonial perspective, societies in the Global South are inferior, passive, and uncivilised, while the Global North is superior, active, and civilised (Said, 1978). Therefore, the Global North positions itself as the saviour of the Global South, and the Global South is made to depend on the Global North to develop knowledge, technology and economy (McKenna, 2011). In the field of education, a neocolonial perspective assumes an unquestioning superiority of the knowledge produced in the Global North and influences the Global South to embrace the education systems (contents and methods), knowledge (Eurocentric) and technology from the Global North.

Among the numerous key concepts in neocolonial studies, mimicry and resistance are representative of the possible reactions in the countries of the Global South (Ashcroft, Griffiths, & Tiffin, 2000). According to the neocolonial discourse, in order to become modernised, the Global South mimics the Global North by adopting their beliefs, values, habitus, institutions, and practices (as Fanon (2008) said about colonialism). This mimicry allows the Global North to successfully transfer their dominant values and knowledge into the Global South and thus control the latter. However, Bhabha (1994) argues that the colonised subject is reproduced as "almost the same but not quite" (p. 122) the same as that of the coloniser, since they have the agency to negotiate their own rules and resist Western hegemony. In this sense, mimicry itself represents "an ironic compromise" (Bhabha, 1994, p. 122) and "a form of resistance" (Siltaoja, Juusola, & Kivijarvi, 2019, p. 79) that frustrate the coloniser's ability to fully control the colonised. The

inherent ambivalence of mimicry enables the colonised to reconstruct their identity and to deconstruct the existing power relations, creating a "third space" that lies beyond the binary oppositions (Loomba, 1998; Bhabha, 1994). Here, the notion of third space refers to a hybrid space mixing cultures of the coloniser and the colonised. It is not the sum of the two cultures, but a new creation emerging from the transformation of them (Bolatagici, 2004).

In organisational studies, mimicry is divided into different forms according to the degree of resistance originating from the colonised. For example, when examining how Western faculty members working at IBCs identify with or resist the world-class fantasy, Siltaoja, Juusola, and Kivijarvi (2019) identify three forms of mimicry: cynical mimicry, bounded mimicry, and failed mimicry. Cynical mimicry occurs when faculty members deliver Western knowledge yet feel restricted by the regulations and teaching contents designed in the home institutions. While being forced to comply with the externally espoused practices, they have little power to change the practices. Compared with cynical mimicry, bounded mimicry is more overt. In bounded mimicry, foreign faculty members are recognised as Other at IBCs and become "targets of the use of power" (p. 87) in local contexts. To avoid being othered and construct a valued sense of self, they seek to "maintain the fantasy of Western superiority" (p. 90) by speaking for themselves. Finally, failed mimicry contends that the ideal of developing world-class education at IBCs will never be achieved, since IBCs cannot be constructed in the same way as their home institutions. As these definitions indicate, cynical mimicry is characterised by implicit forms of resistance, whereas bounded mimicry and failed mimicry involve explicit forms of resistance.

At the present time, countries in the Global South are enthusiastic about inviting foreign universities to establish IBCs within their territories with the aim to modernise and internationalise their higher education systems (Hou, Hill, Chen, & Tsai, 2018). Conversely, countries such as the

United States, the United Kingdom, Australia, and Canada encourage their universities to expand overseas to generate financial revenue and thereby maintain cultural influence (Wilkins & Juusola, 2018). Established IBCs in the Global South offer similar programmes and courses to their home institutions and capitalise on their home institutions' prestige to recruit students. In most cases, IBCs are regarded as superior to the domestic education institutions in their importing countries (Lane, 2011). However, IBCs' operational contexts in their importing countries are notably very different from those of their exporting countries and consequently, IBCs must negotiate with the local context in their educational practices. Given the complex situations IBCs face, they provide a suitable space for examining neocolonialism related topics such as mimicry and resistance.

Research Methodology

In order to identify whether the two Canadian IBCs practise neocolonialism and compare how they practise neocolonialism in different national contexts, we adopted a comparative case study methodology. After identifying the two cases to study, we collected data through semi-structured interviews and analysed the data through a thematic analysis approach.

Case Selection

According to the Cross-Border Education Research Team (2020), Canadian postsecondary institutions are operating seven IBCs in East Asia and the Middle East (see details in Table 6.1). Considering the geographical and institutional distances between the two regions, we decided to select one case in East Asia and another in the Middle East to address the research questions. After contacting the managers of the seven IBCs, we obtained permission to study Shanghai Vancouver Film School (hereafter SHVFS), which is located in China, and Algonquin College-Kuwait (hereafter AC-Kuwait), which is operated in Kuwait.

Aiming to prepare professionals for the fast-growing entertainment and movie sector in

Shanghai, SHVFS was established by Shanghai University in cooperation with Vancouver Film School in 2014. Vancouver Film School, SHVFS's home institution, is a renowned private postsecondary career training institution, whereas Shanghai University, the local partner in China, is a public comprehensive university. Following Vancouver Film School's teaching model, SHVFS provides one-year intensive programmes in Film Production, 3D Animation & Visual Effect, Sound Design for Visual Media, Makeup Design for Film & Television, Acting for Film & Television, Writing for Film & Television, and Game Design.

Table 6.1 The profile of Canadian IBCs

Institution Name	Host Country	Founding Year	Focus Area	Educational Level	Affiliation in Canada
Ivey Asia	China (Hong Kong)	1998	Business	Graduate (Master's Degree)	Western University
McGill MBA Japan Program	Japan	1999	Business	Graduate (Master's Degree)	McGill University's Desautels Faculty of Management
College of the North Atlantic-Qatar	Qatar	2002	Business, Information Technology, Engineering, Health Sciences	Undergraduate (Bachelor's Degree); Diploma; Certificate	College of the North Atlantic
University of Calgary in Qatar	Qatar	2007	Nursing	Undergraduate (Bachelor's Degree); Graduate (Master's Degree)	University of Calgary
Shanghai-Vancouver Film School	China	2014	Film, Game Design	Diploma	Vancouver Film School
Algonquin College-Kuwait	Kuwait	2015	Business, Computer Science	Diploma	Algonquin College
University of Prince Edward Island's Cairo Campus	Egypt	2020	Business Administration, Engineering, Computer Science, Political Science	Undergraduate (Bachelor's Degree); Graduate (Master's Degree)	University of Prince Edward Island

Data source: The information presented in the table was collected from the Cross-Border Education Research Team and the official websites of these international branch campuses.

In order to facilitate the expansion of the private education sector in Kuwait, AC-Kuwait was established by Algonquin College at the invitation of Orient Education Services in 2015. Algonquin College, AC-Kuwait's home institution, offers curriculum and operational advice, whereas Orient Education Services, the local partner in Kuwait, provides funding. To satisfy Kuwait's increasing educational demands in business and information technology, AC-Kuwait offers two-year diploma programmes in Accounting, Management & Entrepreneurship, Marketing, and Computer Programming. Among the students at AC-Kuwait, nearly 20% are non-Kuwaiti with origins primarily from South Asian and other Middle Eastern countries.

Data Collection

To gain in-depth understanding of how SHVFS and AC-Kuwait mimic and resist their home institutions' education models, we conducted semi-structured interviews to collect data. After obtaining ethics approval from the first author's university, we contacted SHVFS's executive president and AC-Kuwait's president to recruit participants. With their support, we recruited a total of 44 participants (see details in Table 6.2). The interview questions were clustered into three groups: (1) demographic information and work/study experience at the IBC; (2) the IBC's practices that comply with its home institution's model; (3) the IBC's practices that resist its home institution's model. Due to the travel restrictions caused by the COVID-19 pandemic, we conducted the interviews online via Zoom or WeChat, depending on the participants' choice. Each interview lasted half an hour to three hours and was audio recorded. Upon data collection, the interviews were transcribed verbatim.

Data Analysis

We first attempted to identify whether neocolonial practices were evident. Then we analysed the data in two steps: within-case analysis and cross-case analysis (Yin, 2014). Within each case, the

first author coded the data using a thematic analysis approach according to the themes of cynical mimicry, bounded mimicry, and failed mimicry, as identified by Siltaoja, Juusola, and Kivijarvi (2019). The coding was later cross-checked by the third author to ensure accuracy. After the data for each case was coded, we analysed the similarities and differences of both cases using a cross-case analysis.

Table 6.2 Summary of participants at the two IBCs

Position at the IBC	Shanghai Vancouver Film School		Algonquin College-Kuwait	
	Number of interviewees	Number of expatriates	Number of interviewees	Number of expatriates
Senior managers	4	1	3	1
Programme directors/ Academic coordinators	4	4	3	2
Instructors	3	0	5	2
Students	4	0	8	4
Alumni	7	0	3	1

The Research Contexts

As noted in the Research Methodology section, the two selected cases, SHVFS and AC-Kuwait, are in China and Kuwait respectively. To familiarise readers with the research contexts, we briefly introduce the process of internationalisation of higher education in China and Kuwait below.

The Internationalisation of Higher Education in China

Currently, China is the world's second largest economy and is emerging as a global power. However, dating back to the latter half of the 19th century, it was a semi-colony, establishing its modern higher education system by modelling those of Japan, Germany, and the United States successively. After the foundation of People's Republic of China in 1949, it began modelling this system on that of the former Soviet Union (Huang, 2003). Beginning in 1978, when the reform and opening-up policy was initiated, China started to internationalise its higher education system by learning from the West, particularly from the United States. Since then, Chinese higher

education institutions have taken three primary approaches to facilitate the internationalisation process: sending students and faculty members to study abroad, integrating an international dimension into teaching and learning, and providing transnational programmes in cooperation with foreign institutions (Yang, 2016). Therefore, Western higher education ideologies have been deeply embedded in the Chinese higher education system. Over the past two decades, along with its economic development and aspiration of expanding its international influence, China pushed the internationalisation of higher education to a new stage, shifting from the one-way import of Western knowledge to a combination of bringing the world to China and introducing China to the world (Mo & Liu, 2020; Yang, 2016). Chinese higher education institutions have hosted over five million international students and established more than 100 institutions and programmes overseas in addition to sending nearly seven million students to study abroad and operating around 2300 Sino-foreign cooperative education institutions and programmes (Liao, 2021; Ministry of Education of China, 2020a, 2020b; Wang & Tu, 2020).

The Internationalisation of Higher Education in Kuwait

Kuwait is one of the richest countries in the Middle East with about 9% of the world's total oil reserves. It used to be a British colony and did not gain independence until 1961. After the departure of Great Britain, Kuwait became increasingly influenced by the United States as were other countries in the Arabic Gulf region (Berrwin, 2018). Recognising the value of knowledge in the development process, in 1966, the Kuwaiti government established Kuwait University, which is the first and the only public university within its jurisdiction (Al-Atiqi & AlHarbi, 2009). During the foundational phase, Kuwait University together with other state-sponsored postsecondary institutions introduced Western elements into teaching and learning, such as requiring all students to take English courses and adopting English as the medium of instruction, which it regarded as

effective approaches to achieve modernity (Alfahad & Aldhaen, 2016). Meanwhile, the Kuwaiti government supported students to study abroad by offering generous scholarships (Alfahad & Aldhaen, 2016). Since the beginning of the 21st century, Kuwait has accelerated the internationalisation of higher education. To meet the growing demand for tertiary education in the country, it started allowing domestic institutions or companies to provide private education in collaboration with foreign education providers (Berrwin, 2018). According to the latest statistics, the 12 private colleges and universities in Kuwait admitted 96,655 students in the 2018-2019 academic year (State of Kuwait Central Statistics Bureau, 2020).

Results

During the data analysis process, we found that the neocolonial practices were evident at SHVFS and AC-Kuwait. In this section, we summarise the neocolonial practices in the two Canadian IBCs, specifically focusing on their practices that mimic and resist their home institutions' education models.

The Case of Shanghai Vancouver Film School

Since its foundation in 2014, SHVFS has changed its operational objective from delivering an authentic Canadian film education to developing a new education model composed of both Indigenous and Western knowledge. Such change indicates a shift of SHVFS's attitude towards Western education from imitation to innovation.

On its official website, SHVFS advertises that it is the first and the only Sino-foreign cooperative school[13] of higher education that invites North American instructors to teach Hollywood film industry standards to Chinese students through the medium of English. From the

[13] According to the *Regulations of the People's Republic of China on Chinese-Foreign Cooperation in Running Schools*, a foreign educational institution must cooperate with a Chinese educational institution to establish an international branch campus within the territory of China. International branch campuses are called Chinese-foreign cooperatively run schools in the Chinese discourse.

neocolonial perspective, the use of "North American instructors", "Hollywood film industry standards", and "teaching language of English" implies the taken-for-granted higher quality of education SHVFS offers and constructs SHVFS as something superior to the domestic institutions. The interviews indicate that SHVFS has been capitalising on its home institution's reputation and Western education's public image, regardless of the fact that some aspects of Vancouver Film School's education model are not appropriate for the Chinese context. These inappropriate aspects have aroused different degrees of resistance from diverse stakeholders.

