

Stakeholder View Congruence on Cross-Border Graduate Double Degree  
Program Implementation in Japan, Australia and the United States

A DISSERTATION  
SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL  
OF THE UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA  
BY

Diana Yefanova

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS  
FOR THE DEGREE OF  
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

David Chapman, Advisor

August 2011

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work would not have been possible without the unconditional support of my family: my parents Olga and Nikolai Yefanov, my husband Erik Pearson, and my aunt, Nina Andersson. I will always remember this.

My gratitude also goes to my dissertation committee, especially Dr. David Chapman and Dr. Deanne Magnusson. Without their guidance this work would not be written. My study participants from Japan, Australia, and the U.S. also deserve many thanks for their time.

## ABSTRACT

This comparative multiple case study research focuses on Japanese university efforts in establishing cross-border graduate double degree programs (GDDPs) with American and Australian partner institutions. Universities worldwide are increasingly responding to external and internal pressures to enter new educational markets abroad and establish strategic partnerships. The number of GDDPs is still small, but the proclaimed individual, institutional, and national benefits are significant. However, due to multiple academic, administrative, and recruitment challenges, double degree programs often fail to attract significant student numbers.

Research shows that international collaborative program success or failure is closely connected to stakeholder acceptance and support. The study examines how staff members, faculty, and administrators at four selected universities in Japan, Australia, and the U.S. view double degree programs. Each case study university unique characteristics are described and taken into consideration. The central study focus is on the extent of stakeholder view congruence on the issues of double degree program benefits and rationale, challenges and success factors related to program implementation.

Additionally research data indicates a high degree of view congruence among staff, administrators and faculty on program rationale, benefits, and major challenges in both of the case studies and across national borders. The key findings illustrate that there are common areas of congruence within and across case studies, primarily on program goals and benefits. The study also identifies common areas of disagreement

among stakeholders within individual case study institutions on program challenges and success factors that indicate (1) lack of faculty motivation to participate in GDDPs, (2) lack of clarity regarding program goals and academic value among faculty, (3) lack of staff motivation to work with GDDPs, and (4) lack of student participation. The resulting explanatory model of GDDP implementation addresses these target areas. Recommendations for program leadership are also suggested to address the pervasive challenges, thus improving the program prospects of survival and sustainability. Recommendations for universities involved in cross-border degrees are timely, as the higher education sector worldwide is working out a common understanding of double degree programs in varying national regulatory frameworks and cultures.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS .....	i
ABSTRACT .....	ii
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	iv
LIST OF TABLES .....	viii
LIST OF FIGURES .....	ix
CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION.....	1
Problem Statement .....	1
Purpose of the Study .....	4
Research Questions .....	5
Significance of the Study .....	6
Definitions of Key Terms .....	7
Conceptual Framework Overview .....	10
Methodology Overview.....	11
Organization of Thesis.....	12
CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW .....	14
Expanded Definitions and Study Context.....	14
Global Connections vs. Domestic Perspectives.....	25
Challenges Associated with GDDPs .....	26
Conceptual Framework.....	34
CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY .....	40
Mode of Inquiry .....	40
Case Study Method.....	40
Interpretive Nature of Study.....	41
Research Design.....	41
A Unit of Analysis.....	41
Multiple Case Design.....	42
Participant Selection .....	42
University Selection Rationale .....	42
Individual Participant Selection Rationale .....	45
Data Collection Methods.....	47
Data Sources.....	47
Semis-Structured Interviews .....	47
Document Analysis.....	48
Research Protocols.....	48
Data Collection Procedures.....	48

Data Analysis.....	49
Within-Case Coding.....	49
Cross-Case Analysis.....	51
Theoretical Generalizations.....	52
Quality of Research Design and Limitations.....	52
Construct Validity.....	52
Internal Validity.....	53
Reliability.....	53
External Validity.....	54
Role of the Researcher.....	55
CHAPTER IV: CASE STUDY DESCRIPTIONS .....	57
Case Study One: Public Japanese University – Public Australian University.....	57
The International Network of Universities.....	57
Hiroshima University.....	59
Flinders University.....	60
Case Study #2: Private Japanese University – Private American University.....	64
Long-Term Bilateral Partnership.....	64
Ritsumeikan University.....	65
American University.....	67
CHAPTER V: FINDINGS OF WITHIN-CASE ANALYSIS.....	68
Research Question One.....	68
Case Study One.....	68
Faculty.....	69
Staff.....	73
Administrators.....	74
Case Study Two.....	76
Faculty.....	76
Staff.....	77
Administrators.....	78
Research Question Two.....	78
Case Study One.....	79
Faculty.....	79
Staff.....	81
Administrators.....	83
Case Study Two.....	84
Faculty.....	84
Staff.....	85

Administrators.....	86
Research Question Three.....	87
Case Study One.....	87
Faculty.....	87
Staff.....	88
Administrators.....	88
Case Study Two.....	90
Faculty.....	90
Staff.....	90
Administrators.....	91
Document Findings.....	92
Case Study One.....	92
Case Study Two.....	93
Summary.....	94
Lack of Faculty Motivation.....	96
Lack of Clarity Regarding Program Goals and Benefits.....	96
Student Participation.....	97
Lack of Staff Motivation.....	99
 CHAPTER VI: FINDINGS OF CROSS-CASE ANALYSIS.....	 101
Research Question One: Program Rationale and Benefits.....	101
Research Question Two: Program Challenges.....	103
Research Question Three: Program Success Factors.....	104
Stakeholder Perception of Access to Decision-Making.....	106
Faculty.....	106
Staff.....	107
Administrators.....	107
Summary.....	108
 CHAPTER VII: DISCUSSION.....	 112
Research Implications.....	112
Explanatory GDDP Implementation Model.....	112
Connecting to Conceptual Framework.....	114
Resource-Based View of Strategic Alliances.....	114
Research Assumptions.....	115
Bolman and Deal Framework: GDDP as a Symbolic Program.....	117
Recommendations for University Leaders.....	120
Utilizing the Symbolic Approach.....	120
Access to Decision-Making as Motivational Tool.....	120
Addressing Asymmetry in Partner Relationship.....	122
Recommendations for GDDP Partners.....	122
Future Study Suggestions.....	124
Final Thoughts and Reflections.....	126

REFERENCES .....	129
APPENDICES.....	145
Appendix A: Interview Protocols.....	145
Appendix B: Participant Interview Consent Forms.....	147
Appendix C: Participant Interview Invitation Letter .....	149
Appendix D: Initial Within-Case Data Categories.....	151
Appendix E: Overview of Emergent Cross-Case Themes.....	157

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Council of Graduate Schools Member Engagement in International Joint and Dual Degrees .....	25
Table 2. Institutional and Strategic Coping Mechanisms for Consortia Partner Institutions.....	38
Table 3. Interview Participants at Four Studied Universities.....	46
Table 4. Overview of Case-Study Universities .....	62
Table 5. Overview of Emergent Themes In Within-Case Study Data Analysis.....	70
Table 6. Within-Case Analysis: Main Case Study Differences.....	96
Table 7. Cross- Case Findings Summary.....	103
Table 8. Overview of Common Themes Across Cases.....	106

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Typical University Organizational Units of International Activities.....	33
Figure 2. Management Process Indicators.....	34
Figure 3. The Diversity Paradox of International University Cooperation.....	36
Figure 4. A Sequential Model of Cooperation in Consortia .....	37
Figure 5. GDDP Implementation Factors Model.....	39
Figure 6. Explanatory GDDP Implementation Improvement Factors Model.....	114

## CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

### **Problem Statement**

In a rapidly globalizing economy, higher education and training are required to meet the demand of creating a highly skilled human workforce. During the last decade universities worldwide have been developing strategic plans in order to become competitive players in the global educational field. In this context, cross-border collaborative partnerships represent an area of growing significance in higher education.

One type of such partnerships is a graduate double degree program (GDDP) that leads to two or more equivalent qualifications upon completion of program requirements established by two or more partner institutions within the framework of a collaborative bilateral agreement or a consortium (Knight, 2009). Program aims range from improving the quality of regional higher education to using the GDDPs as a medium for overall higher education institution (HEI) internationalization and access to new educational markets. National policies and pre-existing HEI contacts with foreign institutions play the main role in rationalizing the decision to establish such programs.

Currently, the numbers of GDDPs are on the rise in Japanese, Australian, and American higher education institutions (Huang, 2006; Kuder & Obst, 2009; Kuriyama et al., 2008; Ninomiya, Knight & Watanabe, 2009). Universities are responding to external and internal pressures to increase international collaboration, enter new educational markets abroad and establish strategic partnerships. In Japan the situation is exacerbated by the demographic decline leaving universities with decreasing numbers of students (Huang, 2006). All three countries are exporters of education in the Asia-Pacific region, even though Japan has only recently increased efforts in this direction

(Huang, 2006). Alongside twinning arrangements, branch campus establishment and a host of other programs that allow for greater student and program mobility, GDDPs represent an important growing development in transnational higher education (TNHE). The number of these relatively new programs in the countries under discussion is still small, but the proclaimed benefits are significant at individual, institutional and national levels. Yet often GDDP implementation is accompanied by high rates of failure.

In fact, as American, Australian, and Japanese HEIs intensify strategic efforts to improve competitive advantage in the global higher education market by encouraging close inter-university collaboration, research reveals a number of similar academic, administrative, and implementation-related challenges related to cross-border university alliance implementation (Chapman & Sakamoto, 2010). The challenges include degree recognition by academics and employers, program quality definition, partner selection, and student participation, among others outlined in more detail in Chapter 2.

Similarly Huisman & van der Wende (2006) argue that university internationalization strategies are still primarily guided by national regulations and funding frameworks in spite of growing university eagerness to take advantage of global opportunities for collaboration. Most universities are still rooted in unique historical, geographic, cultural and linguistic contexts, influenced by local labor market demands and political agendas. Pokarier (2008) also suggests that the multitude of ways, in which institutional leadership is embedded in particular governance, employment practices, and socio-cultural contexts, also affect cooperation via inter-university agreements.

Overall, many Japanese HEIs have been so eager to internationalize higher

education that they may have “overlooked the importance of institutional preparation for increased diversity and capacity...as well as taking the initiative to work professionally and proactively in collaboration with their domestic and foreign counterparts” (Kiwamura, 2009). In fact, any institution may bear the consequences of hasty decisions to engage in cross-border education delivery if it does not take into account the quality assurance provision, legitimacy concerns, and domestic influences.

There has been a growing amount of research on the institutional mechanisms and organizational aspects of internationalization in higher education (Altbach & Knight, 2006; Burnett & Huisman, 2010; Mok, 2007; Paige, 2005; Rudzki, 1995; Watabe, 2010). Chapman and Sakamoto (2010), Bannerman, Spiller, Yetton and Davis (2005), Teather (2004), among other researchers, have extensively analyzed the nature of cross-border partnerships in education. The research on doubled degrees has mostly focused on the policy, institutional culture, or organizational management aspects of interuniversity collaboration (Knight, 2009; Kuder & Obst, 2009; Saunders, 2007) with an exception of Kuriyama et al (2008) that also addressed student recruitment issues and employer perceptions of GDDP value in Japanese graduate schools.

However, there is a lack of empirical studies addressing the double degree program phenomenon explicitly. Besides, there is a need in the field of comparative and international education to understand phenomena in particular national contexts, as opposed to general policy-oriented studies (Vavrus & Bartlett, 2006). Broadfoot (1999) argues, “education can only be fully understood in terms of the context in which it is taking place...The unique contribution of comparative studies is that of providing for a more systematic and theorized understanding of the relationship between context and

process, structure and action” (pp. 225-226). Thus this study looks closely at the relationship between micro-level understanding and macro-level policy in various national contexts utilizing the example of graduate double degree program.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The study examines the extent of congruence of multiple faculty, staff, student, and administrator perspectives related to GDDP establishment and implementation at four selected universities in Japan and in the U.S. Recent research indicates that a fairly high level of congruence is necessary in order to effectively address potential sources of cross-border educational program challenges if it is to achieve its objectives. For instance, recent dissertations by Oleksiyenko (2008) and Maureen (2008) examine the interconnections between national contexts and stakeholder expectations on both sides of the partnership in strategic inter-university alliances in Canadian and Australian/Singaporean contexts, respectively. Oleksiyenko (2008) analyzed university department choices of strategic partners, and found that one of the factors leading to growth of asymmetric partnerships was inability to motivate stakeholders at all levels. Faculty, for instance, tended to be explicitly supportive of or resistant to GDDP implementation and thus significantly affect overall program performance.

Additionally, Maureen (2008) asserted that program implementation should be accompanied by joint decision-making among all program stakeholders in order to optimize curriculum internationalization and student learning outcomes. Both studies illustrate the multi-faceted nature of cross-border partnership implementation research. Given the dearth of research on this topic, it is important to probe stakeholders' views further.

However lofty the purposes of strategic alliance may be, the participating institutions, according to Chan (2004) may have to “contend with a lot of low-level interaction between individuals” (p.39). Thus creating an explanatory model of program implementation based on stakeholder views and experience at selected Japanese universities and their partners in the U.S. and Australia is the main goal of the study.

### **Research Questions**

The following research questions guide the inquiry: What is the extent of congruence among different university stakeholder views of the cross-border graduate double degree program as related to program establishment and implementation? This main question is subdivided into three main sub-questions:

1. How congruent are stakeholders’ views regarding program goals and benefits?
2. How congruent are stakeholders’ views regarding program challenges?
3. How congruent are stakeholders’ views regarding major success factors affecting the process of GDDP implementation?

The first sub-question serves to clarify the rationales behind GDDP initiation from multiple stakeholder perspectives, addressing the need to learn more of such program benefits (i.e., skills and knowledge imparted to students), as suggested by previous research (Kuriyama et al, 2008) in order to understand why GDDP program numbers continue to increase in Japan and the U.S. and to obtain baseline information for answering other research questions.

The second sub-question addresses the need to gain insight into challenges program stakeholders encounter, supplemented by examining implementation

challenges outlined in the literature review. Such data aids in construction of explanatory model of GDDP implementation as one of the main study outcomes.

The third sub-question provides insight into stakeholder definitions of what makes a GDDP successful. Alongside struggling programs, there are also cases of successful cross-border collaborative programs worldwide. Answering this question may be valuable for practitioners and policy-makers attempting to establish similar programs.

### **Study Significance**

The explanatory model of program implementation is helpful for better understanding and critical analysis of cross-border partnership programs in given national contexts for the purposes of institutional policy development. Listening to faculty and student voices adds another dimension to the study of the “elusive and evolving phenomenon” of cross-border university partnership (Knight, 2006). Better understanding of institutional effectiveness and stakeholder satisfaction in dual degree programs may help academic institution staff and administrators to improve institutional practice (Saunders, 2007). This study’s main significance lies in its potential to add to the emerging body of research on GDDPs and other cross-border educational arrangements.

Evidenced by multiple implementation challenges outlined in the literature, there exists the need to have appropriate university policies in place to address GDDP implementation and performance. Yet, as Kogan (1996, p. 397) notes, “policy analyses fail to have much force if they lack...fine-grained analyses of change in the...institutions, the actual practice of academics” (see also Teichler, 1993). Therefore, the study addresses the need to provide the micro-level applied research to inform

policy. Since cross-border educational activities are generally expensive for HEIs (especially in terms of upfront costs and in spite of the revenue streams they may bring in), it is worth investigating to see if the investment is justified given multiple GDDP-related challenges. Perhaps, more “traditional” joint research projects and study abroad arrangements abroad are better suited for both preparing students for the global job market and internationalizing universities?

According to Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991), the characteristics of any educational change process (in our case, expected advantages and disadvantages associated with GDDPs) can affect its implementation. Obtaining the data related to participant HEI stakeholders’ views on internal and external factors affecting GDDP implementation and performance allows seeing a wide range of views and potential data overlaps and interconnections.

### **Definitions of Key Terms**

There are no universally agreed-on definitions for the terms “dual degree” or “double degree”. The most generic label commonly used for all types of cross-border programs (Bachelor’s, Master’s, Doctor’s) is “international collaborative programs”, according to Knight (2009). Also known as articulation arrangements, such programs offer students an opportunity to receive a part of a source country qualification in a host country and then transfer to the source country institution with an advanced standing in terms of study credits and credit transfer (Naidoo, 2009). This sort of inter-institutional arrangement may or may not lead to joint or double degrees.

Conversely, international double or multiple degree programs per se actually lead to two or more individual qualifications at equivalent levels upon completion of

program requirements established by two or more partner institutions (Knight, 2009). Usually, in order to meet the requirements of all participating partners, the duration of such programs is extended. Thus the equivalency of degree is upheld, in spite of national title differences.

In the U.S., the terms “joint degree” or a “dual degree” sometimes refer to programs that combine degrees in two academic disciplines at the same institution. In Japan, a double degree program is a program in which a Japanese university and another in a foreign country “discuss the curriculum offered by each university and the process of credit transfer, with the result that each university will confer a degree” (MEXT, 2010). Yet the terms “joint degree” and “double degree” are used interchangeably in Japan, adding to confusion. For the purposes of this study, the distinctions between joint and double degree programs are made clear based on the Institute of International Education (2009) definition:

1. During a dual or double degree program students study at (at least) two higher education institutions and receive a separate degree certificate from each one upon completion of the study program.
2. In contrast, a joint degree program implies that students study at (at least) two higher education institutions and receive a single degree certificate issued by all the participating institutions jointly.