To build an international institution with high efficiency, SHVFS initially imported almost everything from Vancouver Film School, such as the curriculum system, the teaching mode, the assessment approach, the teaching facilities, and the instructors. Since the curriculum designed at Vancouver Film School was taught by the instructors from the home institution without modification, some programme aspects and teaching content, particularly those involving cultural elements, were perceived not to serve Chinese students' educational needs. For example, the Programmes of Writing for Film & Television and Acting for Film & Television required students to write or perform in English, while the students would most probably work in China after graduation. Likewise, the Programme of Makeup Design for Film & Television taught students the tactics of European and American makeup, whereas the students' target customers were Chinese. Also, since the majority of the students were Chinese who might not reach the required English language proficiency of the home institution, the use of English as the medium of instruction hindered students from mastering course content and participating fully in classroom activities. In addition, the foreign instructors could not properly evaluate students' scripts and performance without sufficient understanding of the Chinese culture and the Chinese film industry. All these aspects are deemed as cynical mimicry from the neocolonial perspective.

During the operation process, SHVFS senior managers gradually realised the urgency of localising curriculum and staffing and took corresponding measures. In past three years, SHVFS has supplemented the curriculum with the knowledge and skills essential for students' employment in the local workplace, which include but are not limited to Chinese makeup for the Programme of Makeup Design for Film & Television, and Chinese drama rehearsals for the Programme of Acting for Film & Television. Moreover, the instructors have encouraged students to base their work on traditional Chinese culture rather than on the Western cultures. Notably, in early 2021, the Programme of Sound Design for Visual Media conducted a pilot project by reorganising the teaching contents according to the requirements of different positions in the industry, replacing the previous step-by-step teaching approach in order of difficulty. With regard to staffing, SHVFS recruited more Chinese instructors with overseas degrees and domestic work experiences, rather than introducing foreign instructors from the home institution or those who worked in the Hollywood film industry. These new instructors are not only capable of implementing bilingual teaching, but also have connections with the domestic labour market, better preparing students for employment.

While Chinese instructors had little difficulty integrating into SHVFS, foreign instructors were forced to take actions that they felt uncomfortable with. In this case, they became targets of the use of power in bounded mimicry. Feeling uncomfortable in such situations, they maintained their sense of supremacy by constructing identity in opposition to the local management. In part, they did so by opposing some local management practices to which Chinese instructors were accustomed. For instance, in order to enhance its public reputation, SHVFS accepted many school visit requests from different levels of governments and other universities. While Chinese instructors had no issue with such visits, foreign instructors reported that their teaching activities

were interrupted. One foreign instructor expressed that "Such activities are directed by Shanghai University and are not related to Vancouver Film School's model." Although Chinese instructors far outnumber foreign instructors, foreign instructors also argued that they could better control SHVFS's education quality because the positions of SHVFS's vice president in charge of education and directors of all the programmes have been held by instructors seconded from Vancouver Film School. Emblematic of this view, one programme director asserted that "From Vancouver Film School's viewpoint, the vice president must be a white man from Canada. If Shanghai University wants the position to be served by a Chinese instructor, Vancouver Film School will be strongly against it." By grouping Chinese instructors and themselves into different categories, foreign instructors highlighted their importance and superior identity in SHVFS's operation.

In addition to identifying cynical mimicry and bounded mimicry as evidence of neocolonial practices in SHVFS, we also found that some elements transplanted from Vancouver Film School proved to be unsuccessful when being implemented in SHVFS, leading to failed mimicry. One such element is the credentials SHVFS issues to students. After completing the required coursework, SHVFS students are offered two diplomas: one bearing the name of Vancouver Film School and the other bearing the name of SHVFS. When interviewed, foreign instructors reported that students who graduated from Vancouver Film School are assessed by the local film labour union in terms of the knowledge and skills they acquire and are provided with work opportunities accordingly. Therefore, they do not care much about the credentials they receive. However, Chinese culture attaches great importance to education and does not recognise diplomas to be as good as degrees; thus, most students prefer to study for the latter, which SHVFS does not offer. Given this preference, it is rather difficult for SHVFS to recruit the target number of students,

posing a threat to SHVFS's sustainable development. Additionally, different from Vancouver Film School that has committed to academic freedom, SHVFS has striven to maintain political correctness on campus besides academic freedom. One senior manager pointed out that "Foreign instructors should conduct self-censorship when talking about topics such as the political system in China, the leadership of Chinese Communist Party, and the status of Taiwan. They should not make any anti-Chinese or anti-communism comments or remarks to split the country according to the laws in China. We have written this rule in their contracts. If they fail to do so, we will dismiss them immediately." From these descriptions, we can imply that although SHVFS can easily duplicate Vancouver Film School's physical appearance, it is impossible to transfer its home institution's spiritual essence to China.

The Case of Algonquin College-Kuwait

Since it began operating in 2015, AC-Kuwait has followed Algonquin College's educational model to provide students with advanced knowledge in line with international standards. While having made some adaptations in staffing and curriculum to accommodate the local conditions, AC-Kuwait's education quality has been strictly controlled by its home institution.

According to its official website, AC-Kuwait is Kuwait's first Canadian college approved by the Private Universities Council, a government organisation in charge of quality assurance at all private institutions in the country. The phrase "Kuwait's first Canadian college" highlights AC-Kuwait's international image and signals the higher quality of education AC-Kuwait offers compared to domestic institutions and IBCs operated by other countries. Without adequate evidence, Orient Education Services assumed that Canadian education would be very well received in Kuwait and subsequently established AC-Kuwait in cooperation with Algonquin College in Canada. While this cooperation was well-intended, AC-Kuwait borrowed elements from

Algonquin College that could not be successfully transferred to AC-Kuwait. AC-Kuwait's implementation of Algonquin College's staff recruitment requirements, curriculum system, and practice of granting students diplomas contributed to all three forms of mimicry.

AC-Kuwait's staffing reflects the institution's cynical mimicry. At its inception, AC-Kuwait recruited many instructors from Canada and the United States according to Algonquin College's requirements. These instructors could speak fluent English and deliver professional knowledge in student-centred education. However, they were not sensitive to AC-Kuwait students' learning styles inherited from traditional education and could not respond to students' requests for Arabic explanations of important concepts. Therefore, AC-Kuwait turned to recruit bilingual instructors who understood both Eastern and Western education. Most of these instructors were originally from Kuwait and other Middle Eastern countries but received higher education in developed economies. They could easily teach in English and provide Arabic explanations to facilitate students' understanding of key points. Moreover, their familiarisation of the local culture enabled them to teach in a culturally responsive manner.

Like AC-Kuwait's initial staffing practices, the school's curriculum also reflects cynical mimicry. Senior managers reported that at the start of each semester, Algonquin College sends syllabi, slides, and assessments for each course to enable AC-Kuwait instructors to deliver the pre-designed curriculum. However, as instructors noted, this curriculum is sometimes inapplicable in the Kuwaiti context. One obvious example is that the students had to learn about Canadian taxation, whereas Kuwait did not have taxation at all. In addition, the curriculum contained contents about Canadian business law, labour law, and auditing rules, while most students after graduation would work in Kuwaiti or American companies with different laws. After reporting these issues to Algonquin College, AC-Kuwait instructors began to teach Kuwaiti or American content,

whichever applicable. Despite making such changes to address the students' and instructors' concerns about curriculum, AC-Kuwait has nevertheless maintained high consistency with Algonquin College.

In bounded mimicry, foreign instructors at AC-Kuwait, particularly those possessing Canadian citizenship, developed a sense of superiority by comparing themselves with the local instructors and students. When discussing local instructors' teaching, one foreign instructor mentioned that

> Some of them are good, but some of them are not, because they don't speak English properly. Their grammar is completely off. They may teach in Arabic instead of English. The students come here to speak fluent English and to get the Canadian education. If they go to Canada, they need to understand others. So it does not make sense to me that you get people who don't speak fluent English. Ironically, students are closer with them.

Through saying this, the participant highlighted the need for students to be closer to English speaking instructors rather than local instructors. Moreover, by confining teaching quality to instructors' fluency of English, this foreign instructor contended that English-speaking instructors would more significantly contribute to students' academic development. Because language and culture are intertwined, the influence of English is hegemonic. When talking about students' learning, several foreign instructors mentioned the issue of plagiarism. They assumed that students in different parts of the world should know about and should adhere to the Western model of academic integrity, which is actually not the case. Therefore, they had to revise Algonquin College's policy to teach students about plagiarism and give them more chances to avoid this issue. One senior manager described,

> The students are completely oblivious to the concept of plagiarism. From their first assignment, they start to plagiarise. They cut and paste several websites and put it down as their own work. The students don't know this is unacceptable. To address this issue, we have to adapt to a certain extent, because the reality is that Algonquin College's policies are built on the assumptions that the students were taught plagiarism in schools. But we can make no such assumptions here.

Finally, the interviews illustrated that Algonquin College's practice of granting diplomas could not be successfully transferred to AC-Kuwait and presents an example of failed mimicry. Like SHVFS, AC-Kuwait can only issue diplomas to students after they meet the graduation requirements. However, diplomas are also not popular in the Kuwaiti labour market, because "students with a degree usually get better payment when they work, and some jobs do not accept students with a diploma." According to AC-Kuwait instructors, therefore, only low-achievers who are ineligible for degree programmes are likely to submit their applications to AC-Kuwait. Consequently, it is challenging for AC-Kuwait to recruit the target number of students. To increase student enrollment and ensure its financial sustainability, AC-Kuwait has lowered their admission standards. Given students' academic weaknesses, AC-Kuwait established the Programme of English and Skills Foundations, which is unavailable at Algonquin College, to enhance students' English language proficiency, mathematics, and information technology skills and to prepare students for their success in the diploma programmes. In addition to lowering the admission standards and adding the foundational programme, the restricted academic freedom at AC-Kuwait presents a third form of failed mimicry. The political system of authoritarianism and the official religion of Islam in Kuwait enforce the instructors to avoid talking about politically sensitive topics such as democracy, freedom, terrorism, human rights, and culturally sensitive issues such as

religions other than Islam. We can predict that, in the foreseeable future, the Western-style academic freedom will be difficult to achieve at AC-Kuwait.

Discussion

This study investigated how SHVFS and AC-Kuwait complied with and resisted their home institutions' education models through the lens of neocolonialism. From the cross-case analysis, several similarities and differences between the two cases are observed. In this section, we highlight these similarities and differences in relation to neocolonialism in education.

Both SHVFS and AC-Kuwait practice neocolonialism. In order to increase education access for domestic students and cultivate qualified professionals for economic growth, SHVFS and AC-Kuwait were established to mimic the educational models at two Canadian postsecondary institutions. Both SHVFS and AC-Kuwait regard Western education as superior and differentiate themselves from their domestic institutions. Their establishment reproduced the global knowledge hierarchy where the West is seen as the centre and the East is perceived as the semi-periphery or periphery. This finding is evidenced by the two IBCs' marketing strategy of portraying their international images on their official websites. Note that despite the view of Western education as superior, since both SHVFS and AC-Kuwait are not degree granting institutions, their products are devalued by some potential students and parents, interrogating the value of IBCs.

Although SHVFS and AC-Kuwait continue to practice neocolonialism, both institutions have attempted to resist their home institutions' neocolonial influences. SHVFS and AC-Kuwait were designed to duplicate their home institutions' education models. However, after several years' operation, they localised some teaching and learning practices that were deemed inappropriate in their importing countries. Echoing Nguyen and her colleagues' (2009) research finding, our study confirms that the wholesale importation of Western education in the Asian context is improper.

Despite being perceived as superior, Western education may be a mismatch when transferred wholesale to other countries. Rooted in different political, economic, and cultural contexts from those of their exporting countries, SHVFS and AC-Kuwait exercised agency and power to resist their home institutions' neocolonial influences. Having recognised the ineffectiveness of implementing the original educational models, the two IBCs chose to incorporate Indigenous knowledge into Western education and attempted to build a third space in which students can interact with multiple perspectives and systems of knowledge.

In their efforts to resist their home institutions' neocolonial influences, SHVFS and AC-Kuwait differ in their degrees of agency as demonstrated by the different levels of localisation they enacted. Unlike SHVFS that conducted radical reforms in curriculum, AC-Kuwait was less empowered to facilitate the localisation process. Faced with unprecedented global changes, the Chinese government advised postsecondary institutions to introduce and reconstruct Western education to enhance the education system's competitiveness in the recent years (Du, 2020). Responding to the government's advocacy, SHVFS successfully negotiated with Vancouver Film School to implement its localisation scheme and urged the instructors to develop tailored courses for Chinese students. By contrast, AC-Kuwait has relied heavily on Algonquin College in terms of curriculum development. Hence, the changes in its localised curriculum have been minimal.

Foreign instructors at both SHVFS and AC-Kuwait responded similarly to feelings of alienation and marginalisation: they constructed their identity in opposition to Others to maintain a sense of superiority. Previous research (e.g., Dunn & Wallace, 2006; Gopal, 2011) illustrates that foreign instructors encounter numerous challenges in transnational teaching. Occasionally, they have to comply with the social norms in their importing countries, which contradicts their values and Eurocentric assumptions that Western cultures are superior to others. To justify their presence

at IBCs, foreign instructors at both SHVFS and AC-Kuwait stress the differences between the Global South and the Global North and construct a binary of "us versus them." They tend to devalue the local cultures and try to educate, liberate, and civilise locals by reinforcing their values and practices. To go beyond binary oppositions, IBCs managers should promote intercultural understanding and harmonious integration of instructors and students from different cultural backgrounds and be creative about constructing a hybrid third space.

A final similarity between SHVFS and AC-Kuwait concerns their response to Western ideologies. When adopting Western approaches to pedagogy, SHVFS and AC-Kuwait resisted foreign ideologies that are deemed inappropriate for their political and cultural contexts. In order to decrease the impact of Western liberal ideologies, SHVFS and AC-Kuwait decolonialised[14] the curriculum predesigned at their home institutions by making instructors cautious about certain political and cultural topics and infusing the curriculum with their respective Communist or Islamic values. This culturally relevant teaching strategy determines the rare interplay between Western ideology and the local politics at IBCs' importing countries.

Conclusion

This article concludes that the two Canadian IBCs modernise and internationalise the postsecondary education system in their importing countries but meanwhile serve as spaces reinforcing global knowledge hierarchy and educational inequality. However, rather than passively receiving the neocolonial influences from the Global North, IBCs in the Global South exercise their agency when mimicking their home institutions' educational model. They tend to resist liberal ideologies and teaching contents irrelevant to the local context while employing Western

[14] To decolonise is to deconstruct the colonising power of one group on another. It is to democratise and to liberalise knowledge, history, culture, and most importantly, people's minds.

trained academics to deliver the predesigned curriculum. Consequently, IBCs are shaped as a third space for students to engage with different knowledge systems.

Our research results are of theoretical and practical significance for studies about IBCs. From the theoretical perspective, they validate Siltaoja, Juusola, and Kivijarvi's (2019) recent categorisation of mimicry and complicate discussions about neocolonialism in transnational education, which is an underexplored research area. From the practical perspective, it provides first-hand experience for decolonising Western education and stimulates IBC managers to critically analyse IBCs' relationships with their home institutions. One limitation of this study is that it only investigated teaching at two vocational education IBCs. Building upon this study, we encourage future research to explore how teaching, research, and social services at research-intensive IBCs are impacted by their home institutions and the local contexts. Exploring what third spaces IBCs are creating after bringing in knowledge of the local culture and mixing it with Western perspectives offers another research direction. Moreover, scholars can investigate if IBCs are benefiting their home institutions' internationalisation by bringing in the knowledge gained from the third spaces. These investigations will yield greater insights to the broader topic of neocolonialism in education.

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Chapter Seven: Discussion and Conclusion

The previous chapters presented the three manuscripts of this dissertation. In the final chapter, I first discuss the key findings of this study and then draw implications for other international branch campuses to address the managerial challenge of global integration and local responsiveness. I conclude this dissertation with limitations of this study and directions for future research.

General Discussion

When starting my doctoral project, I proposed to explore international branch campuses' strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness. Specifically, I attempted to answer three research questions: (1) What strategies do international branch campuses established by Canadian postsecondary education institutions use to address the managerial challenge of global integration and local responsiveness, including the strategies used during the COVID-19 pandemic? (2) What factors influence these international branch campuses' strategies for addressing the managerial challenge of global integration and local responsiveness? (3) When balancing global integration and local responsiveness, do Canadian international branch campuses practise neocolonialism, and if so, how do they mimic and resist their home institutions' neocolonial influences? In this section, I summarise and discuss the key findings responding to these research questions.

This study confirms previous research (e.g., Farrugia & Lane, 2012; Franklin & Alzouebi, 2014; Healey, 2018; Miller-Idriss & Hannauer, 2011) highlighting the importance of balancing global integration and local responsiveness in managing international branch campuses. On the one hand, international branch campuses must legitimise their existence in the host countries by adapting to the local requirements, and on the other hand, they have to maintain legitimacy with their home institutions by providing students with equivalent learning experiences (Silver, 2015). Conversely, if neglecting the local requirements in their host countries, international branch

campuses may face the accusation of cultural imperialism and/or neocolonialism. And if completely deviating from their home institutions' standards, they will arouse students' concern about the authenticity of their credentials (Shams & Huisman, 2012). Therefore, international branch campuses must take a stance between global integration and local responsiveness, given the different regulatory, social, and cultural environments in their home and host countries.

Key Findings for Research Question 1

The first research question was proposed to investigate the strategies international branch campuses use to address the managerial challenge of global integration and local responsiveness. The research findings in this study demonstrate that the three Canadian international branch campuses take different stances between global integration and local responsiveness in staffing, curriculum, research, and student services and accordingly adopt different strategies.

In the area of staffing, while the McGill MBA Japan Program has maintained a high degree of global integration with the home institution throughout its operation, Shanghai Vancouver Film School and Algonquin College-Kuwait gradually moved from global integration to local responsiveness. As described in Chapter Four, the McGill MBA Japan Program has been inviting academic staff from McGill University's Desautels Faculty of Management to teach students in addition to recruiting one adjunct professor from another Japanese university. This fly-in model benefits the branch campus by maintaining the education quality and the authenticity of the degree it offers. However, it is expensive to implement, and cannot be easily applied to other international branch campuses that cannot afford the high expenses incurred (Silver, 2015). Rather than primarily employing staff from their home institutions, Shanghai Vancouver Film School and Algonquin College-Kuwait turned to recruit international instructors and bilingual instructors with overseas education. This strategy, on the one hand, helps reduce their operating cost, and on the

other hand, better serves the students' learning and employment. It is notable that in order to enhance seconded staff and international instructors' cross-cultural competency, both Shanghai Vancouver Film School and Algonquin College-Kuwait provide them with intercultural training, as has been done at other international branch campuses (Jauregui, 2013).

In the area of curriculum, the McGill MBA Japan Program and Algonquin College-Kuwait have kept a high level of consistency with their home institutions, whereas Shanghai Vancouver Film School has implemented the localisation strategy. The evidence shows that the McGill MBA Japan Program almost replicates the curriculum offered for the MBA Program at McGill University's Desautels Faculty of Management except integrating more Japanese business-related cases in the teaching, providing students with options of selecting elective courses from a double degree program organised by a Chinese university in partnership with McGill University's Desautels Faculty of Management, and having a study trip to the neighbouring countries. In a similar vein, Algonquin College-Kuwait borrows the syllabi, slides, and assessments for each course from Algonquin College, although it sometimes adjusts to accommodate their students' learning abilities or to adapt to the local religious, economic, and political background. By contrast, Shanghai Vancouver Film School has localised the curriculum by adding modules necessary for the local workplace, encouraging students to build their work on traditional Chinese culture, and inviting local experts to teach students practical job-seeking skills. Moreover, it implemented more radical reforms by reorganising the teaching sequence in accordance with the requirements of different positions in the local industry to better prepare students for the employment in the job market. Overall, the three Canadian international branch campuses have made more adaptations for the courses in soft sciences than in hard sciences. To ensure the comparability of their curriculum as that offered at their home institutions, the three international branch campuses adopt

different strategies to conduct quality assurance. For example, the McGill MBA Japan Program assumes its curriculum to be equivalent to that provided at its home institution since they employ the same group of instructors to teach almost the same content. Therefore, it does not take any special measures to control the education quality at the branch campus. However, given the many changes that have been made, Shanghai Vancouver Film School asks instructors seconded from Vancouver Film School to serve as the vice dean and programme directors and asks them to control the academic standards. Different from Shanghai Vancouver Film School, Algonquin College-Kuwait meets regularly with and submits annual assessment to quality assurance staff at Algonquin College to assure its academic quality.

In the area of research, all the three Canadian international branch campuses investigated in this study have not included this dimension due to their mission of cultivating qualified working professionals for contributing to the economic growth in their host countries. Like the majority of international branch campuses that are inactive in research (Lane, 2011; Pohl & Lane, 2018), the McGill MBA Japan Program, Shanghai Vancouver Film School, and Algonquin College-Kuwait have prioritised teaching in the development process. They do not have strong motivation to invest in research activities in addition to responding to their joint venture partner or instructors' requests for institutional support. However, the importance of research is growing for international branch campuses (Crosling, Edwards, & Schroder, 2008; Lane, 2011a). Considering the long-term benefits, I recommend that they get involved in research projects investigating the development of local industries. Such endeavours will not only deepen their instructors' understanding of the local contexts, but also strengthen their relationships with relevant stakeholders (Critchley & Saudelli, 2015; Lane & Pohl, 2020).

In the area of student services, the McGill MBA Japan Program, Shanghai Vancouver Film School, and Algonquin College-Kuwait have implemented a localisation strategy. As institutions with fewer programmes, the three Canadian international branch campuses cannot afford to offer student services at the same level as their home institutions. Despite having limited resources, the McGill MBA Japan Program and Algonquin College-Kuwait establish several student centres such as the Writing Centre, the Math Centre, and the Health Clinic, and Shanghai Vancouver Film School shares the facilities and student services with its joint venture partner with the aim to improve their students' learning experiences. According to the research results, while the students at Shanghai Vancouver Film School and Algonquin College-Kuwait are very satisfied with the services they receive, the students at the McGill MBA Japan Program are somewhat dissatisfied with fewer student services. Therefore, how to meet students' demand for more diverse services remains a question for the McGill MBA Japan Program.

Key Findings for Research Question 2

The second research question was aimed to examine factors influencing international branch campuses' strategies for addressing the managerial challenge of global integration and local responsiveness. The research findings reveal that the three Canadian international branch campuses' strategies are influenced by the institutional forces in both their home and host countries at the macro level. At the micro level, their strategies are influenced by their students, home institutions, joint venture partners, and local competitors, albeit in different degrees.

With regard to the macro-level factors, the McGill MBA Japan Program, Shanghai Vancouver Film School, and Algonquin College-Kuwait's strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness are influenced by both their host and home countries' institutional forces. The McGill MBA Japan Program's globalisation strategy in curriculum is

impacted by the regulative pillar in Japan through the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science's policy provision of delivering equivalent courses to students as those of the home institution, whereas its localisation strategy of rescheduling the course delivery to weekends is facilitated by Japan's overwork culture. Different from the McGill MBA Japan Program, Shanghai Vancouver Film School and Algonquin College-Kuwait's localisation in curriculum is impacted by China's restrictions on academic freedom and Kuwait's Islamic culture and its limitation on freedom of speech. In addition, Shanghai Vancouver Film School and Algonquin College-Kuwait's localisation in staffing is impacted by China and Kuwait's social norm of networking through the normative pillar. The participants reported that local instructors' social network has a positive impact on students' employment, which constitutes one rationale for the two branch campuses' localisation of staffing. Algonquin College-Kuwait's localisation in staffing is also impacted by the regulative pillar in Kuwait, as Private Universities Council stipulates that private education institutions in Kuwait employ no less than 25% domestic labour. By contrast, Canada mainly impacts the three international branch campuses' globalisation strategy in staffing and curriculum through the student-centred education and high value attached to education quality under the normative pillar. As stated in Chapter Five, with the number increase of international branch campuses in the following years, Canadian government should develop quality assurance policies to ensure the quality of education provided overseas.

With regard to the micro-level factors, the McGill MBA Japan Program, Shanghai Vancouver Film School, and Algonquin College-Kuwait's strategies are influenced by their students, home institutions, joint venture partners, and local competitors, among which students have the most extensive and profound impact. Students are customers of the education services provided by international branch campuses. Therefore, their education background and education

demands are taken into full consideration when the three Canadian international branch campuses design their strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness. For example, the McGill MBA Japan Program has fulfilled students' expectations by employing instructors from McGill University's Desautels Faculty of Management to teach and transplanting the curriculum from the home institution. Rescheduling the course delivery from weekday nights to weekends is also intended to accommodate the schedule of students who have full-time jobs in Japan. Moreover, to offer students more elective courses, the McGill MBA Japan Program has made arrangements such as allowing students to transfer to the home institution, selecting courses from a double-degree program organised by the School of Management at Zhejiang University in China in partnership with McGill University's Desautels Faculty of Management, having an optional study trip to the neighbouring countries, and taking one elective course after graduation to help students achieve comparable learning outcomes as those of their counterparts in the home institution. Likewise, to provide an authentic Canadian film education to students, Shanghai Vancouver Film School borrowed the curriculum system and teaching model from Vancouver Film School. Later on, to better prepare students for their employment in the labour market, it facilitated the curriculum localisation by reorganising the teaching sequence in accordance with the requirements of different positions in the local industry. In spite of employing Canadian instructors from the home institution to teach in the initial stage, Shanghai Vancouver Film School gradually replaced many Canadian instructors and teaching assistants with Chinese ones after noticing students' struggles with English and their disconnection with the Chinese film industry. In the case of Algonquin College-Kuwait, the Canadian and American instructors were also replaced by bilingual instructors due to students' difficulty with learning in English. Moreover, its teacher training includes sessions to raise instructors' awareness of students' learning habits inherited from

traditional education. Overall, the three Canadian international branch campuses do consider students' education backgrounds and development needs when balancing global integration and local responsiveness, particularly in the areas of staffing and curriculum.