Still, the differentiation between dual degree programs and others, such as twinning programs is rather murky, as the former also imply inter-university collaboration, where students take courses for credit and receive diplomas at both institutions (ACE, 2007; UNESCO IIEP 2007). University linkage programs resulting

in one-way exchanges can also result in two degrees. Additionally, in education management literature, inter-university partnerships are often viewed as “strategic alliances”, or what Saffu & Mamman (2000) called “collaborative relationships” (as cited in Bannerman Spiller, Yetton & Davis, 2005). This research will also utilize these definitions as they are closely connected to the study conceptual framework.

Some GDDPs are consortium-based. A consortium is defined as an international inter-organizational arrangement of higher education institutions which has an indefinite time-span, an additional administrative layer above the participating organizations, and a limited amount of members (Beerkens & van der Wende, 2006; Beerkens, 2002). The membership is restricted to particular institutions that are allowed to enter the arrangement.

It is important to mention that internationalization is defined in this study as the process of organizational change adapted to changing environmental conditions (Watabe, 2010; van der Wende, 1997). This organizational approach to internationalization is reflected in the choice of the conceptual framework for the study. GDDP as an emerging cross-border educational program type is often viewed by HEIs as a response to the internationalization challenges or national government initiatives.

GDDP stakeholders in this study include multiple faculty, staff, student, and administrators whose work is related to GDDP planning, establishment and/or implementation at four selected universities in Japan and in the U.S. (see Chapter Three participant selection description). Participants in an organization are defined as individuals who contribute to the organization while motivated by various incentives (Scott, 1981). In the context of higher education internationalization, the main

participants include academic staff, management staff, support staff, and students (Luijten-Lub, et al., 2005). This study investigates the views of all these groups, with the exception of students, as related to GDDP implementation.

University administrators are top staff members as opposed to regular staff members (lower-level support personnel and mid-level personnel). Administrators typically coordinate the implementation of selected international activities on campus. They are involved in decision-making and often serve on committees that are responsible for strategic planning of internationalization efforts.

More extensive discussion of key terms will be presented in Chapter 2.

### **Conceptual Framework Overview**

The conceptual lens utilized to analyze inter-university collaborative programs is grounded in two different organizational theory perspectives. The resource-based view of the firm (RBV) perspective focuses on global organizational search for complementary resources to ensure sustainable competitive advantage and profit (Barney, 1991; Das & Teng, 2000; Wernerfelt, 1984). In addition, “embeddedness theories” (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983) and institutional theories (Scott, 1995; Uzzi, 1997) proponents argue that organizations are primarily shaped by and embedded in their local (national) institutional contexts with corresponding normative, cognitive, and regulative structures, that may serve as limitations in the global cooperation arena.

Specifically, this study builds on Beerkens & van der Wende (2006) analytical framework of cross-border cooperation. Beerkens & van der Wende (2006) argue that partners in an interuniversity alliance typically face significant challenges while trying to exploit all opportunities for improved performance. This situation occurs due to

partner inability to satisfy the criteria of resource compatibility and complementarity. The third important factor is university inability to provide consistent relationship management and communication. Yet, even if these conditions are satisfied, it does not automatically lead to program performance improvement. For instance, partnership performance was found to be affected positively by the existence of complementarity only when complementary resources were actually “recognized, utilized and exploited” by stakeholders using additional “tools”, or strategic coping mechanisms as well as improved communication practices (Beerkens & van der Wende, 2006). The emphasis on program performance factors related to stakeholder knowledge and support is relevant for this study.

### **Methodology Overview**

Multiple-site comparative case study research design is employed for this paper. Two pairs of partner universities are selected to look in depth at the GDDP establishment and implementation processes. Among case study HEIs are public universities that have only recently established an institutional strategic unit to plan and coordinate internationalization activities. Also, there are examples of private universities that have been actively (even aggressively) developing international collaborative programs for a long period of time.

The selected data collection methods are semi-structured interview and document analysis. The interviews were conducted in English and one-to-one. A total of 23 administrators, faculty, and staff members were asked open-ended questions regarding GDDP goals, benefits, challenges, and success factors in their universities during the

time period of 40 minutes to one hour (see Appendix A). Some of the interviewees were in a position of influence in their institutions, and some were not.

Prior to conducting interviews, the researcher conducted extensive document mining and analysis to collect evidence of GDDP planning and to attain background information to thoroughly investigate the process of GDDP implementation at the selected universities. Examined documents included written materials regarding internationalization of each university including, but not limited to, the mission statement, mid-term objectives and plans, web-pages, catalogs, campus-wide self-reports and presentations on international exchange and cooperation activities, a interuniversity agreement for double degree programs, and program promotional materials in print and online. The author lists them in the data analysis section.

### **Organization of Thesis**

This thesis is comprised of six chapters. Chapter one is the introduction that frames the research problem explored in this study by defining the key terms and providing an overview of the research purpose, significance, research questions, theoretical frameworks, and methodology employed. In Chapter two the researcher analyzes the theoretical and empirical literature related to double degree appearance and implementation in the context of internationalization of higher education. At the end of the literature review, the study conceptual framework is discussed in detail. Chapter three outlines the methodology, methods, research design, limitations, and protocols employed in this study.

Chapter four describes each of the four universities studied. Each case analysis is presented in a descriptive format to portray the process of GDDP implementation in

the unique cultural, geographical, socio-economic, and organizational national context. Chapter five discusses within-case findings. Chapter six presents synthesized cross-case analysis findings and aims to identify the commonalities and differences in the process of GDDP promotion and implementation across the case universities. Chapter seven concludes the thesis with a discussion of the study findings through the lens of relevant theories and literature on cross-border education. It also presents an explanatory model of program implementation based on data findings and discusses the implications of the study and potential areas of future research on the topic

## CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

### **Study Context and Expanded Definitions**

Better understanding of GDDP rationales and implementation requires taking into account the wider environment, in which they are embedded. The following sections outline key challenges of dual degree programs in the context of cross-border education, transnational higher education development, and higher education internationalization.

### **Cross-Border Education**

The term “cross border education” (CBE) is often used interchangeably with “transnational higher education” and “borderless education”, all of which have been defined as educational trade by the recent General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) (Knight, 2006). Cross-border mobility of programs can be described as “the movement of individual education, training courses and programs across national borders through face-to-face, distance or a combination of these modes” (Knight, 2005) and is considered to be the fastest-growing Mode 2 (consumption abroad) educational service according to GATS qualifications (Naidoo, 2009).

World universities increasingly establish transnational inter-university linkages, fueled by changes in the production of knowledge, liberalization of trade markets, and increased opportunities for content delivery using new technologies (Altbach & Knight, 2006; OECD, 2004). The growing influence of for-profit education sector and increasing competition in higher education (Davis et al, 2000; Marginson, 2006) is forcing contemporary private and public universities to develop alternative strategies such as collaborating in commercial delivery of education programs abroad (Davies, 2000). As higher education is becoming a global business, universities are faced with the need to manage the market complexities in conducting their international operations (Poole, 2001). Due to the market’s uncertain and complex environment, many

university leaders seek the security of joint agreements and programs through international partnerships and consortia. According to the Dyer & Singh's (1998) relational view of strategic alliances, the rents derived from investments in knowledge sharing as well as combining complementary resources and capabilities, allows such partnerships to succeed, while incurring lower transactions costs through effective governance. Importantly, while some networks exist mainly for information exchange, others achieve more and can help boost university competitiveness (Teather, 2004; Welle-Strand & Thune, 2002).

Another factor in growth of GDDPs is student mobility. Cross-border mobility of students with its significant economic and academic implications has been growing steadily around the world. According to the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2007), over three-quarters of all international students studying outside their home countries are concentrated in the following six host countries: the United States (22% of all enrollments in 2004), the United Kingdom (12%), Germany (10%), France (9%), Australia (6%), and Japan (5%). OECD (2004) analysis of cross-border post-secondary education reveals that student mobility has been policy-driven in Europe and demand-driven in the Asia-Pacific region, while North America has mostly been a magnet for foreign students. Such dynamic contributes to the infamous south-north "brain drain" from less developed, transitioning, and newly industrialized countries with high social demands for higher education to western industrialized countries. One of the ways in which universities deliver education across the borders is via dual graduate degrees defined earlier in the proposal.

### **Transnational Higher Education**

Transnational education deals with institutional or program mobility across borders, in addition to student mobility (Akiba, 2008). The world global economic ties are multiplying, and so are international connections of educational institutions, bringing about diverse responses (Altbach, 2004a; de Wit, 2002), one of which is transnational higher education development and growth. The review of literature suggests that the current discussion on transnational education is based on economic rationales, due to the fact that the internationalization of higher education is driven by the need for economic competitiveness, as noted above. The terms “international skills”, “global skills”, and “cross-cultural competence” are often used synonymously, but there is no one definition or inclusive list of the relevant knowledge, skills or attitudes. Yet, businesses are increasingly looking for employees to possess such “international skills”, and higher education has to respond with internationalizing the curriculum and other measures to meet industry demands (Akiba, 2008)

Human resource theory-based or system theory-based literature focuses on the center and periphery dynamic and its review indicates that the main stakeholders in TNHE include higher educational institutions, local governments, and governments in other countries. Thus the units of analysis for international higher education research are often limited (Akiba, 2008), and it is important to include local stakeholders, such as university staff and faculty members into research on transnational education. Marginson & Rhoades (as cited in Akiba, 2008) also argue that, “local players...take us beyond nation-states, national markets, and national systems and institutions of higher education to consider organizational agencies and human agency at various levels”.

Some studies have expressed concerns over the sustainability of transnational

education partnerships. Altbach and Teichler (2001) identify several emerging issues, including the growth of for-profit enterprises delivering easily marketable educational programs, sometimes with little regard for standard or quality neglect of features of learning that do not produce market results. Another issue they note is exploitation, either financially or through poor-quality programs, of foreign students via selling of knowledge products to foreigners rather than the efforts toward internationalization and comparative understanding. The common characteristic of these issues is that they are driven by purely economic rationales. It would be useful to find out whether these rationales are equally paramount for all GDDP case study university stakeholders.

### **Higher Education Internationalization**

For many universities and other higher education providers operating in global education market, internationalization stands for “integration...of an international or intercultural dimension into teaching, research, and service through a combination of a wide range of activities, policies and procedures“ (Knight, 1994). The process approach to internationalization stresses the need to address sustainability and institutionalization of international dimensions in education. The emergence and increase in the numbers of international inter-organizational arrangements is a very important process in the context of processes of globalization and regionalization (Beekens & van der Wende, 2006; van der Wende and Middlehurst, 2004; van Vucht, van der Wende, & Westerheijden, 2002). The process of university integration into offshore markets through alliances has been called the “second wave” in the internationalization of education, following the “first wave” of attracting international students to study at a chosen institution in a host nation (Mazzarol, Soutar & Seng, 2003).

Certainly, different types of GDDP develop differently, and even in the globalizing world it is hard to expect one general GDDP model functioning in varying national contexts. It is thus important to give an overview of different kinds of rationales driving their development in the countries under discussion. The emphasis in this research is on Japanese university contextual characteristics.

### **Double Degree Program Development and Rationales in Japan**

Japanese university reform initiatives started in the early 1990s with university system deregulations that had a goal to increase autonomy and innovation potential of individual institutions. Thus educational and research functions of Japan's higher education were to be improved and it was to become more competitive in a global market of higher education (Pokarier, 2006; Watabe, 2010). No doubt, this reform was largely a response to globalization as well as the recent decrease in the 18-year-old population in Japan (Arimoto, 2007; Mok, 2006; Tsuruta, 2003).

Enhancing the quality of graduate training is a key priority in Japan given its deep relationship to both research and university-level teaching tied to the broader development of "world class" institutions development (Arimoto, 2007; Kobayashi, Yan & Shi, 2006). Although several Japanese universities are highly regarded in world rankings, Japanese observers often argue the majority of Japanese HEIs are not sufficiently internationalized compared with those of other industrialized countries (Ninomiya et al, 2009). Graduate education has also been recognized in Japanese policy as a key weakness of the higher education system (Pokarier, 2006; Skelton, 2007).

One of the ways in which Japanese universities work to improve this situation and deliver education across the borders is via twinning and double degree programs

(Huang, 2006; Ninomiya et al., 2009). Japanese HEIs are latecomers to the TNHE market due to the self-restraint in off-shore provision of higher education (Tsuruta, 2006). However, the internationalization of higher education systems is increasingly seen both as a desirable objective in itself and as impetus to broader reforms at the institutional level, the latter being a more recent policy (Pokarier, 2006). For instance, Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) seeks more public funding to bring talented foreign graduate students from developing countries, and the regulatory framework for cross-border programs is being gradually liberalized (MEXT, 2010 ). There are signs that more collaborations among Japanese and foreign institutions may be developing in the future.

Known for its successful plan in the 1980s to recruit 100,000 foreign students and the ambitious target of attracting another 300,000 high-quality students by 2020 (as stated in the Prime Minister's 2007 announcement), MEXT has been working to stimulate further internationalization-related policy and "attitudinal changes" in Japanese universities (Government of Japan, 2009; Council for Asian Gateway Initiatives, 2007). Due to the current demographic decline, the shrinking pool of high school graduates has placed Japanese HEIs under pressure to both sustain their student enrolments in the competitive global higher education market and simultaneously increase their capacity by diversifying the campus population and program offerings to attract foreign students (Kuwamura, 2009). Collaborative cross-border partnership arrangements, including double degree programs provision (Council for Asian Gateway Initiatives, 2007), are seen as one way to achieve that.

Historically, a new policy was introduced to respond to the demand from

European and later Australian students starting from 1980s and encouraging short-term graduate courses in English and non-degree student exchanges, especially designed to bridge the gap between the number of Japanese students in the United States (more than 40,000) and the number of American students in Japan (about 1,000) (Ninomiya et al, 2009). These programs, offered by national universities in Japan, were particularly successful in attracting foreign Ph.D. students to Japan (especially in science and engineering) Many graduating students remained in Japan for some time to work at Japanese universities or companies.

While recruiting international students to Japan has traditionally been seen as the prime internationalization strategy, study abroad for Japanese students is now also being seen as an effective way to enhance their foreign language skills and cross-cultural understanding (Asaoka & Yano, 2009; Horie, 2002; Ninomiya et al, 2009). Japanese employers are starting to value study abroad more, creating incentives for students. It is often the case that securing a qualification in English is highly valued (Skelton, 2007).

The first joint/double graduate program was implemented in 1992, followed by four programs in 1994, four programs in 1995, and three programs in 1996 (Kuriyama, Maekawa, & Muta, as cited in Watabe, 2010). However, more recent research indicates that most Japanese business employers prefer undergraduate dual degree programs to graduate studies or value degrees from the same Japanese institution more than international combined degrees (Kuriyama et al., 2008). Employers tend to value student characteristics (i.e., diligence) more than the prestige of holding an international degree. Still, many universities utilize study abroad and exchange programs to encourage students to study abroad.

In sum, the dominating rationales for cross-border collaborative programs in Japan are attracting talented human resources from Asia and around the world, internationalizing Japanese university campuses, and contributing to the opening up of Japanese society to the global economy.

### **Double Degree Program Development and Rationales in the U.S.**

Knight (2009) distinguishes individual, institutional, national, and regional rationale levels. National HEIs in Asia-Pacific region and in the U.S. are often encouraged by state or pressured by regional integration processes in education to seek high profile partnerships as “engines” of country scientific and economic competitiveness (OECD, 2004). Institutional benefits of cross-border collaboration, while not guaranteed, may include innovative ideas, curriculum internationalization, sharing of resources and expertise, generating revenue, entering new educational markets, satisfying skilled migration, and increased international visibility (Chapman & Sakamoto, 2010; IIE, 2009), among others. Moreover, joint planning of program content and requirements with a partner institution of equal or greater status may lead to developing programs that can attract talented students and increase institutional prestige.

At individual level, many professors, may be attracted to working with diverse students, networking and conducting joint research internationally. Students may see earning the dual degree as an opportunity to enhance their employability and job opportunities in two different countries. In addition they obtain a degree that is less costly and requires less time than if they were to earn two degrees separately. Future employment considerations may also significantly influence students’ educational

choices. In addition, such experience is usually integrated into their home institution's program curriculum thus producing no "lost" credits or delays in graduation, as opposed to some traditional short- and long-term study abroad programs. Finally, dual degree programs may be appealing to students because of the strong impact these programs may have on students' foreign language skills by providing long-term structured exposure to multinational and multilingual student body and faculty.

Australia and the U.K. have been pioneers in transnational higher education, and the U.S. has only relatively recently become a major force in this area (Altbach, 2004). Today, the institutional motives for internationalization in American higher education have also been acknowledged by researchers, evidenced by an understanding that "a prosperous participation in the global knowledge network necessitates (a) international collaboration, (b) global competencies among students and faculty, and (c) a competitive international ranking" (Horn et al., 2007).