In addition to students, the home institutions have a great impact on the three Canadian international branch campuses' strategies. Regarding the case of the McGill MBA Japan Program that does not have a local partner, McGill University's Desautels Faculty of Management can decide almost every aspect of the operation of the branch campus. Such aspects include adopting the fly-in model in staffing, replicating the curriculum delivered at the home institution, rescheduling the course delivery, providing alternative options for the elective courses, and ignoring the dimension of research. In comparison, the home institution's impact on Algonquin College-Kuwait's strategies is less. In terms of staffing, Algonquin College recruited many Canadian and American instructors for Algonquin College-Kuwait in the beginning, but since Algonquin College-Kuwait has turned to recruit bilingual instructors, Algonquin College is getting less involved in the recruitment. With respect to curriculum, Algonquin College sends the teaching materials to Algonquin College-Kuwait before each semester starts and is responsible for the quality assurance of education provided at Algonquin College-Kuwait. It is notable that the impact of Vancouver Film School on Shanghai Vancouver Film School's strategies is also less and is decreasing. In the area of staffing, Vancouver Film School sent its instructors and teaching assistants to Shanghai Vancouver Film School in the initial stage and later helped recruit international instructors from the North American film industry. However, under the new executive president's leadership, Vancouver Film School has not done much to support Shanghai Vancouver Film School's recruitment of Chinese instructors since 2019. Also, in the area of curriculum, Vancouver Film School exported the curriculum system and teaching model to

Shanghai Vancouver Film School when the branch campus was launched. But since Shanghai Vancouver Film School started to localise the curriculum, Vancouver Film School has only appointed the vice dean and programme directors to conduct the quality assurance, rather than engaging in the localisation process. Generally, the home institutions push their branch campuses to pursue the end of global integration in staffing and curriculum and do not promote the local responsiveness.

Joint venture partners are the third micro-level factor impacting the McGill MBA Japan Program, Shanghai Vancouver Film School, and Algonquin College-Kuwait's strategies. In her study investigating the sustainability of an American branch campus in Japan, Silver (2015) states that joint venture partners usually control the administrative aspects of international branch campuses, such as providing funding, maintaining facilities, purchasing supplies, marketing, and recruitment, and thus play an important role in international branch campuses' operation. Furthering Silver's (2015) finding, I identify the impact of joint venture partners on branch campuses' strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness. For instance, the decrease of financial investment provided by the local partner is one of the factors pushing Algonquin College-Kuwait to facilitate the localisation of staffing. By recruiting more bilingual instructors from Kuwait and other Middle Eastern countries, Algonquin College-Kuwait could cut down the personnel cost. In the case of Shanghai Vancouver Film School, the local partner's impact is more obvious. As described in Chapter Five, being founded as a teaching institution, Shanghai Vancouver Film School did not involve a research dimension until Shanghai University proposed to boost research capacity in film studies. To support the local partner to achieve its aspiration, Shanghai Vancouver Film School started to get involved in research, establishing the Cinematic Art Research Centre with a college affiliated with Shanghai University. Despite having

not initiated any research projects yet, the Cinematic Art Research Centre will probably conduct studies about the internationalisation of Chinese film in the following years. In the area of student services, Shanghai University has shared facilities and services with Shanghai Vancouver Film School, pushing the latter to pursue the end of local responsiveness. Although the McGill MBA Japan Program does not have a local partner at present, the programme director mentioned that he was looking for a Japanese university as the local partner with the aim to share facilities and services, which would foster the McGill MBA Japan Program's localisation of student services.

Local competitors also impact international branch campuses' strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness. It is notable that despite exerting minimal impact on Shanghai Vancouver Film School, local competitors greatly impact the operation of the McGill MBA Japan Program and Algonquin College-Kuwait. The academic directors at the McGill MBA Japan Program repeatedly mentioned that to maintain comparative advantages in the MBA education market in Japan, they select instructors from McGill University's Desautels Faculty of Management to teach at the branch campus and model the curriculum offered at the home institution. In other words, other MBA Programs offered by Japanese universities or international branch campuses of American universities push the McGill MBA Japan Program to pursue the global integration in staffing and curriculum. In the interviews, the participants at Algonquin College-Kuwait also reported the impact of their local competitors on the standardisation of curriculum. In contrast, the senior managers of Shanghai Vancouver Film School emphasise their uniqueness in the Chinese market and denied the existence of real competitors.

Key Findings for Research Question 3

The third research question asked about international branch campuses' neocolonial practices during the global integration and local responsiveness process. To respond to this research question,

this study revisited the data collected from Shanghai Vancouver Film School and Algonquin College-Kuwait. Therefore, I will only present the findings generated from these two cases.

The research results in this study confirm prior research (e.g., McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007; Shams & Huisman, 2012; Wilkins, 2011) that criticises international branch campuses practicing form of neocolonialism. Based on the findings presented in Chapter Six, I argue that while internationalising the postsecondary education system in their importing countries, Shanghai Vancouver Film School and Algonquin College-Kuwait serve as spaces reinforcing global knowledge hierarchy and educational inequality. However, it is worth noting that when mimicking their home institutions' educational models, the two Canadian international branch campuses also resist Western liberal ideologies and teaching contents in opposition to the local context or ideologies. Their resistance is reflected through Siltaoja, Juusola, and Kivijärvi's (2019) categorisation of three forms of mimicry, which include cynical mimicry, bounded mimicry, and failed mimicry.

In the initial stage, both curriculum and staffing at Shanghai Vancouver Film School and Algonquin College-Kuwait reflected cynical mimicry. In terms of curriculum, some teaching contents imported from the home institutions of Shanghai Vancouver Film School and Algonquin College-Kuwait were perceived not to serve the students' educational needs; nevertheless, they were still taught. For example, the Programmes of Writing for Film & Television at Shanghai Vancouver Film School required students to write in English, while the students would most probably work for the Chinese film industry after graduation. Similarly, the students at Algonquin College-Kuwait had to learn about taxation, whereas Kuwait did not have taxation at all. This is blatantly neocolonial. In terms of staffing, foreign instructors at the two Canadian international branch campuses could not respond to students' requests for explanations of important concepts

in their native languages. It was not until several years later that Shanghai Vancouver Film School and Algonquin College-Kuwait started to localise some aspects of the teaching and learning that were deemed inappropriate in their host countries. Specifically, they supplemented the curriculum with the knowledge and skills essential for students' employment in the local workplace and recruited bilingual instructors who could easily teach in English and provide explanations in their native languages whenever necessary.

Foreign instructors at Shanghai Vancouver Film School and Algonquin College-Kuwait encountered coercive use of power in bounded mimicry, but they maintained their sense of supremacy by constructing identity in opposition to Others. For instance, at Shanghai Vancouver Film School where Chinese instructors occupy a larger proportion of the teaching team, foreign instructors mentioned that compared to the local instructors, they could better control the education quality of the programmes. Likewise, foreign instructors at Algonquin College-Kuwait expressed that their higher level of English proficiency could contribute more to the students' academic development, although the students tended to establish closer relationships with the bilingual instructors. By grouping the locals and themselves into different categories, foreign instructors highlighted the importance of their presence in the operation of their institutions.

In addition to cynical mimicry and bounded mimicry, failed mimicry also exists in the two Canadian international branch campuses, as evidenced by some elements' unsuccessful transplantation from home institutions to host countries. Participants at both Shanghai Vancouver Film School and Algonquin College-Kuwait reported the negative impact of issuing diplomas on student recruitment and the problem of restricting academic freedom in classroom teaching. Academic freedom is one of the important features of Western education (Zhang, 2016). While adopting Western approaches to pedagogy, Shanghai Vancouver Film School and Algonquin

College-Kuwait attempted to deconstruct the curriculum imported from their home institutions by restricting discussions about politically and culturally sensitive topics. Instead, they infused the curriculum with their Communist or Islamic values, making it impossible to transfer their home institution's spiritual essence to their host countries.

Implications for Practice

This dissertation presents three Canadian international branch campuses' strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness and factors impacting their strategies. Through this study, I find that the three international branch campuses take different stances on global integration and local responsiveness in the areas of staffing, curriculum, research, and student services. Accordingly, their strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness are divergent due to the different socio-cultural contexts in their host countries and the various impacts of different stakeholders, although they all pursued the extreme of global integration in staffing and curriculum and preferred the extreme of local responsiveness in student services upon establishment. Based on the findings of this study, I highlight that for managers of international branch campuses, they should thoroughly and continuously evaluate the impacts of macro- and micro-level factors they face when making strategies for global integration and local responsiveness. I thereby provide the following implications for other international branch campuses that are formulating their organisational strategies to address this managerial challenge.

Firstly, reviewing their home and host countries' regulations and policies regarding international branch campuses is a good starting pointing for international branch campuses to determine their stances on global integration and local responsiveness, but they should not underestimate the impacts of social norms and cultural values in their host countries. Government policies and regulations have a great impact on the market dynamics of education (Wilkins, 2016).

Before establishing their institutions, managers of the McGill MBA Japan Program, Shanghai Vancouver Film School, and Algonquin College-Kuwait easily figured out the policy requirements of establishing international branch campuses in their host countries. For example, the programme director of the McGill MBA Japan Program mentioned that he was aware of the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science's policy of delivering equivalent courses to students as a designated location of a foreign university in Japan. The president of Algonquin College-Kuwait also reported Private Universities Council's stipulation that private education institutions in Kuwait should employ no less than 25% domestic labour. However, the impacts of some normative and cultural-cognitive pillars are not easy to identify. This is evidenced by the fact that managers of both Shanghai Vancouver Film School and Algonquin College-Kuwait neglected the positive impact of social networking on students' employment, resulting in the employment of seconded staff and international instructors in the initial stage. In addition, they both underrated the huge impact of degrees in the Asian culture. The diplomas conferred by Shanghai Vancouver Film School and Algonquin College-Kuwait have increased unexpected difficulty in their student recruitment, which remains to be solved. Therefore, international branch campuses are advised to identify the regulative, social, and cultural elements that may impact the operation of their institutions as early as possible.

Secondly, international branch campuses should always consider students' education foundations and development demands during the operation process and regularly evaluate students' satisfaction to make proper changes. The interviews indicate that managers and instructors can never assume that students at international branch campuses, particularly those in non-English speaking countries, have the same level of language proficiency and learning foundation as their counterparts in the home institutions. Therefore, I advise instructors to use

simple language to deliver simplified teaching contents designed at the home institutions in the initial stage or add additional courses to help students transit to the learning in formal programmes. Hiring bilingual instructors, the strategy that has been adopted by Shanghai Vancouver Film School and Algonquin College-Kuwait, is also effective for preparing students to achieve academic success. Meanwhile, instructors at international branch campuses should take students' development demands into consideration. When students tend to continue their studies in foreign countries or work for foreign companies after graduation, instructors should deliver more standardised curriculum. When students prefer to work in the local industries, instructors should integrate the knowledge and skills essential for the local market into their teaching. In addition, the three international branch campuses investigated in this study conduct student survey on a regular basis to understand students' satisfaction with the teaching and identify the possible barriers in students' learning, based on which international branch campuses can make further improvement. I believe that this strategy is worth sharing with other international branch campuses.

Thirdly, international branch campuses are encouraged to strengthen their relationships with home institutions and joint venture partners. According to Lane and Kinser's (2013), over half of the international branch campuses worldwide have partners in their host countries. For international branch campuses having joint venture partners, home institutions usually provide curriculum and instructors. Therefore, increasing interactions with home institutions can help international branch campuses to pursue global integration in different areas. The possible strategies include encouraging senior managers and programme directors to travel frequently to home institutions to talk about their operational issues and discuss possible solutions; advertising their achievements and benefits as international branch campuses to attract faculty members at home institutions to work for them; establishing mentorship programmes for faculty members at

international branch campuses and home institutions to enhance their teaching quality; creating buddy programmes for students at international branch campuses and home institutions to increase their intercultural communication, and requesting home institutions to provide online services to students at international branch campuses. For international branch campuses with joint venture partners, strengthening relationships with joint venture partners, which are responsible for funding, facilities, and other administrative aspects of international branch campuses, is also crucial. For example, the level of funding provided by joint venture partners determines whether international branch campuses can afford to employ international instructors. The existence of joint venture partners can also make it easier for international branch campuses to implement the localisation strategy in student services. Based on the interviews conducted in this study, I recommend the following strategies: (a) contributing to joint venture partners' education and research capacity building; (b) requesting joint venture partners to connect international branch campuses with the local industries; (c) requesting joint venture partners' support in the recruitment of bilingual instructors; and (d) co-organising student activities with joint venture partners. Note that during the relationship building process, there may be misunderstandings caused by the cultural and linguistic differences between home and host countries. Therefore, international branch campuses' managers and instructors should manage the differences and develop mutual understanding with home institutions and joint venture partners through a communicative approach.