Many dual degree programs have been developed between the U.S. and European countries, following historically closer links between the regions that are also demonstrated by American students' study abroad preferences (IIE, 2009). However, recently fewer students have been coming to the U.S. from Europe due to growth of inter-European student exchange via programs building on the two-cycle B.A. and M.A. degrees established as a part of higher education harmonization strategy (Kuder & Obst, 2009). Other countries like Australia have been actively attracting international students, which has caused a decrease in the numbers of students going to the U.S. Currently American universities are considering other ways of attracting students.

This rationale is further strengthened by the desire to improve foreign language and intercultural skills of U.S. college students. While only 6% of all U.S. study abroad students spend a full academic year in the host country, according to the Institute of International Education Open Doors Report (as cited in Kuder & Obst, 2009), thus spending less time honing the skills that are valued in the global labor market. Among multiple skills that are valued by employers and can be demonstrated through an international study are strong work ethic, self-motivation, problem-solving and communication skills, according to Cross (2008) and Trooboff, Vande Berg & Rayman, (2008). In fact, Knight (2009) states that dual degree programs are also intended to provide a rich international and comparative academic experience for students, leading to improved opportunities for employment.

Unlike in the European Union, double degree programs in the U.S. have been, until recently, a less common part of institutional partnership. Now many American graduate schools are establishing Master's dual degrees with European universities, followed by Chinese, Indian, and Korean and Middle Eastern institutions (Kuder & Obst, 2009). The Council of Graduate Schools (2007) "Survey on International Graduate Admissions" demonstrated that doctoral level double degree programs have primarily been established with universities in Europe (16%) and China (4%). This trend is confirmed by 24% of administrators of universities with high international student enrollment, indicating the intention to pursue this kind of programs in the next two years. Already, 38% of American graduate schools-members of the Council of Graduate Schools (around 500 HEIs) have at least one such program, up from 29% just one year ago (Council of Graduate Schools, 2008). Table 1 demonstrates this growth.

According to another international survey of program administrators at 180 HEIs in the EU and the U.S., a large majority of participating American universities plan to develop more double degrees in the future (Kuder & Obst, 2009).

Table 1

*Council of Graduate Schools Member Engagement in International Joint and Dual Degrees*

	Degree Type	2007	2008	Change (%)
Established Programs with International Universities	Dual/Double Degree Programs	32%	51%	+19
Plans to Establish New Programs with International Universities	Dual/Double Degree Programs	3%	33%	+30

*Source:* CGS (2007) and CGS (2008)

It is important to summarize that for the United States the main GDDP rationales are maintaining competitiveness in the global higher education market and increasing institutional visibility by forming strategic alliances and sharing resources, as well as developing student skills needed in global marketplace.

### **Double Degree Program Development and Rationales in Australia**

According to the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2007), 6% of all international students studying outside their home countries are concentrated in Australia. Australia, along with the U.K., has been a pioneer in transnational higher education: from 1990 to 2003, Australia's share of the global market in cross-border degrees grew from 1% to 9%, and full fee-paying foreign students constitute one quarter of enrolments or possibly more (Marginson, 2007). Education is Australia's third largest services export, while university deregulation,

self-accreditation, and rapidly decreasing public funding of higher education underpin growth in cross-border and offshore programs. In this climate, double degrees are seen as another method of student recruitment.

Australia and Japan are the leading study abroad destinations in the region that possess internationally mobile populations, and there has been a significant increase formal exchange agreements between institutions in the two countries. Yet, it is worth noting that, Australia-Japan higher education linkages remain “incommensurate with the scale, complexity and importance of the countries’ broader economic and political partnership” (Pokarier, 2006).

### **Global Embeddedness vs. Local Frameworks**

Following the detailed overview of some of the major rationales and history of cross-border educational partnerships in the U.S. and Japan, it is important to highlight some overarching contradictions inherent in cross-border educational alliance-building that may affect the way GDDPs are implemented.

In spite of growing university eagerness to take advantage of global opportunities for collaboration, Huisman & van der Wende (2006) argue that university internationalization strategies are still mostly guided by national regulations and funding frameworks, characterized by unique historical, geographic, cultural and linguistic features, local labor market demands, and political agendas. This dichotomy is examined in detail in the conceptual framework section of the study and has to be taken into consideration to see the “big picture” when planning international collaborative projects.

However, many Japanese HEIs have been so eager to internationalize national

higher education that they may have “overlooked the importance of institutional preparation for increased diversity and capacity...as well as taking the initiative to work professionally and proactively in collaboration with their domestic and foreign counterparts” (Kiwamura, 2009). In turn, American and Australian campuses may also bear the consequences of hasty decisions to engage in cross-border education delivery if they do not take into account the quality assurance provision, legitimacy concerns, and domestic influences.

### **Challenges Associated With Graduate Dual Degree Programs**

In spite of some differences in underlying rationales, many of the main goals and objectives of Japanese, Australian, and American HEIs are similar: they aim to increase quality graduate student flow, increase revenue, and remain competitive in terms of higher education export and knowledge production. Hence it is not surprising that all three countries are currently utilizing GDDPs as a form of cross-border strategic alliance.

Multiple strengths of inter-university partnership include student learning benefits from combined teaching, curricular and research expertise, according to the researchers in North America (Knight, 2009; Paige, 2005; Teather, 2004) and Japan (Asaoka & Yano, 2009; Horie, 2002; Kuwamura, 2009; Ninomiya et al, 2009). Yet there are also multiple challenges that have become evident.

**Partner relationship and planning.** Educators and researchers individually often work in highly collaborative modes. But institutionally, universities are increasingly likely to be operating in a competitive business mode (Bannerman et al., 2005; Poole, 2001). This contradiction may be one reason why the “official story” based on

institutional aspirations often significantly differs from on-the-ground collaborative program implementation experience. This dichotomy emerges as a thread connecting much of recent cross-border education research.

Multiple studies of strategic alliances in business show that challenges begin with clarity of intent and objectives, i.e., incongruence in expectations among partners, exacerbated by internal and external environment factors and cross-cultural communication factors (Bannerman et al, 2005). In fact, two-thirds of such alliances run into serious managerial or financial trouble within the first two years, and half fail due to decreased control of critical organizational capabilities and strategic options while relying on partners (Chesbrough & Teece, 1996; Henderson, 1990). In the study of strategic partnership-building at four leading UK universities, Ayoubi and Al-Habaibeh (2006) examined different aspects of strategic alliance-building (such as student- and staff-related objectives) and highlighted the need to have clear objectives and implementation plans in order to see the expected outcomes.

Similarly, there is a troubling statistic that up to two-thirds of strategic alliances in education are encountering major trouble, and half fail (Bannerman et al., 2005). Although there are multiple factors potentially affecting such outcomes, as demonstrated in study sections devoted to program challenges below, asymmetry in partner relationships is not a rare phenomenon (Chapman & Sakamoto, 2010), and may lead to partner goals and performance reassessment (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007).

**Degree recognition.** It is important to ensure that dual degree awards (as well as other types of international collaborative degree qualifications) are respected and recognized by students, HEIs and employers worldwide (Knight, 2009). Both partner

institutions should be able to provide an officially recognized formal diploma to program graduates, especially as credentials become increasingly important to students due to job market requirements (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007).

In general, the legitimacy of the double degree is ensured by the fact that each partner institution has to be licensed or registered in its own country. Hence each of them is able to treat the partner's award like any other foreign credential and its own award as a domestic one (Knight, 2009). Some critics deem problematic the double counting of the same coursework for two or more qualifications, which may devalue the diplomas in certain markets (Knight, 2009). Yet others approve it, as long as students demonstrate the required competencies, regardless of where they were acquired. There is not much data on GDDP acceptance in America. In Japan, Kuriyama et al (2008) report revealed that reputation of such programs is low and impact on employment is yet limited, in spite of growing employer interest in hiring globally competent employees.

**Program quality.** Huang (2006) warns of little evidence that could suggest that incoming cross-border programs in Japan result in an increase in educational quality of teaching and learning at the institutional or national level even while GDDPs are often designed to do just that, as opposed to traditional TNHE ventures. Foreign HEI programs in Japan traditionally have been treated in legislature as business ventures that function with little relevance to national higher education activity while pursuing commercial interests (Huang, 2006). Thus they were seen as putting profit-making over program quality. Kuriyama et al (2008) also mention multiple problems with quality

assurance in terms of credit transfer and administrative issues, since Japanese law only focuses on degrees awarded in Japan.

Some studies found overall quality and effectiveness of cross-border programs to be strongly affected by student motivation and institutional support, including appropriateness of curriculum and pedagogy (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007; Stronkhorst, 2005). In connection to the latter, Japanese and American academics currently place more emphasis on the international dimension in their personal research activities (such as international collaboration and publishing) as opposed to directly participating in exchange activities, research and training with foreign scholars or students (Huang, 2009, Cummings & Bain, 2009). The two above-mentioned studies give a useful overview of the extent, to which busy academics may be motivated regarding high quality in-depth international collaboration. However, Maureen (2008) study of curriculum internationalization also stresses the importance of empowering and supporting academics to assist them in providing international learning opportunities for students, as such work requires much extra effort for little or none remuneration.

Furthermore, high quality in a cross-border partnership is often defined based on loyalty and sense of “ownership” by partner institutions, in addition to official quality monitoring and assessment standards. However, the concept of ownership is hard to achieve among faculty, staff, and administrators involved: they aim, above all, is to remain loyal to home institution (Beerkens, 2004). At the same time, HEIs involved in international partnerships care about quality since their names will be associated with each other and known worldwide. Hence, mutual recognition of joint internal quality assurance programs by partners would be helpful according to Knight (2009), as it is

often difficult for institutions to monitor the quality of partner institution's courses.

It is debated whether such programs should be accredited at national, regional or international level and whether it is to be completed separately by each partner institution. Still, there are few international quality guidelines or safeguards in TNHE, with an exception of organizations such as Global Alliance for Transnational Education (GATE) that provides quality assurance certification. The concerns of dual degree quality are closely connected to program recognition that affects the value of credentials and corresponding program image. Currently, decentralized U.S. accrediting organizations and Japan University Accreditation Association of private and public universities play a significant role in cross-border program curriculum review.

**Student participation.** The issues of student participation, recognition, and demand for GDDPs partially stem from above-mentioned quality and legitimacy concerns and may come to partners' attention at varying stages of program implementation. For instance, in many cross-border strategic alliance arrangements there is a risk of tensions arising if student flows are not relatively even, causing competition between partner institutions or among consortium members.

One other issue of concern for U.S. international educators and researchers is the lack of participation in longer-term programs by U.S. students. Kuder & Obst (2009) examined survey responses from 180 higher education institutions in the United States and the European Union and found out that one of the serious challenges to double degree programs was that U.S. students were significantly less likely than European students to participate in them. The majority of the respondents indicated that it was particularly problematic to find U.S. students interested in such programs that met the

required levels of language proficiency. Only 6% of all U.S. study abroad students spend a full academic year in the host country (IIE, 2009). Potential consequences may include lack of program sustainability, as partner institutions are also interested in attracting U.S. students for cultural enrichment and as a potential revenue stream. Asymmetry already exists in many north-south and east-west cross-border educational arrangements, but as higher education systems abroad mature, the demand for reciprocity in student streams may grow, and other countries' HEIs may be given preference over American ones.

Japan is the sixth largest provider of international education in the OECD with nearly 5% of the international student market (AEI, 2008), with Japanese students studying abroad comprising the second largest group of international students enrolled in OECD countries after Korea. However, it is hard to present exact numbers of Japanese students abroad based on available literature, as many students choose to take a leave-of-absence from their universities or enroll in an overseas university for the entire degree program, bypassing the Japanese higher education system altogether. Moreover, the imbalance in terms of higher education import and export in Japan exists: the numbers of university students going abroad are much lower than those of students coming into most Japanese universities (Asaoka & Yano, 2009), similar to the dynamics in the U.S. Regarding GDDPs, research shows that many Japanese graduate students would consider enrolling in collaborative degree programs if it would offer substantial advantages for employment, allow for a period of study that is the same or slightly longer than regular programs, require a small credit load increase, and not a large increase in tuition payment (Kuriyama, et al., 2008).

In sum, as the U.S. and Japan HEIs intensify strategic efforts to improve competitive advantage in the global higher education market by encouraging close inter-university collaboration, research reveals a number of similar challenges in implementing high-quality international university alliances. These challenges include partner selection, degree recognition, program quality, and student participation.

### **GDDP Organizational Context**

The process approach to internationalization stresses the need to address sustainability and institutionalization of international dimensions in education. In general, university organizational structure discussed in the literature supports the international activities infrastructure and systems for communication, financial support, and resource allocation systems (see Figure 1).

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Central international relations offices International strategy planning office or a campus-wide committee or task force for internationalization efforts</li> <li>• The tasks of these offices: mainly involved in the administration of international activities or involved in policy-making and actively expanding the internationalization activities in the university</li> <li>• Organizations of these offices and cross-office/departmental cooperation and networking</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Systems for communicating international activities</li> <li>• Integration of international activities into institution-wide and departmental planning, budgeting and quality reviews</li> <li>• Efforts for external funding</li> <li>• Financial support and resource allocation systems</li> <li>• International linkages, partnerships and networks</li> </ul>
--	--

*Figure 1.* Typical university organizational units supporting international activities.  
Source: Watabe (2010, p. 81)

Participants are defined as individuals who contribute to the organization while motivated by various incentives (Scott, 1981). In the context of higher education

internationalization, the main participants include academic staff, management staff, support staff, and students (Luijten-Lub, et al., 2005). This study investigates the views of all these groups, with the exception of students.

University administrators are top staff members as opposed to regular staff members (lower-level support personnel and mid-level personnel). Administrators typically coordinate the implementation of selected international activities on campus. They are involved in decision-making and often serve on committees that are responsible for strategic planning of internationalization efforts. Watabe (2010) uses the following indicators of internationalization management process, outlined in Figure 2.

- Top-down or bottom-up model of decision-making model
- Systematic or ad hoc manner internationalization tasks implementation
- Level of interaction between the central administration, faculty, and department levels to implement internationalization tasks (intra- and cross-departmental cooperation and networking)

*Figure 2.* Management process indicators

Source: Watabe (2010, p. 82)

Literature on internationalization also refers to participants with different labels. In particular, the literature in Europe, Japan and the U.S. discusses the importance of qualified professionals as necessary human resources to run international relations offices (Ashizawa, 2006; Huisman & van der Wende, 2004; Luijten-Lub, et al., 2005; Paige, 2005).

### **Conceptual Framework**

The conceptual framework utilized in this study is grounded in two different

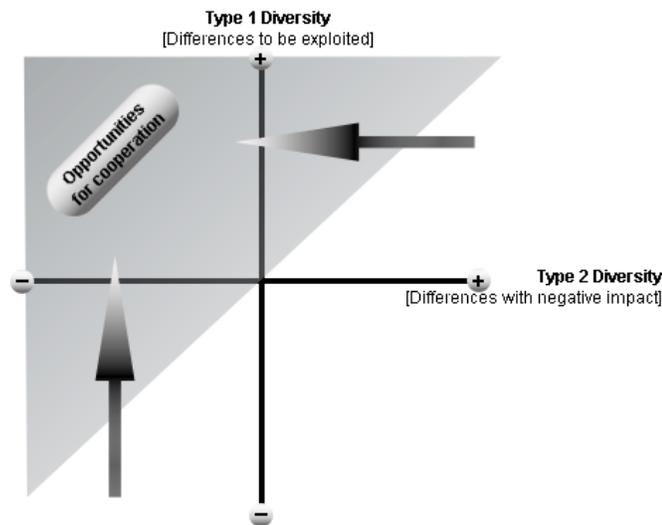
organizational theory perspectives. The resource-based view of the firm (RBV) (Barney, 1991; Das & Teng, 2000; Wernerfelt, 1984) focuses on organizational search for complementary resources gained as a result of cooperation in order to ensure sustainable competitive advantage. In addition, “embeddedness theories” (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983) and institutional theories (Uzzi, 1997; Scott, 1995) theorists argue that organizations are primarily shaped by and embedded in their (national) institutional context with corresponding normative, cognitive, and regulative structures, that serve as limitations in the global cooperation arena.

Hence, this “paradox of institutional embeddedness” (Uzzi, 1997) allows for constraints, but also for opportunities to improve partnership performance in inter-university alliances. In education, diversity in HEI resources may positively affect the performance of cooperation, but diversity of institutional contexts in which the universities are embedded may influence it negatively (Figure 3 illustrates this tension).

Utilizing this theoretical perspective, this study aims to examine factors affecting GDDP establishment and implementation in the outlined above organizational structure by stakeholders with various level of influence. To do so, it is useful to apply Beerkens and van der Wende (2006) inter-university cooperation framework based on examining the degree of “inter-organizational diversity” of partners involved in a strategic alliance (Parkhe, 1991).

Strategic alliances in business are defined in general as long-term cooperative arrangements that utilize resources from autonomous organizations for the joint accomplishment of individual goals. In higher education, strategic alliances are also based on common goals and individual agendas (Bannerman et al., 2005) that may not

coincide and lead to implementation challenges. Therefore, partner institutions need to be both compatible and complementary to perform well in utilizing a common pool of resources (Beerkens and van der Wende (2006). In other words, partner institutions need to be similar, yet different enough to succeed and develop.



*Figure 3.* The diversity paradox of international university cooperation

Source: Beerkens (2004)

Beerkens and van der Wende (2006) analyzed case studies of 4 HEI consortia in Europe and Southeast Asia and concluded that partner institutions in a consortium rarely exploit all opportunities for improved performance. They fail to do so due to inability to satisfy the criteria of compatibility (of institutional backgrounds and major characteristics that are often dependent on national environment), complementarity (connected to the ability to identify and utilize mutually useful resources) as well as consistent relationship management and communication.

Yet the study found that even if these conditions were to be satisfied, it does not mean the resources are known and properly utilized by program personnel. For instance, partnership performance may be affected positively by the existence of complementarity only when complementary resources were actually “recognized, utilized and exploited” by stakeholders (Beerkens & van der Wende, 2006).

Study results were based on survey data of individual stakeholders in participating universities (188 questionnaires from 61 universities in 38 countries, with an approximate response rate of 39.2%), analyzed via multiple regression analysis. Quantitative data were augmented by qualitative data from interviews with consortia leaders as well as document analysis. Figure 4 illustrates the explanatory theoretical model utilized in Beerkens and van der Wende (2006) study.

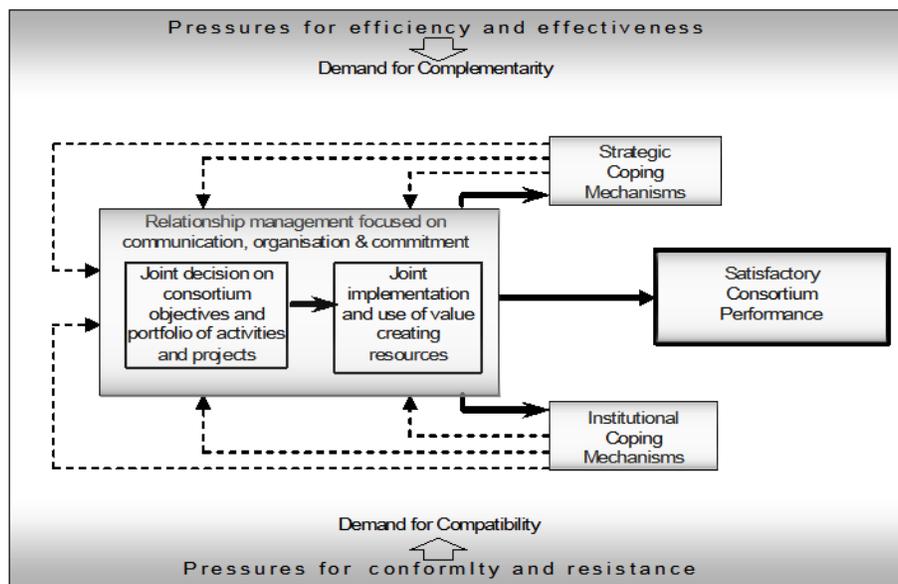


Figure 4. A sequential Model of Cooperation in Consortia

Source: Beerkens (2004)

Consequently, the authors identified “strategic coping mechanisms” to be adopted by international HE consortia to increase complementarity of resources; and

“institutional coping mechanisms” to be employed to lessen the effect of internal and contextual differences in order to increase general compatibility. Table 2 lists proposed institutional and strategic coping mechanisms.

Table 2

*Institutional and Strategic Coping Mechanisms for Consortia Partner Institutions*

Strategic Coping Mechanisms (to increase less than optimal complementarity)	Institutional Coping Mechanisms (to increase less than optimal compatibility)
1. Acquisition, identification, dissemination and exploitation of complementary resources	1. Mutual adjustment and/or incorporation of differences (i.e., by setting up joint administrative structures to manage programs)
2. Working to motivate university stakeholders to commit to GDDP activities (e.g., internal or external funding provision, inclusion into wider regional programs)	2. Informing stakeholders of existing institutional structures and contexts via meetings, seminars or workshops

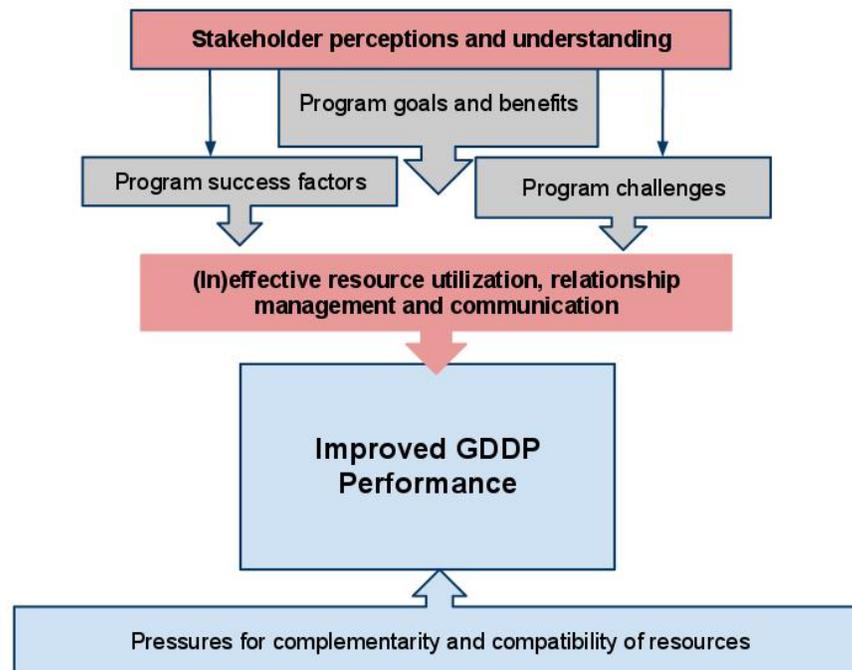
Source: Beerkens and van der Wende (2006)

Altogether, this study illustrates the challenge to find a good “fit” among university partners. Even successful cooperation examples did not significantly impact member universities since “a tight integration of activities is not a part of their agenda” (Beerkens and van der Wende, 2006, p.77).

### **Summary**

Figure 5 offers a model of factors influencing GDDP implementation, based on the expanded Beerkens and van der Wende (2006) model of inter-university cooperation and the literature review. The latter yielded the three major dimensions of salient GDDP criteria: program rationale and benefits, program challenges and success

factors. These criteria are viewed through the lens of stakeholder perceptions that affect their contribution to relationship management and resource recognition, eventually shaping program outcomes. The empirical indicators for each dimension were developed in the course of interview data analysis.



*Figure 5.* Selected GDDP implementation factors. The model based on literature analysis.

Applying the chosen conceptual framework in the regions different from those where it was originally used and in different types in strategic alliances (including bilateral dual degree programs, not just multi-member consortia arrangements), allows testing the theoretical framework and expanding its use.

### **Explanatory Hypothesis**

**Program rationale.** In this study Japanese GDDPs tend to be established in the top-down manner as a result of current higher education internationalization trends. Consulting the stakeholders regarding the program value, feasibility and sustainability seldom precedes program establishment. National policies aimed at increased competitiveness in the global educational market and pre-existing contacts with foreign institutions play the main role in rationalizing the decision to implement such programs.

**Implementation factors.** University stakeholder views (i.e., administrator expectations of the program, faculty support or resistance, and staff opinions) may affect program implementation effectiveness, quality, recognition, and student participation in the following ways:

- The higher the level of view congruence among HEI stakeholders on program goals and factors affecting GDDP implementation is, the more effective program implementation is (measured by individual program goals achievement), exemplified by better wider program recognition and significant student participation.
- In the case of very low HEI stakeholders' view congruence on program goals, implementation and maintenance, GDDP provision will tend to become an “add-on” to already existing collaborative activities and may lead to low quality, low reputation/recognition, low implementation effectiveness, and insignificant student participation.

## **Mode of Inquiry**

### **Case Study Method**

This study aimed to develop an understanding of GDDP implementation and on-going support processes by studying how stakeholders view and evaluate the program. The main objective of the study was to construct a strategic model of GDDP implementation by examining stakeholder-level factors that aid in successful cross-border collaborative program implementation. The three research sub-questions addressed the extent of congruence of stakeholder views regarding program goals and benefits, challenges, and success factors.

The case study approach was selected to address these research questions due to its suitability for explaining the complexity and particular nature of the process in different real-life national and institutional contexts (Merriam, 1998). This study is what Stake (2000) calls an instrumental case study aiming to gain a holistic understanding of the GDDP implementation process from the perspective of key process participants.

This approach allows analyzing differences among levels of university hierarchy. According to Vavrus and Bartlett (2006), [vertical] case study research is a particularly effective way to engage with the knowledge possessed by each group of stakeholders within a complex research project. It lends itself to the simultaneous comparisons of similarities and differences across multiple levels, which are necessary to obtain complementary insights from analysis of different levels. Similarly, Bray and Thomas (1995) have long promoted multi-level analysis and argued for comparison across different dimensions, and, specifically, geographic levels to avoid “incomplete and unbalanced perspectives on educational studies” (p. 472). Bray and Thomas (1995)

also stressed that studies at the micro-level have demonstrated that educational outcomes depend largely on the local reception of educational efforts.

### **The Interpretive Nature of Research**

The researcher analyzed case studies and drew cross-case conclusions. Policy implications then were drawn, per Yin (2009) suggestions. This study follows interpretive rather than positivistic mode of inquire, per Merriam (1998) description:

In *interpretive* research, education is considered to be a process and school is a lived experience. Understanding the meaning of the process or experience constitutes the knowledge to be gained from an inductive, hypothesis- or theory-generating (rather than a deductive ) mode of inquiry (Merriam, 1998, p.4).

Additionally, the study examined GDDP implementation through a social constructionist lens, in which multiple subjective meanings of individual experiences are constructed and often negotiated socially and historically through interaction with others (Creswell, 2002). This study analyzed the case studies subjectively, through the participants' voices. Overall, this research is interpretive and aims to gain understanding of the meanings that GDDP stakeholders attribute to their own experiences with the double degree program. The study engages in comparison of stakeholder views in different organizational, institutional, and national contexts. The study elicits variation at several levels as well as highlights similarities and differences among the units of analysis – graduate double degree programs.

### **Research Design**

#### **A Unit of Analysis**

Every GDDP is considered a single unit of analysis, as differentiated from the contextual larger units (universities, these partnerships are associated with). In case

study methodology, there are various descriptions of cases, such as “a phenomenon of some sort occurring in a bounded context” (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p. 25), or “a thing, a single entity, a unit around which there are boundaries” (Merriam, 1998, p. 27).

### **Multiple-Case Design**

The multi-site case study portion of this study will largely follow the suggestions of Yin (2003) in the process of studying GDDP as an educational phenomenon: each university’s GDDP is viewed as a separate case, in which “the convergent evidence is sought regarding the facts and conclusions” (p.50). Specifically, the evidence on GDDP implementation will be collected within unique national and institutional contexts utilizing multiple sources of evidence collected among multiple stakeholders. Brief individual case study descriptions (main institutional characteristics) are presented in Chapter 4.

### **Participant Selection**

Participant selection was a two-phase process consisting of university partner selection and individual participant selection. To select both institutional and individual participants, purposeful sampling was adopted.

**University partner selection rationale.** The four selected programs represent a purposeful sample (Maxwell, 1996) developed to reflect diversity in program types, although it does not present maximum variation. The cases are information-rich and represent two main GDDP arrangements (consortium and bilateral alliances), public and private institutions located in geographically different areas of two respective countries. Such purposive sampling aims to uncover a full range of perspectives (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). While this sampling strategy is not meant to achieve representativeness, it is

justified by the need to collect rich in-depth data large enough to include various stakeholder perspectives. The objective of purposeful sampling is to “select a sample from which the most can be learned” (Merriam, 1998, p. 61). Patton (1990) stresses, “the logic and power of purposeful sampling lies in selecting *information-rich cases* for study in depth. Information-rich cases are those from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the research, thus the term *purposeful sampling*” (p.169).

The four selected programs represent a purposeful sample (Maxwell, 1996) based on preexisting contacts within three of the HEIs and developed to reflect diversity in university and program types as well as develop a convincing argument. This sample does not present maximum variation sample but is fairly varied, so as to potentially provide with contrasting data. The first two cases (American University and Ritsumeikan University) represent unique GDDP programs (possibly, exemplary, albeit there has not been a wide-scale evaluation of GDDPs yet); other two cases (Hiroshima University and Flinders University) represent more recently established programs that are currently facing implementation challenges. The cases are information-rich and represent a range of GDDP arrangements (one consortium and one bilateral alliance), both public and private institutional type, and are located in geographically different areas. Such purposive sampling aims to uncover a full range of perspectives (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Initially, these programs were mentioned in email conversations with Japanese and American GDDP coordinators as positive examples of the phenomenon of interest (Yin, 2003). The selected programs also match the GDDP criteria suggested by Knight

(2009) and IIE (2009): a) program awards two or more individual qualifications at equivalent levels upon completion of program requirements established by two or more partner institutions, in spite of national differences in determining the title of Master's degree, and b) students study at (at least) two higher education institutions in different countries for at least one semester. All selected programs have reached a formal GDDP agreement more than one year ago. While this sampling strategy is not meant to achieve representativeness, it is justified by the need to collect rich in-depth data large enough to include various stakeholder perspectives. After consulting with a my Japanese adviser in the field of higher education, I came to the conclusion that convenience sampling for the selection of the final three cases would be more appropriate and realistic. Since a GDDP study could be considered a sensitive topic related to university policies, it was essential to have an intermediary who was willing to introduce the researcher to university members.

In addition, the sample case studies were selected so that similar results could be predicted based on the study theoretical framework emphasizing the conditions of for successful inter-university cooperation, following the underlying logic of replication (Yin, 2009). The cases were selected partially to replicate previous research findings, as at least one case (consortium-based program at Hiroshima University) falls in the category associated with Beerkens and van der Wende (2006) theory of interuniversity partnerships. Additionally, differing cases were selected to potentially illustrate contrasting results based on theoretically predictable reasons (Yin, 2009) and thus contribute to evolving explanation and consequent theory generalization.

**Individual participant selection.** The second phase was to select the individual stakeholder participants based on purposive sampling procedures. Individual participants had to be senior leaders, faculty members, and administrative support staff members who had been involved in university-wide internationalization activities, or specifically in GDDP-related activities.

Three to nine people per program have participated (variation in number is due to different period of program activity and different size of programs). They included university faculty, students, and staff members (e.g., program coordinators, international program staff and administrators such as International Programs Office directors). Five out of 23 respondents combined faculty and staff positions; they were not counted twice and interviewed according to one of their roles. See Table 3 for the list of individual participating

Table 3

*Interview Participants at Four Studied Universities*

Participant Positions/University	HU	FU	RU	AU
Administrative staff	3	2	3	1
Faculty	4	1	2	1
Support staff members	2	1	2	1
Total	9	4	7	3

Initially, study participants were selected utilizing public information sources such as program websites, printed materials and documents, as well as colleague referrals. An email was sent or a personal visit conducted in order to introduce the

researcher and the study - its goals, risks and benefits - and to extend an invitation for participation. Questions and concerns were addressed. Usually a consultation meeting with a gatekeeper (such as program coordinator at the middle of top level of the program management structure) was conducted prior to the beginning of data collection to make sure each GDDP structure, history and goals were well understood by the researcher. No special permission “from the top” was needed to conduct the study, but it was useful to gain a “big picture” perspective on program benefits and drawbacks as well as university internationalization goals in general.

For an outsider with limited Japanese knowledge it was difficult to determine who could be able to interview in English. Therefore, the purpose of the study and the criteria of individual participants were presented to the intermediaries at the four universities, and they provided a list of potential participants. All potential participants have agreed to an interview in English. The interview consent forms and cover letters sent to participants were also prepared in English; however, my adviser at Hiroshima University sent letters of introduction in Japanese to the participants. For the consent forms and cover letters see Appendices B and C.

Only one of potential participants did not respond to the request for an interview. Confirmed participants received a short letter containing introduction and privacy options information. Participant names are not used in my research write-up. The potential subjects were informed that they could withdraw from the study at any time or prohibit using the information they provided me with, a step taken to minimize potential risk associated with study participation.

## Data Collection Methods

### Data Source Overview

**Semi-structured interviews.** In order to address the guiding research questions, the study uses multiple sources of evidence for triangulation of data collected through (a) semi-structured interviews in four target case study setting and (b) document analysis. The primary instrument was one-on-one, in-depth, semi-structured interviews.

The interviews addressed a series of questions broadly based on guiding research questions of program goals, factors affecting implementation and ways to address potential challenges. Some interview questions were tested and refined through informal conversations with a former administrative leader and a former staff member of one of the case study universities (that interview data was not included into the study). Interview content was differentiated according to participant group. Program administrators and staff were presented with more strategic and implementation-oriented questions. For GDDP-involved faculty the questions also addressed how the faculty were affected by the new program from an academic point of view. Guiding questions for interview protocols are presented in Appendix A.

Interviews were conducted in English and recorded via digital data recorder as well as transcribed by the researcher after ensuring informed consent to allow full interaction with interviewee and subsequent return to the data several times for in-depth analysis (Merriam, 1998). It is important to note that the study included fieldwork in Japanese university setting only. For the American and Australian stakeholder interviews, Skype and phone were utilized.