Fourthly, international branch campuses should identify their position in their host countries by evaluating their advantages and disadvantages compared to the local competitors. Porter (1979) indicates that the level of industry rivalry among the existing competitors is one of the forces impacting the operation of new start-ups. The case of the McGill MBA Japan Program in this study shows the impact of the market demand and the local competitors on its stance in

staffing. Wilkins (2016, 2020) also identify local competitors' influence on international branch campuses' stances in student services. Other evidence (e.g., Becker, 2009; Wilkins, 2016) has repeatedly demonstrated that insufficient knowledge of the market competition results in the failure of international branch campuses. Hence, before entering the market, managers of international branch campuses should fully understand the nature of the market competition in their host countries. They need to research what students' expectations are about the curriculum, the teaching staff, the learning styles, and social facilities and what their local competitors are offering to students.

Limitations of This Study

Reflecting upon the entire research process, I acknowledge some limitations of this study, the most significant one of which is the absence of in person fieldwork at the McGill MBA Japan Program, Shanghai Vancouver Film School, and Algonquin College-Kuwait. Although I planned to conduct fieldwork at one of the three selected international branch campuses to observe classroom teaching and interview participants in person, the travel restrictions caused by the COVID-19 pandemic prevented me from flying to their host countries. Therefore, I had to cancel the on-site fieldwork and to conduct online interviews instead. The lack of on-site visits resulted in my loss of the chance to record the nuanced similarities and differences between international branch campuses and their home institutions. Moreover, online interviews created distance between researchers and participants, in spite of its advantages in cost effectiveness and flexibility.

Another limitation is the generalisability of the study. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), the objective of qualitative research is to understand participants' meaning making of the reality, rather than to discover context and value free knowledge. I am aware that the research results may not represent other senior managers, programme directors/programme coordinators,

instructors, students and alumni's interpretations of the three Canadian international branch campuses' strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness as well as factors impacting their strategies. The strategies adopted by these three international branch campuses may also not represent the strategies used by other Canadian international branch campuses. Hence, when designing strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness, other international branch campuses should carefully consider the conditions they face to avoid directly borrowing the strategies from the three international branch campuses.

Directions for Future Research

After writing the main body of this dissertation, I identify several directions for future research on the topic of international branch campuses. First, to test the multilevel framework constructed in Chapter Five, I advise scholars to conduct empirical studies of other Canadian international branch campuses or international branch campuses established by postsecondary education institutions in other countries. Particularly, international branch campuses involving a research dimension should be investigated to demonstrate how they integrate into the global research trends and satisfy the development demands of their host countries. Additionally, the interviews in this study reveal that finance and administration add complexities to international branch campuses' global integration and local responsiveness. Therefore, how to address these issues together with the global integration and local responsiveness in staffing, curriculum, research, and student services is also a direction for future research.

In addition, scholars can investigate academic staff's career development and work experiences at international branch campuses. This study demonstrates that while instructors at McGill University's Desautels Faculty of Management like to deliver intensive courses at the branch campus in Japan, instructors at Vancouver Film School do not have much interest in

relocation, as reported by other international branch campuses (Altbach, 2010; Liu & Lin, 2017). Therefore, Shanghai Vancouver Film School has to recruit many instructors from the international labour market as well as the host country. In this context, it is crucial to understand why different types of instructors choose to pursue their career at international branch campuses and how they experience their workplace. Such research will help international branch campuses' managers make appropriate recruitment strategies and provide proper support to retain instructors.

The third direction for future research is to identify the criteria for determining curriculum equivalence between international branch campuses and their home institutions. In most cases, instructors at international branch campuses teach a predesigned curriculum with the teaching materials having been developed at their home institutions (Liu & Lin, 2017). Meanwhile, the instructors must tailor their teaching to their host countries' political, economic, and cultural conditions and to students with different knowledge background and learning styles from students at the home institutions. After the curriculum adaptation has been made, students become concerned about the decrease of teaching quality, as one of their motivations to choose an international branch campus is to acquire international concepts and ways of thinking (Dobos, 2011). To ensure students' comparable learning outcomes, home institutions should make tremendous endeavours to measure curriculum equivalence between campuses. Nevertheless, assessing academic equivalence is complex, as it not only involves comparisons of content and assessment but also of relevance to local context and employment. Therefore, the criteria for home institutions to determine curriculum equivalence should be further studied.

Finally, future researchers are advised to explore international branch campuses' partnership development. As previously described, over half of the established international branch campuses have partners in their host countries. This study confirms the important role local

partners play in the operation of international branch campuses, and their impact on international branch campuses' strategies for balancing global integration and local responsiveness. But how the partnerships are established and maintained is underexplored. As Bordogna (2018) has already pointed out, to promote the successful and sustainable development of partnerships, we need to understand questions such as how the partnerships form, function, and change over time.

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Appendices

Appendix 1. Research Permission from the McGill MBA Japan Program

McGill

Request for Permission to Conduct Research Project about McGill MBA Japan Program

Dear Prof. Croitoru,

Warm greetings from Xiaoli Jing, a 2nd-year Ph.D. student under the supervision of Prof. Ratna Ghosh at the Department of Integrated Studies in Education in McGill University, Montreal, Canada. I am writing to seek your approval for conducting a research project on McGill MBA Japan Program.

My main research question is as a branch campus of a world-leading university that has been successfully operated for over twenty years, how the McGill MBA Japan Program has been providing comparable quality of education as that offered at the McGill MBA Program in Montreal while responding to the regulatory requirements and educational demands in Japan and the pull and push factors that influence its practices. To achieve this goal, I will invite the academic director, administrators, faculty members and students to participate in individual semi-structured interviews. The interview will last for about one hour and include questions regarding their perceptions about the curriculum, staffing and research at the McGill MBA Japan Program. Participants can answer these questions based on their own management/teaching/learning experiences at the program. I will keep all the data collected confidential and will not use any participants' names in the research report or publishable articles.

Please sign below and return a copy of this letter to me indicating whether or not you will give me the permission to conduct this research project.

Thank you for your kind consideration.

Sincerely,

Xiaoli

☒ I give permission to you to conduct the research project described above.

☐ I do not give permission to you to conduct the research project described above.

Typed name of Academic Director: Benjamin Croitoru	
Signature of Academic Director: 	Date: 2019-6-10

Appendix 2. Research Permission from Shanghai Vancouver Film School

McGill

Request for Permission to Conduct Research Project about the Shanghai Vancouver Film School

Dear Prof. Jiang ,

Warm greetings from Xiaoli Jing, a 3nd-year Ph.D. student under the supervision of Prof. Ratna Ghosh at the Department of Integrated Studies in Education in McGill University, Montreal, Canada. I am writing to seek your approval for conducting a research project on the Shanghai Vancouver Film School.

My main research question is as a successful international branch campus that has been operated for over five years, how Shanghai Vancouver Film School has been providing comparable quality of education as that offered at Vancouver Film School in Canada while responding to the regulatory requirements and educational demands in China and the pull-push factors that influence its practices. To achieve this goal, I will invite three senior leaders, three administrators, five faculty members, and eight students to participate in individual semi-structured interviews. The interview will last for about one hour and include questions regarding their perceptions about the curriculum, staffing, research, and student services at Shanghai Vancouver Film School. Participants can answer these questions based on their own management/teaching/learning experiences at the university. I will keep all the data collected confidential and will not use any participants' names in the research report or publishable articles.

Please sign below and return a copy of this letter to me indicating whether or not you will give me the permission to conduct this research project.

Thank you for your kind consideration.

Sincerely,

Xiaoli Jing

√ I give permission to you to conduct the research project described above.

__ I do not give permission to you to conduct the research project described above.

Typed name and position: Weimin Jiang, Executive President of Shanghai Vancouver Film School	
Signature: 蒋为民	Date: 2020-06-22

Appendix 3. Research Permission from Algonquin College-Kuwait

McGill

Request for Permission to Conduct Research Project about the Algonquin College, Kuwait Campus

Dear President McHardy,

Warm greetings from Xiaoli Jing, a Ph.D. candidate under the supervision of Prof. Ratna Ghosh at the Department of Integrated Studies in Education in McGill University, Montreal, Canada. I am writing to seek your approval for conducting a research project on the Algonquin College Kuwait Campus.

My main research question is as a successful international branch campus that has been operated for over ten years, how Algonquin College Kuwait Campus has been providing comparable quality of education as that offered at the Algonquin College in Canada while responding to the regulatory requirements and educational demands in Kuwait and the pull-push factors that influence its practices. To achieve this goal, I will invite four senior leaders, four administrators, eight faculty members, and eight students to participate in individual semi-structured interviews. The interview will last for about one hour and include questions regarding their perceptions about the curriculum, staffing, research, and student services at Algonquin College Kuwait Campus. Participants can answer these questions based on their own management/teaching/learning experiences at the university. I will keep all the data collected confidential and will not use any participants' names in the research report or publishable articles.

Please sign below and return a copy of this letter to me indicating whether or not you will give me the permission to conduct this research project.

Thank you for your kind consideration.

Sincerely,

Xiaoli

☒ I give permission to you to conduct the research project described above.

☐ I do not give permission to you to conduct the research project described above.

Typed name of president: Dave McHardy	
Signature: 	Date: 2020-11-03

Appendix 4. Email Invitation to Participants

Dear all,

Warm greetings from Xiaoli Jing, a Ph.D. student/candidate under the supervision of Professor Ratna Ghosh of the Department of Integrated Studies in Education at McGill University, Montreal, Canada. I am writing to invite you to participate in my study on _____ (the name of the international branch campus) as your perceptions about the operation of the _____ (the name of the international branch campus) will be very useful for my study.

Your involvement in the study would include participating in an audio-taped semi-structured interview that would take approximately 1 hour. The interview will include questions regarding your perceptions about the operation of the _____ (the name of the international branch campus), covering various aspects of your management/teaching/learning experiences.

If you are willing to share such information with me, please kindly contact me at jing.xiaoli@mail.mcgill.ca or contact my supervisor at ratna.ghosh@mcgill.ca. Your efforts and time will be highly appreciated!

Looking forward to your response!

With all best regards,

Xiaoli

Appendix 5. Participants' Consent Form

Consent Form

Principle researcher: Xiaoli Jing
PhD candidate of the Department of Integrated Studies in Education
jing.xiaoli@mail.mcgill.ca

Supervisor: Ratna Ghosh
Professor of the Department of Integrated Studies in Education
ratna.ghosh@mcgill.ca

Dear _____,

This is a letter inviting you to participate in a research project titled *Global integration and local responsiveness in managing international branch campuses: An empirical investigation of three Canadian cases*. It is my doctoral research project. My name is Xiaoli Jing, a PhD candidate under the supervision of Professor Ratna Ghosh of the Department of Integrated Studies in Education at McGill University, Montreal, Canada. As the principal investigator of this project, I would appreciate your participation and support in the research.

Purpose of the study
As a researcher at McGill University, I am doing this study to understand the strategies that the international branch campuses established by Canadian postsecondary institutions have been using to balance the tension between global integration and local responsiveness as well as the factors that influence the strategies.

Research involvement
Your involvement in this study would include participating in an audio-taped semi-structured interview that would take 1-1.5 hours. This interview will include questions regarding your perceptions about Shanghai Vancouver Film School's operation in providing comparable quality of education as that offered at the home institution in Canada, while responding to the regulatory requirements and educational demands in host country and the pull and push factors that influence its practices. The questions will cover various aspects of your management and teaching experience. The interview will be audio taped.

Confidentiality
These audio-recording collected from the interview will only be used for transcription and will be destroyed following transcription. Your identity will remain confidential as pseudonyms will be used in my dissertation, presentations, and publications that may arise from this study in the future. Specific place names that could potentially identify you will be changed in future publications as well. During the whole process of study, only my supervisor and I will have access to the data, as it will be stored in my personal laptop which is password protected and all data will be destroyed seven years after the completion of this research.

Potential risks
Please be assured that your participation in this study is completely voluntary. There are no anticipated risks or harms during the research process. You can refuse to answer any questions during the interview, stop the interview at any time, or withdraw from the study at any stage for any reason, without having any fear of penalty or feeling of guilt. Since the interview is conducted via Zoom or WeChat, please be aware that there is minimal risk of interception by Zoom or WeChat of the data transmitted via the Internet.

Communication of results
A summary of my research findings, as well as a full report will be sent to you in the future if you are interested in reading them. Please feel free to contact me if you have any questions about the research project.

If you have any questions or concerns regarding your rights or welfare as a participant in this research study, please contact the McGill Ethics Manager at lynda.mcneil@mcgill.ca or my supervisor, professor Ratna Ghosh at ratna.ghosh@mcgill.ca.

Sincerely,

Xiaoli Jing
Principal Investigator
Email: jing.xiaoli@mail.mcgill.ca
Tel: (438) 924-7025

Consent to Participate:
After having read the consent document and having received answers to any questions you may have, please sign below if you agree to participate in this study. Please keep one copy of this letter for your records. Thank you very much for your help. It would be my pleasure to have your collaboration in this research process.

Participant's Printed Name: _____
Participant's Signature: _____ Date: _____

Appendix 6. Semi-structured Interview Questions for Senior Managers at the McGill MBA Japan Program

Personal Information:

1. How many years have you been working at McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management?
2. How many years have you been working for the McGill MBA Japan Program? What motivated you to work for the McGill MBA Japan Program?
3. What are your responsibilities as the manager of the McGill MBA Japan Program?