**Document analysis.** In addition, background papers of the government and institutions (strategic plans, internationalization plans and reports, etc.) were studied, most of these before the interviews took place. Grouped with interview and survey results, document analysis allows for triangulation of data (Yin, 2009; Merriam, 1998). The primary purpose of the document analysis was to obtain background and contextual information to thoroughly investigate the processes of GDDP implementation at each university. It also aimed to examine evidence of internationalization efforts at the selected universities. Chapter VI lists documents utilized.

The official documents consulted as a source of program background information include (a) discussions on university internationalization strategies and dual degree programs national, state/prefecture and institutional reports; (b) policy papers and meeting reports around the same topics that are considered public information; (c) data from the implemented programs, such as mission statements, memoranda of agreement (“paper trail”), websites, newsletters, and other media accounts.

## **Research Protocol**

### **Data Collection**

The research groundwork started by creating a list of strategic alliance success/failure indicators from the literature. The list served as a guideline for examining the degree of success of university engagement with GDDP. Then, the researcher collected all documents available on the websites of the studied universities, and conducted an initial document analysis before visiting each university for interviews. Additional documents were collected during the campus visits, and information from these documents was added to the initial document analysis.

The interview data were collected during a one-week visit to Kyoto in July of 2010 and researcher's stay at Hiroshima University during 2009-10 academic year. The researcher conducted interviews at a site of the participant's choice. One interview was conducted with two participants at the same time per their request. The average length of an interview was one hour and twenty minutes, and all interviews were recorded via digital voice recorder with the participant's permission for later data analysis.

Following each interview, I listened to the recording and wrote notes on the ideas and questions that emerged from the conversation. These questions were explored in later interviews, when appropriate.

### **Data Analysis**

Data was collected to the point of exhaustion of sources, emergence of regularities, or confirmatory evidence from two or more cases (Yin, 2009), or saturation of categories, per Lincoln & Guba (1985) recommendation (as cited in Merriam, 1998). There was some overlap between data collection and analysis: the resulting process involved simultaneous raw data coding and category construction for further analysis throughout data collection stage. Previously developed theoretical propositions and guiding research questions aided the process.

**Within-Case Coding.** The research initially resulted in the thick, rich description (Merriam, 1998) of the two types of GDDP (bilateral and consortium-based, differing mainly administratively) at four universities offering international education and research opportunities for graduate students. Additionally, it produced data for a comparative analysis of main factors affecting case study institutions and an outline for

an explanatory model of stakeholder views and expectations that may affect program implementation.

The researcher applied constant comparative method (Merriam, 1998) and created tentative categories and themes first, addressing my research questions. Later tentative themes were compared to categories from other cases that emerged and from literature that was reviewed later. New categories were created and finalized, as multiple, sometimes conflicting answers to research questions came to light. After entering the field in the fall of 2010, decisions to narrow study (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992) were made. The researcher had to eliminate students as respondent category due to not having enough GDDP participants in two cases study universities. Memos and observer comments (Bogdan and Biklen, 1992) were regularly written and a brief case study protocol was shared with the committee as a shortlist of work that was being done. Additional literature was also explored as much as possible, alongside with relevant documents to learn more of program context. Some sources had to be translated into English by one of the researcher's colleague at the Hiroshima University.

The process of data collection stopped when category and theme repetitions and regularities emerged. In the case of Hiroshima University, American University, and Flinders University it was possible to repeatedly tap some of the crucial sources in order to address the research questions in a more focused way.

The second stage of data analysis was data reduction of all the gathered materials, including documents and interviews. While I was interested in illustrating the uniqueness of the GDDP implementation process at each university, my main concern

was to identify commonalities and differences among stakeholders at different levels of university hierarchy and also cross-case data convergence or divergence trends.

In the Chapters V, VI, and VII the interview quotes appear with numbers that are references to an individual stakeholder indicating a combination of the school number, individual position, and individual name.

I transcribed the 23 interviews and reviewed all transcriptions while re-listening to the recorded conversations. Then, I manually began analyzing interview data. After conducting within-case university analysis, the key emergent categories were compared and further synthesized into themes related to the three research questions (see Appendix D). The three individual case analyses were described to portray institutional context in detail and highlight unique and similar features. The coding of the data via systematic comparison allowed assigning initially descriptive categories and subcategories to data at each individual case study level (Merriam, 1998). Thus data was prepared for the next step of analysis – analytical coding, or creating new categories that emerge in the process of data analysis (Richards, 2005).

**Cross-case analysis: pattern-matching and theoretical generalizations.** The data was analyzed using a pattern-matching technique (identifying key ideas and phrases, i.e., utilizing inductive content analysis) to determine cross-case similarities and differences. Pattern-matching refers to comparing an empirically based pattern with a predicted one (Yin, 2009). In the study this technique helped determine whether and how individual GDDP stakeholders address known implementation issues, based on theoretical framework and propositions. The cases will were tested against formulated tentative hypotheses until a hypothesis evolves that explained some aspects of analyzed

cases, as in general analytic induction method (Merriam, 1998), or until a new hypothesis evolved. Thus, in the more intensive part of data analysis, the resultant themes and categories (determined by conceptualizing and synthesizing convergent and divergent evidence from all cases) were searched for explanations of processes, outcomes and local factors in GDDP implementation. The manually created codebook was continuously revised (see Appendix E). After the two within case analyses were written, the key categories were further synthesized to develop a narrative through selective coding for a cross-case analysis.

**Theoretical generalization.** The conceptual framework was developed to guide the researcher to conduct the research in a consistent and systematic manner. Yin (2002) emphasizes the importance of constructing a preliminary theory related to the study topic prior to conducting data collection (p. 28). The study method speaks to the need to generalize not to population, but to theory, i.e., use analytic generalization (Yin, 2009).

Data analysis rigor in explanatory case studies is supported by data and method triangulation as well as multiple case study research design.

### **Quality Concerns and Limitations**

#### **Construct Validity**

The accepted limitation of this method is its subjectivity in addressing the factors affecting GDDP performance and performance. “Because the primary instrument in qualitative research is human, all observations and analyses are filtered through that human being’s worldview, values, and perspective” (Merriam, 1998).

Precautions used include piloting interview questions in informal conversations during the sample screening process to define specific concepts and develop operational

measures for program performance/success; using multiple sources of evidence to identify measures that match the concepts (like having similar educational systems in partner countries as a measure of compatibility). Also, useful are establishing a chain of evidence via the use of case study protocol and having interview participants review a draft of the individual case report (Yin, 2009) after study completion.

### **Internal Validity**

This is a concern over making inferences (Yin, 2009), since the process of GDDP implementation cannot be directly observed, and the investigator will make subjective conclusions based on interviews and other evidence collected. Using pattern-matching techniques in part addresses this limitation: the extent to which the presumed cause has an impact on presumed effect is determined by careful data analysis leading to analytic explanatory models supported by convergent evidence (if any is found). If rival explanations or divergent evidence appear, they will be taken into consideration.

The previously developed Beerkens and van der Wende (2006) theoretical framework was used as a template, with which to compare the empirical results, in hope that cases support the theory and thus replication may be claimed. In case they do not support the theory, a rival theory or hypothesis was to be sought. If evidence allows investigating major rival hypothesis or explanations it is a good indicator of rigor (Yin, 2009). However, this has not been the case in this study.

### **Reliability**

The key question regarding reliability is whether another researcher would be able to replicate the study with similar results. As case studies are inherently subjective, Yin (2009) suggests using a clear case study protocol, developing a case study database,

where all collected data is kept for future access to “making as many steps as operational as possible and to conduct research as if someone were always looking over your shoulder” (p. 45). The study followed these procedures over an extended period of time at the research sites in Japan (approximately 6 months) and considerably shorter, yet still significant amount of time in the U.S. (approximately 2 months).

### **External Validity**

Low generalizability to other setting is a common case study criticism that is also applicable to this study. However, although the findings cannot be directly generalized to all GDDP programs worldwide, it is anticipated that they may offer useful insights about GDDP functioning and impacts in varying national and institutional contexts, as well as some unique knowledge about phenomenon under analysis in Japan and the U.S. through generating detailed explanatory accounts.

For the multi-site case study, the use of replication logic also helps to address the following: if the findings are replicated through all GDDP cases, they may be accepted a strong support for the theoretical framework utilized (Yin, 2009). Significantly, by comparing the data from multi-site case studies, one can establish similarities in GDDP context, rationales and implementation issues, thus allowing for greater generalizability than single-case studies. According to Miles and Huberman (1994), in this case there is more potential for explanatory power of the study. Based on the preliminary unordered meta-matrix, a site-ordered matrix (Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2009) is presented in order to display interconnections among GDDP rationales, implementation challenges, outcomes, and key stakeholder opinions in both case studies (see Appendix E).

### **The Role of the Researcher**

The case study approach places the researcher in a position to immerse in the natural context of the phenomena over a period of time (Yin, 2009). In a qualitative study, researchers are the primary instruments of inquiry (Watabe, 2010). Therefore, it is essential to identify researcher's past experience, values, assumptions, and biases before conducting the study.

Non-participant observer and interviewer were the two main roles of the researcher in the study. Based on understanding that the interviews can only produce information "filtered through the views of the interviewee" (Creswell, 2003, p. 226), the researcher acknowledges that personal bias, values and interests, as well as presence in the case study setting have influenced data collection, understanding, and analysis.

As both the researcher and study participants were non-native English speakers, there may have been misunderstanding of terms on both sides. Additionally, the researcher encountered difficulty in securing access to information and learning of all historical, political, and cultural issues pertinent to the research. By employing translation services when needed, keeping weekly memos and journal, as well as spending a prolonged time in the field, the researcher hopes to have alleviated the linguistic drawback as much as possible. Additionally, peer debriefing was conducted by requesting colleagues from the U.S. and Japan to comment on case study report drafts during the writing stage. If serious concerns regarding study reliability or validity occur, contacting an external auditor (such as university professor not familiar with researcher or her work) to review final report were considered.

Additionally, researcher's personal and professional experience living and working in the field of education across cultures have affected her perception and understanding of cross-border higher education. Thus the researcher was cautious not to offer her opinions to respondents during the processes of data collection unless absolutely necessary or explicitly requested.

Ethical considerations were addressed since the researcher had an obligation to respect the rights of participants. Interviewing may invade the participants' privacy (Merriam, 1998), and the research permission was obtained from the University of Minnesota's Institution Review Board. Also, the research objective was articulated in the cover letter to participants, and the informed consent form was sent to participants in advance to inform them of potential risks. Interview transcriptions were available to participants as well as the final dissertation-based report. Due to the lack of extremely sensitive information, the sampled universities were not given pseudonyms or numbers to protect their identities; only individual participants received numbers.

## CHAPTER IV: CASE DESCRIPTIONS

This chapter describes case study institutions and presents within-case data analysis based on interviews and documents collected during and after my stay in Japan during 2009-10 academic year. A sample of overall initial within-case data categories, analyzed in detail later in this chapter, is presented in Appendix D.

It is helpful to provide an initial summary of university and program characteristics to be able to attempt to understand their history, structural and cultural characteristics, to understand the context that may impact GDDP implementation as well as stakeholders' roles in the process (see Table 4).

### **Case Study #1: Public Japanese University – Public Australian University**

**The International Network of Universities.** Both Hiroshima University and Flinders University are International Network of Universities (INU) members. The INU is a consortium of ten universities in eight countries including Flinders University and La Trobe University (Australia), Hiroshima University (Japan), James Madison University (United States), Katolik Parahyangan University (Indonesia), Kyung Hee University (Korea), Leicester University (United Kingdom), Ritsumeikan University (Japan), and Università Cattolica del Sacro Coure (Italy), and University of Malmö (Sweden). Seven of them are participants in the double degree program.

The INU was founded in 1999 and focused on promoting the internationalization of member universities through exchanges, research collaborations, and support in the management of the Networks programs. Its Secretariat is located on the Malmö University campus in Sweden; an Annual Council Meeting (Fall) and Executive Meeting (Spring) are held once each per year (INU, 2008). The INU main role is,

“...to assist each member university to achieve its own international mission by offering a range of opportunities and experiences and the sharing of best practice, underpinned by a collective commitment to the philosophy of “global citizenship” (International Network of Universities, 2009)

One of the first opportunities for exchange occurred when resources of its member institutions were combined to successfully establish the annual “INU Student Seminar on Global Citizenship and Peace”. Following that, the curriculum for Master’s level students enrolled in affiliate institutions was designed, titled “Masters in Global Citizenship and Peace”; it provides an intensive, eight-day Summer School Program in Hiroshima University, in addition to an optional opportunity for a semester exchange in a participating Network university.

INU Master’s of Global Citizenship and Peace includes a wide variety of dual degree opportunities for students; the models vary across the partner institutions, according to their context specific market forces. The most common model known as the “sandwich model”, requires students to complete their first semester or year at the home institution followed by the Summer School and a one year or semester at a Network institution before returning to their home institution to complete the final semester or year of their degree, totaling 2 to 2.5 years (Bhuyan, 2009; INU, 2009). The program has 5 areas of concentration, the number of annually participating students between member universities varies. The target groups at Hiroshima University are the students at Graduate School of Education, Social Sciences, International Development and Cooperation; at Flinders University there are no limitations as to who can participate.

Program language is English; each university provides its own curriculum (Hiroshima University additionally provides Summer School curriculum). Total program credits for the MA in Global Citizenship and Peace program are 30 (10 credits are transferrable from abroad on both sides). Yet, GDDP has not been successful in terms of student participation: only two students from Hiroshima went to Flinders university

**Hiroshima University overview.** Hiroshima University, located in the Japanese cities of Higashihiroshima and Hiroshima, was established in 1949 in the post-war effort to combine seven major pre-war higher educational institutions (some with much longer history) in Hiroshima Prefecture, south-east of the island of Honshu. It has eleven undergraduate programs, eleven Graduate schools, and three research institutes. The Graduate School was established in 1953; the number of graduate students, as of summer 2010, was 4,513 (total number of students was 15, 937). The number of international undergraduate and graduate students was 978 in 2010, mostly from East Pacific Asia and Southeast Asia. The university is well known in the region and nationally as a center for education research (in areas such as teacher training, higher education, and early childhood education), peace studies, and sciences (i.e., radiation biology, medicine, and animal science).

The university has a centralized governance structure. About 70% of financing is provided by the state but this amount has been steadily decreasing, as universities in Japan have become incorporated and more responsible for financing their needs since 2003. Since early 1990s, internationalization has become an important strategic priority at the university, and it has received funding through the Ministry of Education,

Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) competitive Strategic Fund for Establishing International Headquarters in Universities in 2005. Thus university leadership has been challenged to promote university internationalization by supporting initiatives to establish and carry out campus-wide international strategies developed by the special unit chaired by the Executive Vice President for Research, International Affairs and Peace. University goal is to become a world-class research university and foster students who will be able to contribute to the global society and workforce. Long-term study abroad and multiple degree programs is one of the steps towards this goal.

Overall level of international student admission and study abroad activity is low to medium.

**Flinders University overview.** Flinders University (FU) is located in the city of Adelaide, South Australia, and was established in 1966. Flinders has built a strong reputation for quality and innovation in its courses and in its teaching, helping to meet Australia's need for an increasing number of highly trained personnel in periods of industrial development and economic growth. It attracts students from over 85 countries due to its emphasis on research and the status of an Innovative Research University. Some of the focus areas include cancer research, medical devices, educational futures, molecular technologies, and psychology. As opposed to Hiroshima University, FU is self-accredited and has a decentralized internal governance structure. However, one similarity is that government expenditures on public universities have been steadily decreasing, with only 44 % of financing still provided by the state. The number of graduate students was 3,818 as of summer 2010.

Table 4

*Overview of Case-Study Universities*

Hiroshima University	Flinders University	Ritsumeikan University	American University
Public	Public	Private	Private
Rural and urban locations	Urban location	Urban location	Urban location
4,513 (2010)	3,818 (2010)	3,273 (2010)	3, 318 (2010)
A wide range of graduate programs across the humanities as well as social sciences, professional programs, and education	...% international graduate students A wide range of graduate programs across the humanities as well as social sciences, professional programs, and education	...% international graduate students Modest number of graduate and interdisciplinary degree programs	...% international graduate students A wide range of graduate programs across the humanities as well as social sciences, professional programs, and education
Consortium-based	Consortium-based	Bilateral agreement initiated	Bilateral agreement initiated
(International Network of	(International Network of	1992	1992

Universities) started 2008	Universities) started 2009		
M.A. in Global Citizenship and Peace (1-2 students/year)	M.A. in Global Citizenship and Peace (1-2 students/year)	M.A. in International Relations (8-10 students/year)	M.A. in International Relations (8-10 students/year)
Partner with Flinders University (Australia), Kyung Hee University (Korea), Leicester University (United Kingdom), Malmo University (Sweden), Ritsumeikan University (Japan)	Hiroshima University (Japan), Kyung Hee University (Korea), Leicester University (United Kingdom), Malmo University (Sweden), Ritsumeikan University (Japan)	American University	Ritsumeikan University
Language of instruction English	Language of instruction English	Language of instruction English and Japanese	Language of instruction English and Japanese
Desire to enhance its international reputation and to improve its profile	Tradition of international students being an integral part of its community	Tradition of international students being an integral part of its community	Tradition of international students being an integral part of its community
Centralized governance	Decentralized governance	Decentralized governance	Decentralized governance

Culture becoming more supportive of the global dimension	Culture very supportive of the global dimension	Culture very supportive of the global dimension	Culture very supportive of the global dimension
Many ad hoc initiatives that contribute to internationalization	A systematic and strategic response to globalization	International activities are becoming more strategically developed in a planned way	A systematic and strategic response to internationalization
“Sandwich model”: first semester/year at home institution, Summer School at Hiroshima University, 1 semester/1 year at a partner university (2- 2.5 years total)	“Sandwich model”: first semester/year at home institution, Summer School at Hiroshima University, 1 semester/1 year at a partner university (2- 2.5 years total)	1 year at each partner institution (2 years total)	1 year at each partner institution (2 years total)
30 total credits (10 credits transferrable from abroad)		30 total credits (complete 24 credits at Ritsumeikan, including a thesis, and transfer 6 credits from AU )	39 total; 24 credits prior to departure; transfer back 15 credit hours to the SIS degree

*Interview Participants at Four Studied Universities*

Participant Positions/University	HU	FU	RU	AU
----------------------------------	----	----	----	----

Administrative staff	3	2	3	1
Faculty	4	1	2	1
Support staff members	2	1	2	1
Total	9	4	7	3

Australia's active role in transnational higher education is reflected in Flinders' network of strong external links and strategic plan containing the point on the importance of strengthening internationalization by expanding opportunities and benefits for students, staff, and local communities to engage in the global society. The International Office headed by the top officer and two deputy head officers is an independent unit and is responsible for the management of the university's international program and the admission of international students. Flinders main international connections are with institutions in Asia, Europe and North America, providing international exchange opportunities for students and staff. The major countries of international student origin are China (including Hong Kong), Singapore, Indonesia, Canada, Malaysia, India and Korea. In 2010, on-shore and off-shore international student enrolments were 3,621 (the total enrolment number is 20,061). International enrolments at Flinders represent 20% of total enrolments. Overall level of international student admission and study abroad activity is high.

**Case Study #2: Private Japanese University – Private American University.**

**Long-term bilateral partnership overview.** American University (AU) and Ritsumeikan University (RU) GDDP represents a unique long-established GDDP programs, although both universities have a number of other double degree programs with various international universities. Founded in 1992, it is the first-ever dual master's degree program involving a Japanese and an American University that selects a limited number of students who are fluent in English and Japanese to complete their dual degree studies in international affairs within two years. Students begin their studies at American University's School of International Service and complete their

second year of study at the Graduate School of International Relations at RU. Graduates receive simultaneously a master's degree from the School of International Service and a master's degree from Ritsumeikan University's Graduate School of International Relations (American University, 2009). Both universities are involved in a number of other cross-border GDDP arrangements and are well-known internationally. Ritsumeikan University has one of the largest international student bodies in western Japan (Ritsumeikan University, 2009), and American University boasts the largest U.S. undergraduate program in international relations (American University, 2009). Both universities strongly support study abroad and incoming international students and have relatively decentralized governance structure. Private institutions that account for close to 75% of all HEIs in Japan receive very limited government funding and enjoy relative flexibility in terms of governance structure, financing, and campus culture. Program language is Japanese at the RU and English at the AU. Each university provides own coursework that combine allows receiving two M.A. degrees in International Relations (4 areas of concentration). Number of annually participating students has varied from 1 to 30 students over the years, with the recent asymmetry tendencies (more Japanese students going to the AU). Graduation timeline is 1 year at each partner institution (2 years total). There are 30 required at the RU (complete 24 credits at Ritsumeikan, including a thesis, and transfer 6 credits from the AU). At the AU, 39 total credits require completing 24 credits prior to departure and transfer back 15 credit hours from Japan.

**Ritsumeikan University overview.** The university is located in the city of Kyoto. The history of Ritsumeikan dates back to 1869 when Prince Kinmochi Saionji,

an eminent international statesman of modern Japan, founded "Ritsumeikan" as a private academy on the site of the Kyoto Imperial Palace. This school formally adopted the name Ritsumeikan in 1913 and was finally given the status of a university in 1922 (Ritsumeikan University, 2009). Its first international education exchange programs were introduced in the 1990s, including the Dual Masters Degree Program with American University in 1992. The university now has one of the largest international student bodies in western Japan and offers numerous overseas study opportunities to its students. The total number of graduate students was 3,327 in 2009, including 422 international students, with majority of the latter coming from China, South Korea, Malaysia, Taiwan, Indonesia, and Thailand.

The university is well known in the region and nationally as a center for international relations research, as well as research in the arts and natural sciences. The university has a decentralized governance structure. Most of financing is provided by tuition and other sources, and only about 10% by the state, which allows for more flexibility in research collaboration with other universities or enterprises. The Office of International Planning and Development as well as the Office of International Cooperation and Service are working on university internationalization strategic planning and mobility program management, respectively. The overall level of international student admission and study abroad activity is high, with several courses in international Relations being taught in English, and an all-English program scheduled to start in the fall of 2011. Eight foreign faculty members were hired in 2010 for the Department of International Relations alone.

**American University overview.** This is a private, coeducational, liberal arts curriculum, Methodist affiliated institution, located in Washington, D.C. and famous for political activism. It was founded in 1893 and has greatly expanded after the World War II. Ground was broken for the School of International Service in 1957 by President Dwight Eisenhower, who urged the new school to remember that “the waging of peace demands the best we have.” The AU consistently ranks high among American universities, as it has a strong reputation for international relations, political sciences and creative arts. The university has six major schools and colleges. The student body is cosmopolitan and globally diverse, with the number of graduate students, with 139 countries and all 50 states represented among graduate student body (3,507 as of 2009). Eleven percent of graduate students are international; this percentage goes up to 78% for the School of International Relations (American University, personal communication).

The university has a decentralized governance structure. Most of financing is provided by tuition and other sources. The legal powers of the university are vested in the 32-member Board of Trustee. In addition, faculty, staff, and students participate in various levels of governance through university-wide, college-specific, or student representative bodies, committees, councils, and project teams (American University, 2009). Office of Global Affairs works on university international activities, study abroad programs, partnerships with international universities, and opportunities for international students and scholars. With more than 100 AU Abroad programs, the overall level of international student admission and study abroad activity is high.

## CHAPTER V: FINDINGS OF WITHIN-CASE ANALYSIS

At the first stage of the analysis the emergent conversation themes within each case study were identified based on frequency of appearance in participant interview responses. By applying the constant comparative method (Merriam, 1998), tentative categories and themes were grouped, addressing the research questions (see Table 5).

Note that the interview quotes below appear with numbers that are references to an individual respondent, indicating a combination of the university name (the first number); individual's position (the second number, where 1 stands for faculty positions, 2 –for administrators, and 3-for staff); and individual's name (the third number).

**Research Question One. How congruent are stakeholder views regarding program goals and benefits?**

### Case Study One

#### Case Study 1 Faculty

In this case study, five faculty members were interviewed. The following themes emerged during the process of data analysis (see Appendix D for a sample of within case category listings).

**GDDP as a way to follow MEXT internationalization guidelines.** As confirmed by three informants, promotion of study abroad opportunities among Japanese students is one of the main components of the MEXT internationalization recommendations. Additionally, being selected as one of the 30 Global University members leads to significant external pressure for the university to provide internationalized curriculum. GDDP is a good way to signal university compliance

Table 5

*Overview of Emergent Themes In Within-Case Study Data Analysis*

Research Questions	Emergent Themse (in order of frequency)
<b>Case Study 1</b>	
<p>RQ1. How congruent are stakeholders' views regarding <b>program rationale, goals, and benefits?</b></p>	<p><b>Faculty</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• May lead to positive student learning and development outcomes (3)</li> <li>• A way to follow MEXT guidelines (2)</li> <li>• Helps develop faculty collaboration (2)</li> <li>• A marketing tool (1)</li> <li>• An opportunity to earn extra revenue (1)</li> </ul> <p><b>Staff</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Reputation-building (1)</li> <li>• Providing an opportunity for language learning (1)</li> <li>• To apply for MEXT funding (1)</li> <li>• No clear understanding of program goals (1)</li> </ul> <p><b>Administrators</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Provide diversified education for own students (3)</li> <li>• Cost-effectiveness (2)</li> <li>• Providing faculty with research opportunities (2)</li> <li>• Recruiting well-prepared students (2)</li> </ul>
<p>RQ 2. How congruent are stakeholders' views regarding <b>program challenges?</b></p>	<p><b>Faculty</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ethical concerns (3)</li> <li>• Quality concerns (2)</li> <li>• Lack of faculty and/or researcher champions (2)</li> <li>• Student employment concerns (2)</li> <li>• Lack of student participation (2)</li> <li>• Low level of overall internationalization (1)</li> <li>• No clear understanding of program goals (1)</li> <li>• Lack of budget funds (1)</li> <li>• Lack of concern for reputation (1)</li> </ul> <p><b>Staff</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lack of clarity on program rules and ownership (2)</li> <li>• Lack of faculty motivation (1)</li> <li>• Reputation risks (1)</li> <li>• Lack of curriculum integration (2)</li> <li>• Inadequate program marketing (1)</li> <li>• High program cost for students (1)</li> </ul>

	<p><b>Administrators</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Low student participation (2)</li> <li>• Credit transfer (2)</li> <li>• High cost of program expansion (1)</li> <li>• Curriculum overlaps (1)</li> <li>• Communication difficulty (1)</li> <li>• Lack of concern for university reputation (1)</li> </ul>
<p>RQ 3. How congruent are stakeholders' views regarding <b>major success factors</b> affecting the process of GDDP implementation?</p>	<p><b>Faculty</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Faculty incentives (2)</li> <li>• Leadership (2)</li> <li>• MEXT guidelines provision (2)</li> <li>• Educational system reform (1)</li> <li>• Improved student recruitment (1)</li> </ul> <p><b>Staff</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• GDDP as a global trend (1)</li> <li>• MEXT support (1)</li> <li>• Faculty incentives (1)</li> </ul> <p><b>Administrators</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Financial aid for outgoing students (3)</li> <li>• Relatively low costs (2)</li> <li>• Program promotion (2)</li> <li>• Good partner relationship (2)</li> <li>• MEXT guideline provision (2)</li> <li>• Adequate staff support (1)</li> </ul>
<p><b>Case Study 2</b></p>	
<p>RQ 1. How congruent are stakeholders' views regarding <b>program rationale, goals, and benefits?</b></p>	<p><b>Faculty</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Academic and cross-cultural development value for students (2)</li> <li>• Research collaboration development (2)</li> </ul> <p><b>Staff</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Providing potential labor market advantage for students (3)</li> <li>• Providing for a good cross-cultural experience (3)</li> <li>• A quality structured learning experience (1)</li> <li>• A part of university internationalization strategy (1)</li> </ul> <p><b>Administrators</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• An innovative program type (2)</li> <li>• A part of university internationalization strategy (1)</li> <li>• Providing potential labor market advantage (1)</li> </ul>
<p>RQ 2. How congruent</p>	<p><b>Faculty</b></p>

<p>are stakeholders' views regarding <b>program challenges?</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Student recruitment (3)</li> <li>• Ethical concerns denied (1)</li> <li>• Balancing the budget (1)</li> <li>• Quality of partnership (1)</li> </ul> <p><b>Staff</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Domestic student academic challenges (2)</li> <li>• Foreign student academic challenges (2)</li> <li>• Balancing the program budget (1)</li> <li>• Domestic student financial burden (1)</li> </ul> <p><b>Administrators</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• High costs (2)</li> <li>• Low domestic students motivation (2)</li> <li>• Lack of campus resources (1)</li> <li>• Lack of staff support and motivation (1)</li> <li>• Lack of faculty motivation (1)</li> </ul>
<p>3. How congruent are stakeholders' views regarding major <b>success factors</b> affecting the process of GDDP implementation?</p>	<p><b>Faculty</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Careful partner selection (2)</li> <li>• Domestic Student Recruitment (2)</li> <li>• Global mission of the university (1)</li> <li>• Financial aid from partner institution (1)</li> <li>• Institutional support mechanisms (1)</li> <li>• Faculty incentives (1)</li> </ul> <p><b>Staff</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Leadership support (3)</li> <li>• Partner selection (2)</li> <li>• Global mission of the university (2)</li> <li>• Narrow program focus (1)</li> <li>• Financial support from domestic institution (1)</li> <li>• Quality assurance (1)</li> </ul> <p><b>Administrators</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Creating long-term partner relationships (1)</li> <li>• Dedicated staff (1)</li> <li>• Domestic student motivation (1)</li> </ul>

with the Ministry and promote university globally via the consortium while providing unique service to the students. As faculty members noted, university “would like to respond to MEXT request to be more internationalized” (11-4) and MEXT has created

a special working group to work on double degree program guidelines for the first time in history (11-3). Another faculty member, who often teaches international student seminars in English, articulated the point that the program reflects wider campus trends toward internationalization:

The program itself is an indication of internationalization of this campus because before 1996 this university didn't have any exchange program...this is one big step. We got my position...based on MEXT funding, so our government was very serious about establishing exchange programs at national universities. Double degree is a very, very small-scale activity but that [shows] the university becomes internationalized (11-5).

Thus, GDDP participation is often seen as a “proof” of being an internationally oriented institution.

**GDDP as a marketing tool/Visibility.** Good reputation may not lead directly to increased student recruitment, yet two out of four faculty members commented on the necessity of international collaborative programs for campus promotion and creation of positive institutional image among potential applicants:

Our university is not good at advertising itself, but because of the [INU] consortium, Malmo or Austrian universities will keep talking about how great double degree program we have, and Hiroshima University name will appear...to make our program more attractive, to automatically promote our name (11-5).

**GDDP as an opportunity to earn extra revenue.** Every year the MEXT cuts about 5% of the budget leading to faculty job loss, especially in social sciences, humanities, and education (11-4). Therefore the hope is to gain more revenue sources from potential influx of international students, as well as faculty cross-border research projects (11-4). Additionally, many universities have recently started to compete extensively via alliance or consortium membership (not as stand-alone institutions),

and becoming the member of INU might benefit university directly in terms of attracting fee-paying students (11-5).

**GDDP may lead to positive student learning and development outcomes.**

In fact, student program benefits most often mentioned were an opportunity to gain deeper field knowledge, cultural exchange, and seeing the world, that would be helpful for overall development (11-3, 11-9). A provision of a “unique, interesting program” to offer students a variety of choices apart from regular study abroad programs (11-5) was also seen as important.

**Develop faculty collaboration.** Improving faculty exchange opportunities was mentioned as one potential and much hoped for outcome of the program implementation in the long term (11-4), as well as sharing of resources, learning from each other and in the end potentially contributing to world peace through education and awareness of other cultures (11-5, 11-9).

**Case Study 1 Staff**

**Providing an opportunity for language learning.** Not many students know about such programs, yet those who do come are often looking for a language-learning experience, since not very many language programs are offered at the institution (13-1).

**Reputation-building.** Some staff members mentioned student study abroad participation as a way to open up potential future opportunities for work or study. But the majority of responses had to do with following university strategy of internationalization, gaining more visibility within and outside Japan as a “provider of advanced programs” (13-1). The demographics issue of Japan are behind the increased

necessity to compete for students, thus some faculty see the value in becoming one of “pioneers” among national universities-providers of double degree programs:

To create best practices, their [university administration’s] strategy of internationalization...and also to apply for the funding. It’s like a trend in the field, so universities consider possibilities of providing the double degree programs so they would be looking up to pioneers with a reputation for providing advanced [international] programs (13-1).

**No clear understanding of program goals.** The INU is a Ministry-funded project, as MEXT developed the funding scheme for selected 30 Global Universities, where double degree program development is outlined as one of many possible “best practices”, a relatively new component of a wider internationalization strategy. Thus, according to one faculty member, it is very hard to determine institutional or individual student benefits of such programs, as not many students are “motivated to participate or really understand how it works” (13-7).

### **Case Study 1 Administrators**

Three administrative workers were interviewed for this study (one of them was a “program champion” on campus and was simultaneously a faculty member and an administrator). The following themes emerged:

**GDDP as a way to build on existing resources (cost-effectiveness).** In his role as INU “champion”, one respondent delineated one GDDP benefit as allowing to apply for funding from MEXT together with other consortium partners, thus supplementing university budget that has been steadily cut during the last decade. In fact, he argued that program initiation was easy, and program implementation as a piece of INU-related activities would not be exceedingly hard, as it could build on existing institutional resources in terms of classes and infrastructure and would not

require many administrative adjustments, given that all agreements were already in place:

Our university cannot afford a fully new double degree program. As long as you are able to provide programs or lectures in English...it's not hard to organize a double degree program, it does not require many administrative adjustments, just builds on what we've got...that was my selling point [for the program] at the university. I didn't ask them to change (12-6).