Background Information about the McGill MBA Japan Program:

4. Do you know why McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management decided to establish a branch campus in Japan?
5. Do you know why McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management decided to operate the McGill MBA Japan Program independently rather than partnering with other local universities?
6. Could you introduce the establishment and the development process of the McGill MBA Japan Program?
7. What are McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management's responsibilities in the McGill MBA Japan Program's establishment and operation?
8. What is the relationship between the McGill MBA Japan Program and the MBA Program offered by McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management?
9. How did the McGill MBA Japan Program get its official status as an international branch campus in Japan?
10. What are the benefits for the McGill MBA Japan Program to get the official status as an international branch campus in Japan?
11. What support has Japanese government provided for the McGill MBA Japan Program's establishment and operation?
12. What are Japanese government's policies/regulations on international branch campuses' establishment and operation within its jurisdiction?
13. What support have Embassy of Canada in Tokyo and the Government of Quebec provided for the McGill MBA Japan Program's establishment and operation?
14. What are Canadian government's policies/regulations on establishing and operating international branch campuses overseas?
15. Who are the major competitors of the McGill MBA Japan Program in Japan? How have they influenced the operation of the McGill MBA Japan Program?

Specific Questions about Staffing, Curriculum, and Research:

16. Could you briefly introduce the teaching team at the McGill MBA Japan Program?
17. How many instructors are employed from the home institution to teach in Japan? Why does the McGill MBA Japan Program employ these instructors from the home institution?
18. What are the criteria for employing instructors from the home institution to teach in Japan? What are the difficulties in employing instructors from the home institution to teach in Japan?
19. How many instructors at the McGill MBA Japan Program are recruited in Japan? Why does the McGill MBA Japan Program employ these instructors in Japan?
20. What are the criteria for hiring instructors in Japan? What are the difficulties in employing

and managing these local instructors?

21. How many administrative staff are there in the McGill MBA Japan Program? How many of them are sent from McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management? How many of them are locally recruited?
22. Could you briefly introduce the curriculum offered by the McGill MBA Japan Program?
23. Does the McGill MBA Japan Program deliver the same curriculum as that offered by the MBA Program in McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management? If the answer is yes, please kindly state the reasons for delivering the same curriculum in different contexts; if the answer for the first question is no, please kindly present what changes have been made and why these changes have been made.
24. Do you think the quality of education offered at the McGill MBA Japan Program is equivalent to that offered by the MBA Program in McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management? What measures has the McGill MBA Japan Program taken to ensure the education quality?
25. Do the teaching staff at the McGill MBA Japan Program conduct research activities in Japan? If yes, what research projects have been done?
26. What achievement has the McGill MBA Japan Program made since its establishment?
27. What challenges have the McGill MBA Japan Program encountered since its establishment? How did the McGill MBA Japan Program address these challenges?

Appendix 7. Semi-structured Interview Questions for Program Directors at the McGill MBA Japan Program

Personal Information:

1. How many years have you been working at McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management?
2. How many years have you been working for the McGill MBA Japan Program? What motivated you to work for the McGill MBA Japan Program?
3. When did you start to work as the academic director of the McGill MBA Japan Program? What are your responsibilities as the academic director?

Specific Questions about Staffing, Curriculum, and Research:

Staffing

4. Could you briefly introduce the teaching team at the McGill MBA Japan Program?
5. How many instructors are hired from the home institution to teach in Japan per academic year? Why does the McGill MBA Japan Program hire the teaching staff from the home institution to teach in Japan, considering the huge cost and large geographical and cultural distance?
6. What are the criteria for hiring instructors from the home institution to teach in Japan? What are the difficulties in hiring instructors from the home institution to teach in Japan?
7. How many instructors are recruited in Japan? Why does the McGill MBA Japan Program employ these instructors?
8. What are the criteria for hiring instructors in Japan? What are the difficulties in employing and managing these local instructors?
9. What are students' expectations about the teaching staff at the McGill MBA Japan Program? Do they want all the instructors to be sent from the home institution or they would like to have some instructors from Japan?
10. Does Japanese government have any policies/regulations regarding the staffing in international branch campuses? If yes, what are the regulations?
11. Does Canadian government have any policies/regulations regarding the staffing in international branch campuses established by Canadian universities? If yes, what are the regulations about?
12. Besides the factors mentioned above, are there any external factors compel the McGill MBA Japan Program to hire teaching staff from the home institution to deliver the courses? If yes, what are they?
13. How many administrative staff are there in the McGill MBA Japan Program? How many of them are sent from the home institution?
14. How many of them are locally recruited? Why does the McGill MBA Japan Program choose to employ instructors and administrative staff from Japan?

Curriculum

15. What are the educational objectives of the McGill MBA Japan Program? Are these educational objectives identical to those of the MBA Program in McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management?
16. Could you briefly introduce the curriculum offered by the McGill MBA Japan Program?
17. Does the McGill MBA Japan Program deliver the same curriculum as that offered by the

MBA Program in McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management? If the answer is yes, please kindly state the reasons for delivering the same curriculum in different contexts; if the answer for the first question is no, please kindly present what changes have been made and why these changes have been made.

18. What are the students' expectations about the curriculum offered by the McGill MBA Japan Program? Do they expect to receive the same curriculum as that offered by the MBA Program in McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management?
19. Does Japanese government have any policies/regulations regarding the quality of education offered by international branch campuses? If yes, what are the regulations?
20. Does Canadian government have any policies/regulations regarding the quality of education offered by international branch campuses established by Canadian universities? If yes, what are the regulations?
21. Besides the above-mentioned factors, are there any other factors impact the McGill MBA Japan Program to deliver the same curriculum as that offered by McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management? If yes, what are they?
22. I noted from the website that the courses at the McGill MBA Japan Program are delivered during weekends, whereas the courses at the McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management are delivered at weekday nights. Why did the McGill MBA Japan Program make such change?
23. For a same course, are the teaching materials used at the McGill MBA Japan Program same as those offered by the MBA Program in McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management? Why or why not?
24. Are the teaching methods used by instructors at the McGill MBA Japan Program same as those used by the MBA Program in McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management? Why or why not?
25. Are the assessment approaches used by instructors at the McGill MBA Japan Program same as those used by the MBA Program in McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management? Why or why not?
26. Besides the teaching materials, teaching methods, and assessment approaches, what other factors do you think are important for ensuring the education quality of the McGill MBA Japan Program?
27. Do you think the quality of education offered at the McGill MBA Japan Program is equivalent to that offered by the MBA Program in McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management? What measures has the McGill MBA Japan Program taken to ensure the education quality?

Research

28. Do instructors at the McGill MBA Japan Program conduct research activities in Japan? If yes, what research projects have been done?
29. Does the McGill MBA Japan Program provide any incentives for the instructors to conduct research activities in Japan?
30. Does McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management provide any incentives for the instructors to conduct research activities in Japan?
31. What are the students' expectations about the McGill MBA Japan Program's research dimension?

Appendix 8. Semi-structured Interview Questions for Instructors at the McGill MBA Japan Program

Personal Information:

1. How many years have you been working at McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management?
2. How many years have you been working for the McGill MBA Japan Program?
3. What motivated you to teach for the McGill MBA Japan Program?
4. Could you briefly introduce the courses you have taught for the McGill MBA Japan Program?

Specific Questions about Staffing, Curriculum, and Research:

Staffing

5. Could you briefly introduce the teaching team at the McGill MBA Japan Program?
6. How many instructors are hied from the home institution to teach in Japan per academic year? Do you know why the McGill MBA Japan Program would like to hire the instructors from the home institution to teach in Japan despite the huge cost?
7. How many instructors are recruited in Japan? Do you know why the McGill MBA Japan Program would like to hire these instructors?
8. What are students' expectations about the teaching staff at the McGill MBA Japan Program? Do they want all the instructors to be sent from the home institution or they would like to have some instructors in Japan?
9. Does McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management or the McGill MBA Japan Program provide any guideline or training for cross-cultural teaching in Japan? If yes, could you please describe them in detail.
10. What difficulties have you encountered when teaching for the McGill MBA Japan Program? How did you address them?

Curriculum

11. Could you briefly introduce the curriculum offered by the McGill MBA Japan Program?
12. Do you think the McGill MBA Japan Program deliver the same curriculum as that offered by the MBA Program in McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management? If the answer is yes, please kindly state the reasons for delivering the same curriculum in different contexts; if the answer for the first question is no, please kindly present what changes have been made and why these changes have been made.
13. Do you think your teaching at the McGill MBA Japan Program is same as your teaching in McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management? If no, what changes have you made?
14. Are your teaching materials prepared for the McGill MBA Japan Program same as those used in McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management? If yes, why? If no, what changes have you made?
15. Are your teaching methods used at the McGill MBA Japan Program same as those used in McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management? If yes, why? If no, what changes have you made?
16. Are your assessment approaches used at the McGill MBA Japan Program same as those used in McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management? Why or why not?
17. What additional efforts have you made to enhance the teaching for the McGill MBA Japan

Program?

18. What are students' expectations about the curriculum offered by the McGill MBA Japan Program? Do they expect to receive the same curriculum as that offered by the MBA Program in McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management?
19. Do you think the students are satisfied with the curriculum offered by the McGill MBA Japan Program? If yes, what efforts have contributed to this satisfaction? If not, what can be done to further improve the curriculum?
20. Do you think the quality of education offered at McGill MBA Japan Program is equivalent to that offered by the MBA Program in McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management? Please give your explanations.

Research

32. Do you conduct research activities while teaching in Japan? If yes, what research projects have you done?
33. Does the McGill MBA Japan Program provide any incentives for you to conduct research activities in Japan?
34. Does McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management provide any incentives for you to conduct research activities in Japan?
35. What are students' expectations about the McGill MBA Japan Program's research dimension?

Appendix 9. Semi-structured Interview Questions for Students/Alumni at the McGill MBA Japan Program

Personal Information:

1. Why did you apply to study at the McGill MBA Japan Program?
2. Could you briefly introduce your study experience at the McGill MBA Japan Program?

Specific Questions about Staffing, Curriculum, and Research:

Staffing

3. How many instructors do you have at the McGill MBA Japan Program per academic year? How many of them are hired from the home institution to teach in Japan? How many of them are recruited in Japan?
4. What type of instructors do you prefer, instructors from McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management or instructors recruited in Japan?
5. How satisfied do you feel with the teaching delivered by instructors from McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management?
6. How satisfied do you feel with the teaching delivered by instructors recruited in Japan?

Curriculum

7. What courses have you taken at the McGill MBA Japan Program? Do you think these courses are the same as those offered by the MBA Program in McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management? What curriculum do you prefer, the curriculum delivered to McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management or the curriculum adapted to the Japanese context?
8. Do you think the teaching materials used at the McGill MBA Japan Program are the same as those offered by the MBA Program in McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management? If yes, why? If no, what changes have been made?
9. Do you think the teaching methods used at the McGill MBA Japan Program same as those used in McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management? If yes, why? If no, what changes have you made?
10. Do you think the assessment approaches used at the McGill MBA Japan Program same as those used in McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management? Why or why not?
11. How satisfied are you feel with the curriculum offered by the McGill MBA Japan Program? If yes, what efforts have contributed to this satisfaction? If not, what should be done to further improve the curriculum?
12. Do you think the quality of education offered at the McGill MBA Japan Program is equivalent to that offered by the MBA Program in McGill's Desautels Faculty of Management? Please give your explanations.

Research

13. As far as you know, do your instructors conduct research activities while teaching in Japan? If yes, what research projects have they done?
14. Do you expect your instructors to conduct research activities while teaching in Japan? Why or why not?

Appendix 10. Semi-structured Interview Questions for Senior Managers at Shanghai Vancouver Film School

Personal Information:

1. Could you please describe your work experiences at Shanghai Vancouver Film School?
2. What motivated you to work for Shanghai Vancouver Film School?
3. What are your responsibilities at Shanghai Vancouver Film School?

Background Information about Shanghai Vancouver Film School:

4. Could you please introduce the establishment and the development process of Shanghai Vancouver Film School?
5. Why did Vancouver Film School decide to establish a branch campus in China?
6. What are the reasons for Vancouver Film School to cooperate with Shanghai University to establish Shanghai Vancouver Film School?
7. What are Vancouver Film School's responsibilities in Shanghai Vancouver Film School's establishment and operation?
8. What are Shanghai University's responsibilities in Shanghai Vancouver Film School's establishment and operation?
9. Are there any conflicts emerging from the cooperation between Vancouver Film School and Shanghai University? If yes, what are the conflicts? How are they addressed?
10. What support has the Government of Shanghai provided for Shanghai Vancouver Film School's establishment and operation?
11. What are Chinese government and the Government of Shanghai's policies/regulations regarding international branch campuses' establishment and operation within its jurisdiction?
12. What support has the Government of British Columbia and the Embassy of Canada in Shanghai provided for Shanghai Vancouver Film School's establishment and operation?
13. What are Canadian government's policies/regulations on establishing and operating international branch campuses overseas?
14. Who do you think are the major competitors of Shanghai Vancouver Film School? Compared to the competitors, what are Shanghai Vancouver Film School's advantages and disadvantages?