He claimed the only adjustment that would have to be made would be switching the language of instruction to English for the course in case incoming students chose to register for them (upon potentially short notice). And he implied that if the faculty were on board, they would make this extra effort. Of course, if more money was available in the future after MEXT funding ends, more could be done, he specified. Being a member of the INU allows Japanese university members apply for the next round of Ministry funding together or conduct joint research projects (12-2).

**Provide value-added, diversified education for students.** One administrator saw the program goal as raising “the whole new global generation of Japanese, able to be more competitive international citizens”, even though not many students currently benefit from the program, primarily because Japan needs globalized workforce (12-8). This statement emphasizes the human resources rationale. Another administrator, not unlike faculty members, views student program benefits as significant:

If we want to internationalize, apply Internationalization at Home [concept] and offer different programs for different students, we have to offer international educational opportunities (12-6)

Sending students to Japan was also seen as important by one of the Australian administrators, especially in the light of English-language courses offered by their partner institution (22-2).

**Providing faculty with research opportunities.** It was also mentioned by two respondents that sharing resources among institutions in the course of double degree program implementation might lead to future joint research projects (12-2, 12-6). This opinion is similar to what another administrator voiced, highlighting access to overseas research network as the main GDDP advantage for faculty (12-2).

**Recruiting well-prepared students.** Strong applicants with adequate English skills are highly desirable by an Australian respondent-administrator (22-2, 22-1), since they are willing to pay and will add to student body diversity.

## **Case Study Two**

### **Case Study 2 Faculty.**

Three faculty members were interviewed (two of them combine faculty and support staff or administrator roles). The following themes emerged

**Academic and cross-cultural development value for students.** The three faculty members viewed GDDP programs as academically valuable for students. One professor based his evaluation on high quality of curriculum, faculty, and support services in terms of friendly advising, adequate housing, and good communications between staff and students (41-1). Another faculty member deemed it necessary to provide students with opportunities to see the world via a “grand tour” similar to a mandatory trip to Europe by educated elite in the 18th century, a structured study abroad program allowing to see another country context (41-4). He even called such

programs a “reasonable buy, similar to combo lunch” that may be most utilized by the least academically prepared or undecided students, since a strong student can always apply for external scholarships and design a self-tailored international program in any country (41-4). A sociology professor mentioned that the UK-based GDDP partner provided a very strong curriculum, and that it would help students to gain more knowledge”, even though it can be academically challenging (41-5).

**Research collaboration development.** One faculty mentioned GDDP as a means to provide opportunities for collaboration for the Graduate School (41-5)

### **Case Study 2 Staff**

**GDDP as part of university internationalization strategy.** One faculty member called it “the starting point” for wider internationalization initiatives, including faculty exchange in the future (43-7)

**GDDP as a high-quality structured learning experience.** One faculty member considered double degree programs as “an opportunity to study in different cultural context...with a bit more strict requirements [than typical study broad program] at both partner institutions” (43-2), having to take credit minimum abroad and keep with the local program [in Japan]. To her, this spoke to high standards set by the programs.

**GDDP may provide labor market advantage.** According to three staff members, the program provides more structured opportunities to study abroad than typical programs, which may be impressive for employers, due to an opportunity for students to develop networking skills:

Much time and effort is invested into relationship-making...most successful students have unique work ethic, are very hard working...they can tell how they can use it [GDDP experience] after graduation...convince employers that getting two degrees from two countries is a good use of time and money...that's what makes them more marketable. Many go into...international law firms, multi-national corporations (33-1).

**GDDP providing cross-cultural educational experience.** According to two staff members, receiving two diplomas tends to be highly valued by students, and allows to compare different learning environments, teaching styles, and curriculums, thus providing for a good cross-cultural experience (43-2, 33-1). Another respondent added that, in order to experience both Japanese and American graduate systems, students would need at least a year in each (43-7).

### **Case Study 2 Administrators**

**GDDP as an innovative program type.** One Japanese administrator saw GDDP as unique innovative program not many Japanese universities had (42-3). Another respondent from the same institution viewed GDDP as a reciprocal, mutually beneficial program, presenting a big value to the institution (42-1).

**GDDP as part of university internationalization strategy.** Two administrators expressed an opinion that a) GDDP is a starting point to internationalize campus, with potential to attract more international students in the future (42-6) and b) a good program to increase a number of international students who could join university language programs (42-3).

**GDDP providing potential labor market advantage.** A relatively short-term program, GDDP also allows Japanese students to stay “sufficiently Japanese”, an important factor for Japanese employers (42-6).

**Research Question Two: How congruent are stakeholders' views regarding program challenges?**

**Case Study One**

**Case Study 1 Faculty**

**No clear understanding of program goals.** One of the faculty members, before speculating on potential program benefits, admitted that he was not really sure what GDDP was useful for, as his students did not know English well enough and had no interest even in reading articles in English or overseas study due to specific focus on Japan in their special education major. He also mentioned that he was not familiar with how credit transfer worked, but was nominally appointed to be on program-related committees or lists without being invited to any meetings or otherwise consulted; he assumed this happened because he speaks English fluently and wants more international students in his classes (11-4).

**Lack of faculty and/or researcher champions.** Two respondents mentioned that university needed more bottom-up approaches to get the faculty involved, motivated and supported (11-9) with more resources available. Then there may be more incentives to do extra work, and the research may really become the driving force behind GDDPs (11-3).

**Quality concerns.** Concerns for students led one respondent to state that he was “suspicious” of program potential quality issues (11-3). Another respondent mentioned difficulties fitting DDP into degree in order for students to graduate in time. Poor English knowledge by general student body as well as variable knowledge

among faculty members renders English-language classes challenging (11-9).

**Student employment concerns.** It is “questionable” whether double degree holding students can easily find work in Japan, because the market is too small, and mostly employers are not looking at 2 diplomas as one of their hiring criteria (11-5). Although, he added, this may be a subject to change, currently the number of students is so small that there is not much data on how successful they are in the job market. Their chances are highest with large multinational corporations like Rakuten, Mazda, or Toyota, which are in the process of diversifying their workforce and adding English as the second language in their offices (11-5, 11-3).

**Lack of student participation.** As a result of students being uninformed and having potential trouble with employers not many national university students are not eager to participate (11-5). In general, very few students benefit so far, as evidenced by lack of student success stories on campus (11-3). This also contributes to low interest from the faculty (11-5). Teaching style in Japan may also present problems for international students coming to Japan (11-5).

**Low level of overall university internationalization.** Japanese universities in general are in the “premature stage” for GDDP (11-5), given that campuses across the country mostly are not fully internationalized. Hence GDDP curriculum is ad hoc, not integrated into departmental programs.

**Lack of budget funds.** One professor emphasized that “any universities I think always have problems with double degree programs, because they cannot create any budget”, even if university president allocates some funding to actively participating departments, it is not done consistently (11-5). In addition, he shared that

at his institution most of the time staff and faculty are asked to do extra work related of GDDP establishment voluntarily, without reducing their workload related to other projects or teaching or hiring extra employees. Thus extra work for faculty does not mean they will get extra remuneration for extra effort put in preparing class curriculum and lectures in English.

### **Case Study 1 Staff**

**Lack of faculty motivation.** There is not much support or extra remuneration for faculty willing to participate and teach in English. It is necessary to create “faculty champions”, preferable well-known for their research and ability to teach international students, i.e. more student-centered teaching methods (13-7).

**Lack of clarity on program rules and ownership.** Staff member responsible for program coordination said one of the biggest challenges was not being able to have any double degree provisions written into university rules or policies (13-1), making it extremely difficult for staff to address GDDP-related questions and concerns. Staff often do not have enough information, expertise, guidance, authority, or control over the program [due to multiple levels of hierarchy, committees, required rotation between departments, etc.] Therefore they are not able to address all issues that students, faculty and external players want the answers to (13-1, 13-7). So often this staff member has struggled, because she cannot make final decisions or rely on any policies when making a decision: “We have different offices in charge of this...the group leader of the international center has probably the final responsibility but again...We are not quite sure who has the final responsibility or the ownership of this program” (13-1). She also felt she was lacking information on how people around

campus felt about the program, but knew that there was a range of differing opinions.

**Partner institution choice.** One of staff members at HU expressed concern with partner institution choice, since consortium membership created certain limitations in partner selection:

To be honest, I am not sure they [home university] have the best partners for the double degree program because they do not necessarily go a long way back...does not necessarily fit the puzzle with our curriculum (13-1).

**Lack of curriculum integration.** Staff members have also mentioned that the program is not really integrated into either partner institutions' curriculum due to national regulations prohibiting joint programs with foreign or domestic universities (those regulations are in the process of being changed, however) (13-1, 13-7).

**Reputation risks.** If the program is not producing the expected results within a reasonable time frame, the reputation of a public university can suffer a blow, especially if reporting to the MEXT needs to be done, as is the case with Japanese Universities (13-1). Lack of desired outcomes is very visible.

**High program cost for students.** Due to high costs of education in some countries as compared to Japan, it might make more sense to have the outgoing students pay host university tuition, and provide scholarships to offset the cost difference. This way they would have "more obligation to finish the program" (13-1) and feel more support from their home university.

**Inadequate program marketing.** Staff members see the need for more student success stories and better program promotion at the point of student admission. This way, student will know "the merits of the program...how they fit in their future

planning” right away, since the program benefits are not always clear in Japan, but degree planning needs to happen early (13-1). Perspective students thus could be attracted to an institution partially due to this program if it’s marketed well.

### **Case Study 1 Administrators**

**Low student participation.** Demonstrators on both sides of the partnership comment on apparent lack of incentives for graduate students to leave Japan/Australia, coupled with English/Japanese language issues cause lack of domestic student participants. Simultaneously, it is difficult to attract well-qualified students (12-2, 22-2, 22-1). One administrator suggested selling the program more efficiently by doing more from the student perspective (22-1).

**High cost of program expansion.** GDDP as a stand-alone program would be too expensive for the public Japanese university, one administrator stated. Therefore it has to be based on existing resources, as an add-on program in need of significant curriculum development and promotion should financial resources appear. Accommodating costs for lectures in English in multiple departments would not be feasible (12-6).

**Curriculum overlaps.** To prevent “double-dipping” (or receiving transfer credit for courses similar in content from both institutions) one Japanese administrator argued in favor of program curriculum monitoring, so that coursework is sufficiently different and complementary to develop sufficiently challenging curriculum (12-6).

**Credit transfer.** It has to be closely monitored, administrators suggested, especially in the case of thesis credits, as each institution has unique thesis requirements that may not coincide (12-6, 12-8).

**Communication difficulty.** One Japanese administrator mentioned difficulties in communication between partners due to language and cultural differences (12-2).

**Lack of concern for university reputation.** Another big concern that emerged as that university campus was seen as not internationalized enough, ridden by fiscal difficulties, too much government-made curriculum decisions causing the “old” mentality, low accountability and efficiency among administrative staff, and, as a consequence, not enough concern for accountability, efficiency, global image, and reputation of the campus “so many HEIs have no motivation to control themselves and position in the world market” (12-8).

## **Case Study Two**

### **Case Study 2 Faculty**

**Student recruitment.** Two faculty members commented on the difficulties of attracting academically strong international students (41-4, 41-1, 41-5). Similar challenges exist with recruiting domestic students, as students often prefer regular study abroad courses. English language issues and job-hunting issues (have to start job-hunting in April of their second year in the program but those who are abroad are late for the “hiring season”) also play into domestic student decision not to leave Japan (41-5). For American students it is difficult to learn Japanese well enough to be able to take graduate-level seminar and conduct independent research (31-3). Since competition for students is very intense within national borders as well as on the global scale, so many graduate students that can get accepted may not be “very qualified” and the general problem remains attracting the good ones (41-4).

**Quality of partnership.** Usually the most prestigious school do not participate in GDDP arrangements, limiting the pool of acceptable partners for any given university that decided to participate (41-4). Moreover, universities tend to get multiple GDDP proposals, and it is only feasible to have a few, unless one is willing to decrease program quality.

**Balancing the budget.** One professor referred to the balanced, 2-way exchange with roughly equal numbers of incoming and outgoing students as a condition for continuity and trust. However, this is not the case every year, hence the budgetary difference when not enough revenue from incoming students is received (42-1).

**Ethical concerns.** As opposed to faculty in the first case study, faculty felt that receiving two Master's degrees in two years is not so different from the EU standards, since many Master's programs in the EU or the UK last only 1 year. However, students do much extra work by conducting research and writing their thesis additionally in Japan (it is not always a requirement at a partner institution), so there is "not much dilution of the content of education", as it is demanding academically and financially (41-4).

### **Case Study 2 Staff**

**Domestic student financial burden.** Japanese students are more reluctant to go abroad than a decade ago. Additionally, Japanese students pay high tuition abroad, and the university is not always able to provide scholarships to support the students in addition to domestic tuition waiver, if there is not enough revenue from the incoming students (43-6).

**Domestic student academic challenges abroad.** Japanese student face much reading, different academic culture that require adjustment, English language proficiency issues, time management issues, among others (33-1, 43-6).

**Foreign student academic challenges in Japan.** Teaching style and lack of international prestige are cited as some of the reasons international students are sometimes hard to recruit. They seem to be “not so satisfied with Japanese graduate school” (43-6). Additional negative factors include lack of writing support, predominance of research-intensive classes, much bureaucracy, Japanese language proficiency, and the general need to adjust to a very different academic culture (33-1). This is more important than domestic student recruitment, since currently the program is not balanced: there are more outgoing Japanese students than incoming American ones.

**Balancing the budget.** One staff member referred to the balanced, 2-way exchange with roughly equal numbers of incoming and outgoing students as a necessary condition for program success. However, this is not the case every year, hence the budgetary difference when not enough revenue from incoming students is received (43-6).

## **Case Study 2 Administrators**

**High costs.** Two respondents mention high costs and budget difficulties due to imbalance of incoming-outgoing students (42-6, 42-3). Program costs a lot of money for students, and they often do not receive enough financial aid (42-6).

**Lack of resources.** Need for housing for IS in order to prevent crime and

provide security (42-3).

**Lack of staff motivation.** There is a need for more committed staff focusing on GDDP (42-6).

**Lack of motivation among faculty.** Not many professors like to do extra job (i.e., teaching in English), so there is a need for more involved faculty (42-6).

**Low motivation among domestic students.** Domestic students are not very interested in going abroad, because it considered hard; is easier to get a job, get parents' support, etc (42-3). Partially, these fears are connected to labor market "rules of the game" in Japan, as well as GDDP requirements (challenging coursework in a foreign language, etc.) One administrator called it the "image problem" (42-6).

**Research Question Three. How congruent are stakeholders' views regarding program success factors?**

### **Case Study One**

#### **Case Study 1 Faculty**

**Faculty incentives.** Well-informed faculty members that are "on board" with the program could promote GDDP among students who know English and are interested in IR (11-4). Besides, if part-time lectures or additional staff is hired to support GDDP, it would benefit the program (11-5).

**Improved student recruitment.** If more Japanese and international students are attracted to the institution, faculty would have more motivation to provide instruction in English (11-4). Faculty may not understand, but many are supportive.

**Leadership.** Much depends on how managers utilize the DDP opportunity. Ideally, university sets specific and publicized goals that should be as important as personal connections in guiding strategic planning (11-4, 11-5).

**MEXT guidelines provision.** Having more clarity in the questions of program administration, support and evaluation would be welcome. In 2010, DDP issues were discussed in the cabinet, and a working group was created to create DDP guidelines for public institutions (11-3).

**Educational system reform.** Consortium is considered an innovative structure, independent from government, reflecting changes in Japanese education system towards more openness (11-5).

#### **Case Study 1 Staff**

**GDDP as a global trend.** One faculty member acknowledged that the program was already “out in the market” and would not be done away with any time soon simply because sooner or later university would have to compete with other national and foreign institutions implementing similar programs (13-1).

**MEXT support.** At the moment, being a member of 30 Global universities has already helped to improve English-language course offerings to improve the quality of internationalized curriculum; that allows attracting more non-Asian students that would have difficulty learning Japanese otherwise (13-5).

**Faculty incentives.** Well-informed and well-remunerated faculty would benefit the program and could become major supporters in the future (11-5).

#### **Case Study 1 Administrators**

**Adequate support from staff.** Staff travel and communication supports

programs, and allows developing good practices (12-8).

**Relatively low costs.** Japanese public university administrators have hopes for the program due to program relatively low cost, provided it builds on existing administrative and other resources; requires few admin adjustments and resource investment. More investment in the program prior to seeing some outcomes is not likely (12-6). Overhead costs are lower than offshore education such as branch campuses or other offshore educational ventures, with main expense coming from initial setup, and ongoing administration (22-1).

**Program promotion.** Actively marketing the program through publications, program website, word of mouth and during MA entrance exams may attract more students (12-6). Students willing to pay will keep coming to Australia, thinks one of Australian administrators, but there is a need to do more from student's perspective, sell it more efficiently (22-1, 22-2).

**Financial aid for outgoing students.** Tuition waivers, airfare tickets, and scholarships could help attract more students into the program (12-6, 22-1, 22-2). It is worth noting that incoming students in Japan often are able to receive significant t or full scholarship support form Japanese sources.

**Good partner relationship.** One of Australian administrators named good program "fit" as an important component of program success. She mentions as strong academic reputation, close communication and willingness to work issues out collaboratively, as well as providing student support as very important (22-2). She was optimistic about he program in the long term, as well as the counterpart program coordinator (22-2, 12-6).