Specific Questions about Staffing, Curriculum, Research, and Student Services:

1. Could you briefly introduce the teaching team at Shanghai Vancouver Film School?
2. How many instructors are hired from Vancouver Film School to teach in Shanghai? Why does Shanghai Vancouver Film School hire these instructors from the home institution?
3. What are the criteria for hiring instructors from the home institution to teach in Shanghai? What are the difficulties in hiring instructors from the home institution to teach in Shanghai?
4. How many instructors are recruited from Canada and other Western countries but not from Vancouver Film School? Why does Shanghai Vancouver Film School employ these instructors?
5. What are the criteria for hiring instructors from Canada and other Western countries? What are the difficulties in employing and managing these international instructors?
6. How many instructors are recruited from China? Why does Shanghai Vancouver Film School employ these international instructors?

7. What are the criteria for hiring instructors from China? What are the difficulties in employing and managing these instructors?
8. How many administrative staff are there in Shanghai Vancouver Film School? How many of them are hired from the home institution? How many of them are recruited from Canada and other Western countries? How many of them are employed from China?
9. Do you think the instructors at Shanghai Vancouver Film School have the same level of teaching capacity as those at Vancouver Film School? If not, what measures have been taken to improve the of instructors' teaching capacity at Shanghai Vancouver Film School?
10. Could you briefly introduce the programmes at Shanghai Vancouver Film School? Are they identical to the programmes offered at Vancouver Film School? If not, what changes have been made and why these changes have been made?
11. Could you briefly introduce the curriculum offered at Shanghai Vancouver Film School?
12. Does Shanghai Vancouver Film School deliver the same curriculum as that offered by Vancouver Film School? If the answer is yes, please kindly state the reasons for delivering the same curriculum in different contexts; if the answer for the first question is no, please kindly present what changes have been made and why these changes have been made.
13. Do you think the quality of education offered at Shanghai Vancouver Film School is equivalent to that offered by Vancouver Film School? What measures has Shanghai Vancouver Film School taken to ensure the education quality at Shanghai Vancouver Film School?
14. Do the teaching staff at Shanghai Vancouver Film School conduct research activities? If yes, what research projects have been done?
15. What student services does Shanghai Vancouver Film School provide to students? Are they similar to those in the home institution or to those in other institutions in China?
16. What achievement has Shanghai Vancouver Film School made since its establishment?
17. What challenges has Shanghai Vancouver Film School encountered since its establishment? How did Shanghai Vancouver Film School address these challenges?
18. What differences do you think exist between China and Canada? How do these differences impact the establishment and operation of Shanghai Vancouver Film School?

Appendix 11. Semi-structured Interview Questions for Programme Directors at Shanghai Vancouver Film School

Personal Information:

1. How many years have you been working for Shanghai Vancouver Film School? What motivated you to work at Shanghai Vancouver Film School?
2. Could you briefly introduce your work experiences at Shanghai Vancouver Film School? What are your responsibilities as the programme director?

Specific Questions about Staffing, Curriculum, Research, and Student Services:

Staffing

3. Could you briefly introduce the teaching team at your programme?
4. How many of the instructors in your programme are hired from Vancouver Film School? Why does Shanghai Vancouver Film School hire these instructors from the home institution, considering the huge cost and large geographical and cultural distance?
5. How many of the instructors are recruited from Canada and other Western countries? Why does Shanghai Vancouver Film School hire these instructors?
6. How many of the instructors are recruited from China? Why does Shanghai Vancouver Film School hire these instructors?
7. Do you think the instructors at Shanghai Vancouver Film School have the same level of teaching capacity as those at Vancouver Film School? If not, what measures have been taken to improve the of instructors' teaching capacity at Shanghai Vancouver Film School?

Curriculum

8. What are the educational objectives of your programme? Are these educational objectives same to those in Vancouver Film School?
9. Could you briefly introduce the curriculum offered by your programme?
10. Does your programme deliver the same curriculum as that offered at Vancouver Film School? If the answer is yes, please kindly state the reasons for delivering the same curriculum in different contexts; if the answer for the first question is no, please kindly present what changes have been made and why these changes have been made.
11. For a same course, are the teaching materials used at your programme same as those used at Vancouver Film School? If the answer is yes, please kindly state the reasons for using the same teaching materials in different contexts; if the answer for the first question is no, please kindly present what changes have been made and why these changes have been made.
12. What are the major teaching methods used at your programme? Are these teaching methods same as those used at Vancouver Film School? If the answer is yes, please kindly state the reasons for using the same teaching methods in different cultural contexts; if the answer for the first question is no, please kindly present what changes have been made and why these changes have been made.
13. What are the assessment approaches used at your programme? Are these assessment approaches same as those used at Vancouver Film School? If the answer is yes, please kindly state the reasons for using the same teaching materials in different contexts; if the answer for the first question is no, please kindly present what changes have been made and

why these changes have been made.

14. Do you think the education quality of your programme is equivalent to that offered at Vancouver Film School? What measures has your programme taken to ensure the education quality?
15. Are there any issues emerging from cross-cultural teaching and learning? If yes, what are the issues and how are they addressed?

Research

16. Do instructors at Shanghai Vancouver Film School conduct research activities? If yes, what research projects have been done?
17. Does Shanghai Vancouver Film School provide any incentives for the instructors to conduct research activities?
18. Does Vancouver Film School provide any incentives for the instructors to conduct research activities?
19. Does Shanghai University provide any incentives for the instructors to conduct research activities?
20. What are students' expectations about Shanghai Vancouver Film School's research dimension?

Student Services

21. What student services does Shanghai Vancouver Film School provide to students? Why does Shanghai Vancouver Film School provide these student services?
22. Are these student services similar to those offered at Vancouver Film School or to those in other institutions in China?

Additional Questions:

23. What differences do you think exist between China and Canada? How do these differences impact Shanghai Vancouver Film School's establishment and operation?
24. What challenges have Shanghai Vancouver Film School encountered since its establishment? How did Shanghai Vancouver Film School address these challenges?
25. What are the challenges that Shanghai Vancouver Film School has to deal with in the foreseeable future? How should they be addressed?

Appendix 12. Semi-structured Interview Questions for Instructors at Shanghai Vancouver Film School

Personal Information:

1. Could you briefly introduce your work experience at Shanghai Vancouver Film School?
2. What motivated you to teach at Shanghai Vancouver Film School?
3. What courses have you taught at Shanghai Vancouver Film School?

Specific Questions about Staffing, Curriculum, Research, and Student Services:

Staffing

4. Could you briefly introduce the teaching team at your programme?
5. How many of the instructors are hired from Vancouver Film School? Do you know why Shanghai Vancouver Film School has hired these instructors from the home institution, considering the huge cost and large geographical and cultural distance?
6. How many of the instructors are recruited from Canada and other Western countries? Do you know why Shanghai Vancouver Film School has recruited these instructors?
7. How many of the instructors are employed from China? Do you know why Shanghai Vancouver Film School has employed these instructors?
8. Does Shanghai Vancouver Film School provide any guideline or training for cross-cultural teaching in China? If yes, could you please describe them in detail.
9. What difficulties have you encountered when teaching for Shanghai Vancouver Film School? How did you address them?

Curriculum

10. Could you briefly introduce the curriculum offered by your programme?
11. Does your programme deliver the same curriculum as that offered at Vancouver Film School? If the answer is yes, please kindly state the reasons for delivering the same curriculum in different contexts; if the answer for the first question is no, please kindly present what changes have been made and why these changes have been made.
12. For a same course, are your teaching materials used at Shanghai Vancouver Film School same as those used at Vancouver Film School? If the answer is yes, please kindly state the reasons for using the same teaching materials in different contexts; if the answer for the first question is no, please kindly present what changes have been made and why these changes have been made.
13. What are the major teaching methods you use at Shanghai Vancouver Film School? Are these teaching methods same as those used at Vancouver Film School? If the answer is yes, please kindly state the reasons for using the same teaching methods in different cultural contexts; if the answer for the first question is no, please kindly present what changes have been made and why these changes have been made.
14. What are the assessment approaches you use at Shanghai Vancouver Film School? Are these assessment approaches same as those used at Vancouver Film School? If the answer is yes, please kindly state the reasons for using the same teaching materials in different contexts; if the answer for the first question is no, please kindly present what changes have been made and why these changes have been made.
15. Do you think the quality of education offered at Shanghai Vancouver Film School is

equivalent to that offered at Vancouver Film School? What measures has Shanghai Vancouver Film School taken to ensure the education quality?

16. Are there any issues emerging from the cross-cultural teaching and learning? If yes, what are the issues and how are they addressed?

Research

17. Do you conduct research activities? If yes, what research projects have you done?
18. Does Shanghai Vancouver Film School provide any incentives for you to conduct research activities?
19. Does Vancouver Film School provide any incentives for you to conduct research activities?
20. Does Shanghai University provide any incentives for you to conduct research activities?
21. What are students' expectations about Shanghai Vancouver Film School's research dimension?

Student Services

22. What student services does Shanghai Vancouver Film School provide to students? Why does Shanghai Vancouver Film School provide these student services?
23. Are these student services similar to those offered at Vancouver Film School or to those in other institutions in China?

Additional Questions:

24. What challenges have Shanghai Vancouver Film School encountered since its establishment? How did Shanghai Vancouver Film School address these challenges?
25. What are the challenges that Shanghai Vancouver Film School has to deal with in the foreseeable future? How should they be addressed?

Appendix 13. Semi-structured Interview Questions for Students/Alumni at Shanghai Vancouver Film School

Personal Information:

1. Why did you apply to study at Shanghai Vancouver Film School?
2. Could you briefly introduce your study experience at Shanghai Vancouver Film School?

Specific Questions about Staffing, Curriculum, and Research:

Staffing

3. How many instructors do you have at your programme? How many of them are hired from the home institution? How many of them are employed in Canada and other Western countries? How many of them are employed in Shanghai and other Middle Eastern countries?
4. What types of instructors do you prefer, instructors from the home institution, from Canada and other Western countries, or from China?
5. How satisfied do you feel with the teaching delivered by different types of instructors?

Curriculum

6. What courses have you taken at Shanghai Vancouver Film School? Do you think these courses are the same as those offered at the home institution? If the answer is yes, please kindly state the reasons for delivering the same courses in different contexts; if the answer for the first question is no, please kindly present what changes have been made and why these changes have been made.
7. Do you think the teaching materials used at Shanghai Vancouver Film School are the same as those offered at Vancouver Film School? If yes, why? If no, what changes have been made?
8. What are the major teaching methods used at Shanghai Vancouver Film School? Do you think these teaching methods are same as those used at the home institution? If the answer is yes, please kindly state the reasons for using the same teaching methods in different cultural contexts; if the answer for the first question is no, please kindly present what changes have been made and why these changes have been made.
9. What are the assessment approaches used at Shanghai Vancouver Film School? Do you think these assessment approaches are identical to those used at the home institution? If the answer is yes, please kindly state the reasons for using the same teaching materials in different contexts; if the answer for the first question is no, please kindly present what changes have been made and why these changes have been made.
10. How satisfied are you feel with the curriculum offered by Shanghai Vancouver Film School? If yes, what efforts have contributed to this satisfaction? If not, what should be done to further improve the curriculum?

Research

11. As far as you know, do your instructors conduct research activities? If yes, what research projects have they done?
12. Do you expect your instructors to conduct research activities? Why or why not?

Student Services

13. What student services does Shanghai Vancouver Film School provide? Why does Shanghai Vancouver Film School provide these student services?
14. Are these student services similar to those offered at Vancouver Film School or to those in other institutions in China?

Appendix 14. Semi-structured Interview Questions for Senior Managers at Algonquin College-Kuwait

Personal Information:

1. Could you please describe your work experiences at Algonquin College-Kuwait?
2. What motivated you to work at Algonquin College-Kuwait?
3. What are your responsibilities at Algonquin College-Kuwait?

Background Information about Algonquin College-Kuwait:

4. Could you please introduce the establishment and the development process of Algonquin College-Kuwait?
5. Why did Algonquin College in Ontario decide to establish a branch campus in Kuwait?
6. What are the reasons for Algonquin College in Ontario to cooperate with Orient Education Services to establish Algonquin College-Kuwait?
7. What are Algonquin College in Ontario's responsibilities in Algonquin College-Kuwait's establishment and operation?
8. What are Orient Education Services' responsibilities in Algonquin College-Kuwait's establishment and operation?
9. Are there any conflicts emerging from the cooperation between Orient Education Services and Algonquin College in Ontario? If yes, what are the conflicts? How are they addressed?
10. What support has Kuwaiti government provided for Algonquin College-Kuwait's establishment and operation?
11. What are Kuwaiti government's policies/regulations regarding international branch campuses' establishment and operation within its jurisdiction?
12. What support has Canadian government and the Embassy of Canada in Kuwait provided for Algonquin College-Kuwait's establishment and operation?
13. What are Canadian government's policies/regulations on establishing and operating international branch campuses overseas?
14. Who do you think are the major competitors of Algonquin College-Kuwait? Compared to the competitors, what are Algonquin College-Kuwait's advantages and disadvantages?

Specific Questions about Staffing, Curriculum, Research, and Student Services:

15. Could you briefly introduce the teaching team at Algonquin College-Kuwait?
16. How many instructors are hired from Algonquin College in Ontario to teach in Kuwait? Why does Algonquin College-Kuwait hire these instructors from the home institution?
17. What are the criteria for hiring instructors from the home institution to teach in Kuwait? What are the difficulties in hiring instructors from the home institution to teach in Kuwait?
18. How many instructors are recruited from Canada and other Western countries but not from Algonquin College in Ontario? Why does Algonquin College-Kuwait employ these instructors?
19. What are the criteria for hiring instructors from Canada and other Western countries? What are the difficulties in employing and managing these international instructors?
20. How many instructors are recruited from Kuwait and other Middle Eastern countries? Why does Algonquin College-Kuwait employ these international instructors?
21. What are the criteria for hiring instructors from Kuwait and other Middle Eastern countries? What are the difficulties in employing and managing these local instructors?

22. How many administrative staff are there in Algonquin College-Kuwait? How many of them are hired from the home institution? How many of them are recruited from Canada and other Western countries? How many of them are employed from Kuwait or other Middle Eastern countries?
23. Do you think the instructors at Algonquin College-Kuwait have the same level of teaching capacity as those at Algonquin College in Ontario? If not, what measures have been taken to improve the of instructors' teaching capacity at Algonquin College-Kuwait?
24. Could you briefly introduce the programmes at Algonquin College-Kuwait? Are they identical to the programmes offered at Algonquin College in Ontario? If not, what changes have been made and why these changes have been made?
25. Could you briefly introduce the curriculum offered at Algonquin College-Kuwait?
26. Does Algonquin College-Kuwait deliver the same curriculum as that offered by Algonquin College in Ontario? If the answer is yes, please kindly state the reasons for delivering the same curriculum in different contexts; if the answer for the first question is no, please kindly present what changes have been made and why these changes have been made.
27. Do you think the quality of education offered at Algonquin College-Kuwait is equivalent to that offered by Algonquin College in Ontario? What measures has Algonquin College-Kuwait taken to ensure the education quality at Algonquin College-Kuwait?
28. Do the teaching staff at Algonquin College-Kuwait conduct research activities? If yes, what research projects have been done?
29. What student services does Algonquin College-Kuwait provide to students? Are they similar to those in the home institution or to those in other institutions in Kuwait?
30. What achievement has Algonquin College-Kuwait made since its establishment?
31. What challenges has Algonquin College-Kuwait encountered since its establishment? How did Algonquin College-Kuwait address these challenges?
32. What differences do you think exist between Kuwait and Canada? How do these differences impact the establishment and operation of Algonquin College-Kuwait?

Appendix 15. Semi-structured Interview Questions for Academic Coordinators at Algonquin College-Kuwait

Personal Information:

1. How many years have you been working for Algonquin College-Kuwait? What motivated you to work at Algonquin College-Kuwait?
2. Could you briefly introduce your work experiences at Algonquin College-Kuwait? What are your responsibilities as an academic coordinator?

Specific Questions about Staffing, Curriculum, Research, and Student Services:

Staffing

3. Could you briefly introduce the teaching team at your programme?
4. How many of the instructors in your programme are hired from Algonquin College in Ontario? Why does Algonquin College-Kuwait hire these instructors from the home institution, considering the huge cost and large geographical and cultural distance?
5. How many of the instructors are recruited from Canada and other Western countries? Why does Algonquin College-Kuwait hire these instructors?
6. How many of the instructors are recruited from Kuwait and other Middle Eastern countries? Why does Algonquin College-Kuwait hire these instructors?
7. Do you think the instructors at Algonquin College-Kuwait have the same level of teaching capacity as those at Algonquin College in Ontario? If not, what measures have been taken to improve the of instructors' teaching capacity at Algonquin College-Kuwait?

Curriculum

8. What are the educational objectives of your programme? Are these educational objectives same to those in Algonquin College in Ontario?
9. Could you briefly introduce the curriculum offered by your programme?
10. Does your programme deliver the same curriculum as that offered at Algonquin College in Ontario? If the answer is yes, please kindly state the reasons for delivering the same curriculum in different contexts; if the answer for the first question is no, please kindly present what changes have been made and why these changes have been made.
11. For a same course, are the teaching materials used at your programme same as those used at Algonquin College in Ontario? If the answer is yes, please kindly state the reasons for using the same teaching materials in different contexts; if the answer for the first question is no, please kindly present what changes have been made and why these changes have been made.
12. What are the major teaching methods used at your programme? Are these teaching methods same as those used at Algonquin College in Ontario? If the answer is yes, please kindly state the reasons for using the same teaching methods in different cultural contexts; if the answer for the first question is no, please kindly present what changes have been made and why these changes have been made.
13. What are the assessment approaches used at your programme? Are these assessment approaches same as those used at Algonquin College in Ontario? If the answer is yes, please kindly state the reasons for using the same teaching materials in different contexts; if the answer for the first question is no, please kindly present what changes have been made and

why these changes have been made.

14. Do you think the education quality of your programme is equivalent to that offered at Algonquin College in Ontario? What measures has your programme taken to ensure the education quality?
15. Are there any issues emerging from cross-cultural teaching and learning? If yes, what are the issues and how are they addressed?

Research

16. Do instructors at Algonquin College-Kuwait conduct research activities? If yes, what research projects have been done?
17. Does Algonquin College-Kuwait provide any incentives for the instructors to conduct research activities?
18. What are the students' expectations about Algonquin College-Kuwait's research dimension?

Student Services

19. What student services does Algonquin College-Kuwait provide to students? Why does Algonquin College-Kuwait provide these student services?
20. Are these student services similar to those offered at Algonquin College in Ontario or to those in other institutions in Kuwait?

Online Teaching during the COVID-19 Pandemic

21. How has the teaching been implemented at Algonquin College-Kuwait during the COVID-19 pandemic?
22. What are the similarities and differences between online teaching and onsite teaching?
23. Do you think online teaching is as effective as onsite teaching? Why or why not?
24. Do you think online teaching can replace onsite teaching? Why or why not?
25. What should be done to improve the online teaching?

Additional Questions:

26. What differences do you think exist between Kuwait and Canada? How do these differences impact Algonquin College-Kuwait's establishment and operation?
27. What challenges have Algonquin College-Kuwait encountered since its establishment? How did Algonquin College-Kuwait address these challenges?
28. What are the challenges that Algonquin College-Kuwait has to deal with in the foreseeable future? How should they be addressed?

Appendix 16. Semi-structured Interview Questions for Instructors at Algonquin College-Kuwait

Personal Information:

1. Could you briefly introduce your work experience at Algonquin College-Kuwait?
2. What motivated you to teach at Algonquin College-Kuwait?
3. What courses have you taught at Algonquin College-Kuwait?

Specific Questions about Staffing, Curriculum, Research, and Student Services:

Staffing

4. Could you briefly introduce the teaching team at your programme?
5. How many of the instructors are hired from Algonquin College in Ontario? Do you know why Algonquin College-Kuwait has hired these instructors from the home institution, considering the huge cost and large geographical and cultural distance?
6. How many of the instructors are recruited from Canada and other Western countries? Do you know why Algonquin College-Kuwait has recruited these instructors?
7. How many of the instructors are employed from Kuwait and other Middle Eastern countries? Do you know why Algonquin College-Kuwait has employed these instructors?
8. Does Algonquin College-Kuwait provide any guideline or training for cross-cultural teaching in Kuwait? If yes, could you please describe them in detail.
9. What difficulties have you encountered when teaching for Algonquin College-Kuwait? How did you address them?

Curriculum

10. Could you briefly introduce the curriculum offered by your programme?
11. Does your programme deliver the same curriculum as that offered at Algonquin College in Ontario? If the answer is yes, please kindly state the reasons for delivering the same curriculum in different contexts; if the answer for the first question is no, please kindly present what changes have been made and why these changes have been made.
12. For a same course, are your teaching materials used at Algonquin College-Kuwait same as those used at Algonquin College in Ontario? If the answer is yes, please kindly state the reasons for using the same teaching materials in different contexts; if the answer for the first question is no, please kindly present what changes have been made and why these changes have been made.
13. What are the major teaching methods you use at Algonquin College-Kuwait? Are these teaching methods same as those used at Algonquin College in Ontario? If the answer is yes, please kindly state the reasons for using the same teaching methods in different cultural contexts; if the answer for the first question is no, please kindly present what changes have been made and why these changes have been made.
14. What are the assessment approaches you use at Algonquin College-Kuwait? Are these assessment approaches same as those used at Algonquin College in Ontario? If the answer is yes, please kindly state the reasons for using the same teaching materials in different contexts; if the answer for the first question is no, please kindly present what changes have been made and why these changes have been made.
15. Do you think the quality of education offered at Algonquin College-Kuwait is equivalent

to that offered at Algonquin College in Ontario? What measures has Algonquin College-Kuwait taken to ensure the education quality?

16. Are there any issues emerging from the cross-cultural teaching and learning? If yes, what are the issues and how are they addressed?

Research

17. Do you conduct research activities at Algonquin College-Kuwait? If yes, what research projects have you done?
18. Does Algonquin College-Kuwait provide any incentives for you to conduct research activities?
19. What are students' expectations about Algonquin College-Kuwait's research dimension?

Student Services

20. What student services does Algonquin College-Kuwait provide to students? Why does Algonquin College-Kuwait provide these student services?
21. Are these student services similar to those offered at Algonquin College in Ontario or to those in other institutions in Kuwait?

Online Teaching during the COVID-19 Pandemic

22. How has the teaching been implemented at Algonquin College-Kuwait during the COVID-19 pandemic?
23. What are the similarities and differences between online teaching and onsite teaching?
24. Do you think online teaching is as effective as onsite teaching? Why or why not?
25. Do you think online teaching can replace onsite teaching? Why or why not?
26. What should be done to improve the online teaching?

Additional Questions:

27. What challenges have Algonquin College-Kuwait encountered since its establishment? How did Algonquin College-Kuwait address these challenges?
28. What are the challenges that Algonquin College-Kuwait has to deal with in the foreseeable future? How should they be addressed?

Appendix 17. Semi-structured Interview Questions for Students/Alumni at Algonquin College-Kuwait

Personal Information:

1. Why did you apply to study at Algonquin College-Kuwait?
2. Could you briefly introduce your study experience at Algonquin College-Kuwait?

Specific Questions about Staffing, Curriculum, and Research:

Staffing

3. How many instructors do you have at your programme? How many of them are hired from the home institution? How many of them are employed in Canada and other Western countries? How many of them are employed in Kuwait and other Middle Eastern countries?
4. What types of instructors do you prefer, instructors from the home institution, from Canada and other Western countries, or from Kuwait and other Middle Eastern countries?
5. How satisfied do you feel with the teaching delivered by different types of instructors?

Curriculum

6. What courses have you taken at Algonquin College-Kuwait? Do you think these courses are the same as those offered at the home institution? If the answer is yes, please kindly state the reasons for delivering the same courses in different contexts; if the answer for the first question is no, please kindly present what changes have been made and why these changes have been made.
7. Do you think the teaching materials used at Algonquin College-Kuwait are the same as those offered at Algonquin College in Ontario? If yes, why? If no, what changes have been made?
8. What are the major teaching methods used at Algonquin College-Kuwait? Do you think these teaching methods are same as those used at the home institution? If the answer is yes, please kindly state the reasons for using the same teaching methods in different cultural contexts; if the answer for the first question is no, please kindly present what changes have been made and why these changes have been made.
9. What are the assessment approaches used at Algonquin College-Kuwait? Do you think these assessment approaches are identical to those used at the home institution? If the answer is yes, please kindly state the reasons for using the same teaching materials in different contexts; if the answer for the first question is no, please kindly present what changes have been made and why these changes have been made.
10. How satisfied are you feel with the curriculum offered by Algonquin College-Kuwait? If yes, what efforts have contributed to this satisfaction? If not, what should be done to further improve the curriculum?

Research

11. As far as you know, do your instructors conduct research activities? If yes, what research projects have they done?
12. Do you expect your instructors to conduct research activities? Why or why not?

Student Services

13. What student services does Algonquin College-Kuwait provide? Why does Algonquin College-Kuwait provide these student services?
14. Are these student services similar to those offered at Algonquin College in Ontario or to those in other institutions in Kuwait?

Online Teaching during the COVID-19 Pandemic

15. How has the teaching been implemented at Algonquin College-Kuwait during the COVID-19 pandemic?
16. What are the similarities and differences between online teaching and onsite teaching?
17. Do you think online teaching is as effective as onsite teaching? Why or why not?
18. Do you think online teaching can replace onsite teaching? Why or why not?
19. What should be done to improve the online teaching?