**MEXT guidelines provision.** For Japanese institutions, having more clarity in the questions of program administration, support and evaluation would be welcome. In 2010 a special committee was charged with a task of developing double degree program draft guidelines to suggest for public or private university use. Some Japanese administrators see the guideline development as positive development (12-2, 12-8).

## **Case Study Two**

### **Case Study 2 Faculty**

**Careful partner selection.** Building mutually beneficial partnerships. If the program is a balanced, 2-way exchange, it is a guarantee of a mutually beneficial bilateral partnership (41-1). A good fit and a long-term relationship help to secure all stakeholder support (41-4).

**Institutional support mechanisms.** If university has mechanisms to facilitate study abroad of other international programs, this creates a good environment for GDDP, as well as allows to attract more perspective students to the program (41-4).

**Domestic Student Recruitment.** Making the program attractive to students, as many enter HEI specifically attracted by DMDP program and the “fast track” it offers to Japanese students in earning B.A. and M.A. degrees (41-4, 41-5).

**Global mission of the university.** If the program fits into it, it’s a success factor (41-5)

**Financial aid from partner institution.** Accepting institutions should consider providing more scholarships as well as student support services (i.e., in terms of housing) in order to attract students, as they pay high tuition (41-5).

**Faculty incentives.** In order to attract international students, English-speaking faculty is essential (41-5).

## **Case Study 2 Staff**

**Global mission of the university.** The program is integrated into the general internationalization mission of the university; hence the leadership is aware and supportive of the program from the American side (43-7, 33-1).

**Financial support from domestic institution.** American institutions do not always contribute to the GDDP (in terms of providing financial assistance to the outgoing American students as well as incoming Japanese ones) as much as the Japanese side has, via MEXT grants and scholarships (33-1).

**Leadership support.** The deans of partner institutions founded the program due to good personal relationship and the history of collaboration. Leadership support accounts for good communication and general program success over the years (33-1, 43-2, 43-7).

**Narrow program focus.** For best results, some staff members recommended establishing a GDDP within a narrow discipline or department in order to focus the resources (43-2).

**Partner selection.** Institutions need to be a good “fit,” academically and reputation-wise even though the choice of partners is not always a rational choice, but based on personal relationships (43-2, 33-1).

**Quality assurance.** At the institutional level, there needs to be constant maintenance of curriculum changes, monitoring of requirements have to be met by both partners and general evaluation. One example would be making sure the

institution offer the courses that are listed as GDDP requirements. Qualified human resources are the key here (43-2).

### **Case Study Two Administrators**

**Creating long-term partner relationships.** Still see GDDP as an opportunity to catch up with others (within Japan and globally) pushes to relationship building to develop reciprocal, mutually profitable “quite unique innovative programs no other ...universities have” (42-3). A balanced two-way exchange and student advisers with much expertise contribute to trust-building (42-1)

**Dedicated staff.** Program quality to a big degree depends on proper curriculum monitoring and design, student support services, and overall staff support (42-6).

**Domestic student motivation.** In order to motivate domestic students, one administrator proposes having many orientations /information sessions for students, as well as endorsing faculty help and distributing promotional materials (42-6).

### **Document Findings**

**Case study one.** At Hiroshima University, the INU-based GDDP information is available via the following sources:

- University website outlines program features, partner universities, application requirements, and contact information. Easily accessible among a number of links under the title of “International@HU”
- INU Double Degree Program Call of Applications document dated Fall 2009 was not widely available on campus, only in one of the offices related to international collaboration. It is a 7-page document outlines the program in

detail, including eligibility criteria, benefits, financial aid, program structure, and partner university information.

- The latest update on the student call for applications on the website (and an accompanying information session) was posted on October 16, 2008.
- INU brochures in the International Program Planning Office briefly mention the program. The brochure is not widely available on campus
- No interuniversity agreements were available for researcher to review due to confidentiality issues.
- The program was briefly outlined during the regional conference presentation titled “International Strategy of Hiroshima University”

At Flinders University, the researcher was not able to obtain any print information or interuniversity agreement text. On the university website there is a page devoted to the INU Student Seminar & INU Intensive Summer School on Global Citizenship that does not mention the double degree program. The GDDP is mentioned on the webpage listing all international partner universities, next to the name of Hiroshima University s an INU partner and a link to their website.

**Case study two.** American University offered students program brochures distributed via the Office of Program Development, School of International Service. The program history, application information, and program features are also outlined in detail at the website of SIS Study Abroad, School of International Service.

As opposed to this minimal documentation, Ritsumeikan University GDDP promotional materials included the following:

- Full-color promotional 19-page, A4-format brochures in Japanese language, with photographs and program features outlined for seven university partner programs, including American University
- Program publicized in Ritsumeikan newsletter available online
- Program mentioned on the webpage devoted to the university history as a significant step towards campus internationalization in the 1990s, contributing to the creation of one of the largest international student bodies in western Japan

### **Summary**

The findings are based on the themes that emerged from each sub-case, after comparing and contrasting different stakeholders' views as well as document data. The main differences within case studies analyzed were on program challenges and success factors (see Table 6). Refer to Appendix D table for detailed listings of all within-case data categories.

The results indicate a high degree of congruence in the expectations and perceptions of stakeholders within each case study on major general benefits and goals, according to normative beliefs of what the "ideal" program should be (faculty

and staff share views especially strongly). But in the Case Study 1, low stakeholder view congruence in regards to program challenges and success factors should be highlighted. For example, faculty and staff agree that lack of understanding of specific academic goals and merits of the program among faculty leads to lack of faculty motivation and “champions” (11-9, 11-3). Faculty and staff also agreed that staff motivation was an issue (11-7, 13-4, 11-3, 11- 9).

Yet administrators in the same case study did not identify faculty members’ lack of understanding and motivation as challenges. Instead, they noted other concerns, such as “a concern for university reputation” (12-8) caused by the “old” mentality

Table 6.

*Within-Case Analysis: Main Case Study Differences*

Level of agreement/congruence among all stakeholders	CS1	CS2
RQ1: program goals and benefits in general	Medium	High
RQ2: program challenges	Low Major view incongruence areas: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lack of faculty and staff motivation to promote and get involved (specific program goal)</li> <li>• Lack of clarity regarding program goals and benefits.</li> <li>• Student participation challenges.</li> </ul>	High
RQ3: major success	Low	High

factors		
---------	--	--

among staff, and, as a consequence, not enough concern for accountability, efficiency, global image, and reputation of the campus.

The study revealed multiple “critical areas” of view incongruence among staff and faculty members within separate case study institutions. They include (1) lack of faculty motivation, (2) lack of clarity regarding program goals and benefits, (3) lack of staff motivation, and (4) lack of student participation.

**1. Lack of faculty motivation.** In the first case study, this issue is most pronounced: one out of four faculty members interviewed had admitted to not having a clear understanding of program goals. The same instructor also voiced his frustration with the fact that he was automatically assumed to support the program he knew nothing about. Other two faculty members were only barely familiar with the program. The one professor who knew most program details taught at the international student center and still mentioned the fact that the majority of faculty members on campus did not know much about the program. Consequently, faculty motivation to promote the program is low. This data overlaps with university staff naming lack of faculty motivation as one of the challenges. A staff member who also served as a program director (administrator level) viewed this lack of motivation and knowledge about the program as intrinsic quality, inherited with the centralized national educational system, where workers do not care about reputation of the university or any innovations until faced with top-down solutions (12-5).

**2. Lack of clarity regarding program goals and benefits.** However, another staff member saw the roots in faculty disinterest and lack of understanding in the failure of leadership to convey the academic value of the program:

For administrators it is a new program, of course they try to show that has a positive influence on university image, but for faculty it is not clear...where is the academic meaning or significance of this...they are not persuaded. And academic meaning is at the heart of a university (11-7).

Indeed, program curriculum is too broad covering several subject areas under the umbrella of Peace Studies. Thus many academics expressed ethical and quality concerns. Faculty hesitation in accepting the new program is exacerbated by the lack of defined curriculum making it difficult to predict what coursework international students are likely to select and how complementary or similar such courses might be with the ones at their home institution. Since there is no university unit responsible for program coordination serving as an interface for multiple departments, the faculty members have little opportunity to voice their concerns or ask program-related questions at departmental meetings.

One possible implication is potential faculty resistance growth due to lack of understanding what academic value program has and how it is organized. The initial favorable attitude towards internationalization (and understanding of potential benefits, as data indicates) among faculty may change to negative attitude if GDDP initiative is seen by faculty as purely “externally driven” in order to send more students abroad or receive MEXT funding.

The second case study faculty concerns did not include quality or ethics issues, but less pronounced partner relationship-building and student recruitment challenges addressed in the next section.

**3. Student participation.** The study confirms previous research results that indicated low levels of student motivation and participation in Japan and the U.S. (Kuder & Obst, 2009; Kuriyama et al, 2008). In both case studies, this problem was mentioned practically by every stakeholder at every level. In spite of the long program history, the second case study analysis themes indicated that there was a decline in the incoming student numbers in the recent years, and document analysis also supported this fact. Additionally, domestic students were more difficult to motivate to go abroad due to labor market constraints, challenges in learning English, as well as high costs of studying abroad at an American private institution. Finally, there seemed to be a general decline in popularity of study abroad among young Japanese: according to staff and faculty, it was being seen as too challenging and no longer a necessary part of one's education, as students find the way to gain language and intercultural experiences in a variety of ways (such as travel and friendships with incoming international students). Thus, on the one hand, the GDDPs are used as a marketing tool to attract perspective students. On the other hand, participant numbers decrease year after year. This data is surprising, given that private institutions need to attract more students to survive and thus are more flexible in making program-related decisions than public ones. No one mentioned any "tweaking" of the program in order to attract more students.

On the American and Australian side, it was also hard to motivate the students, due to both Japanese language knowledge issue and somewhat decreased interest in Japanese politics and international relations in Asia. All stakeholders mentioned the need for better program promotion and curriculum integration in this respect.

“What is the point beyond the fact that it is a good buy?” wondered a staff member in the first case study (13-7). Student participation is seen as predictably low by both faculty and staff since employer indifference and lack of particularly bright prospects after graduate makes GDDP no different from a regular study abroad degree. The situation is exacerbated by the lack of support from the people who students see the most – their professors who are also often uninformed and skeptical about the program, as discussed earlier in this chapter.

**4. Lack of staff motivation.** The interviewed Japanese staff members in the first case study did not feel empowered enough to systematically address student and faculty questions on program-related issues related to program promotion, student application and selection, financial aid, pre-departure and re-entry support, etc. The staff members are rotated every three years or so, and do not feel they have much say during the multiple committee meetings where GDDP-related issues are discussed. In the end, it takes a very long time for decisions to be made and implemented due to the rigidity of Japanese university governance system. Even though overall internationalization standards are the same for all institutions in Japan, institutional approaches to GDDPs differ as decisions are made on “case to case” basis rather than systematic application of policy. The lack of “best practices” among public institutions also plays a role.

Comparing administrator and staff views on the issue may provide insights on potential sources of GDDP program ineffectiveness. For example, at Hiroshima University the administrators felt the program could be relatively easy to implement, given the initial MEXT funding and no need for many administrative adjustments (“just building on what they got”). However, the faculty and staff at the same university did not share this point of view, citing lack of support in tackling administrative difficulties due to the lack of clear curriculum, policy regulations, and the large number of consortium partners to build relationships with. In the end, the front-line staff felt that GDDPs tended to be under-advertised and underutilized by students and faculty since they were not planned out well. Conversely, the second case study Japanese staff members felt they had an ability to coordinate various program aspects, due to a focused approach, meticulous curriculum planning and joint decision-making in the one department working with the program.

American staff members were less numerous: typically one person was responsible for all issues connected with the program and quite capable of making most decisions or relating student concerns to university deans.

## CHAPTER VI: FINDINGS OF CROSS-CASE ANALYSIS

The within-case data analysis results provide an insight into how the perception of program value can differ depending on the role stakeholders have in the institutional hierarchy and in the process of defining program goals and needs. The next step, the cross-case study analysis involved significant further data reduction and analysis. While I was interested in illustrating the uniqueness of the GDDP implementation process at each university, my main concern was to identify commonalities and differences among stakeholders across cases, i.e., data convergence or divergence trends.

The results indicate a high degree of congruence in the expectations and perceptions of stakeholders on each side of an international partnership in both of case studies (see Table 7). Staff and faculty across national borders seem to agree on major

benefits and challenges of the program especially strongly. Administrators, in turn, seem to share most views on program success factors and improvement ideas. Overall, stakeholders across case study partnerships share views on main program characteristics.

**Research Question One: Program Rationale and Benefits**

Faculty in both case studies listed research collaboration opportunities and potential for student academic and cross-cultural development as major potential program benefits. The staff in both cases also agreed on the main rationale behind the program: to provide students with an opportunity for cross-cultural learning experience, a language learning opportunity, and, in general, an opportunity to study

Table 7.

*Cross- Case Findings Summary*

Research Question	Extent of Congruence	Areas of Agreement	Areas of Disagreement
RQ1. How congruent are stakeholders' views regarding <b>program rationale, goals, and benefits?</b>	High cross-case congruence among all stakeholders (CS1, CS2)	<p>Student academic and cross-cultural development (faculty)</p> <p>An opportunity to study abroad in a highly structured manner; labor market advantages (staff)</p> <p>GDDP as a part of university internationalization strategy (staff)</p> <p>Innovative program for the students and aiding in students' future job search (administrators)</p>	

RQ 2. How congruent are stakeholders' views regarding <b>program challenges</b> ?	Medium cross-case congruence (CS1, CS2)	Lack of student participation), lack of budget funds, and program quality concerns (faculty)	Ethical evaluation of the program (faculty)  Program cost for domestic students (staff)  Domestic student recruitment (administrators)
RQ 3. How congruent are stakeholders' views regarding <b>major success factors</b> affecting the process of GDDP implementation?	High cross-case congruence (CS1, CS2)	Improved student recruitment tactics (faculty)  Initiatives to introduce faculty incentives (faculty)  A global trend that fits well into universities' overall globally oriented mission (staff)  Sustaining partner relationships in the long term, adequate staff support by dedicated faculty, and motivating domestic students (administrators)	

abroad in a highly structured manner, potentially leading to labor market advantages in the future job search. Another point of intersection was seeing a GDDP as a part of university internationalization strategy, leading to MEXT funding and institutional prestige increase. However, one staff member in the first case study admitted to not having a clear understanding of program goals.

The administrators in both case studies had similar responses related to providing a diversified innovative program for the students and aiding in their future job search. Additionally, the administrators in the first case study shared their faculty

perceptions of GDDP as a tool to increase the chances of faculty research collaboration opportunities. The second case study administrators echoed faculty and staff perceptions in both case studies on GDDP as an important part of university internationalization strategy. On the whole, there was a high level of congruence across the cases.

### **Research Question Two: Program Challenges**

In comparing faculty views at four institutions, the shared themes were the lack of student participation (student recruitment), lack of budget funds, and program quality concerns, which made for very similar set of concerns across the cases. However, faculty views on the ethical evaluation of the program differed dramatically. The first case study faculty members expressed concerns with possible “double-dipping” or getting credit from both institutions for very similar coursework by using the loopholes in the curriculum. It could be connected to the lack of in-depth program understanding, because the second case study faculty rejected these concerns on the basis of program rigor, structure, and duration (twice as long as many European Master’s programs). Thus the level of cross-case congruence was not as high as for the first research sub question, as there was an explicit disagreement.

Support staff members at both bilateral and consortium-based GDDPS shared a concern regarding high program cost for domestic students and expressed the need to provide more scholarship support. Program administrators agreed that domestic student recruitment was a big concern due to low student motivation. Another common theme was lack of campus resources to expand or significantly improve the program, in spite of long history and good reputation one of programs had been

enjoying. The level of cross-case congruence was fairly high. Table 8 illustrates convergence and divergent themes across the cases.

### Research Question Three: Program Success Factors

Faculty members at both sides of the partnership agreed that improved student recruitment tactics and initiatives to introduce faculty incentives could contribute to more effective GDDP promotion, popularization and participation rate. Staff members shared an opinion that programs had potential as a global trend that fits well into universities' overall globally oriented mission. Cross-case levels of congruence for both faculty and staff were fairly high, as well as for the administrators.

Table 8

#### *Overview of Common Themes Across Cases*

<b>Research Question</b>	<b>Staff</b>	<b>Faculty</b>	<b>Administrators</b>	<b>Degree of Congruence</b>
1. Program rationale and benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Student academic and cross-cultural development</b></li> <li>• Part of MEXT strategy</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Student academic and cross-cultural development</b></li> <li>• Faculty research opportunities</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Student academic and cross-cultural development</b> (Providing a diversified innovative program )</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• High cross-case</li> <li>• Medium within-case</li> </ul>
2. Program challenges	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>High program cost for domestic students</b></li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>International and domestic student recruitment problems</b></li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Domestic student recruitment</b></li> <li>• <i>Lack of</i></li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Medium cross-case</li> <li>• Low within-case</li> </ul>

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <i>Lack of budget funds</i></li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <i>campus resources</i></li> </ul>	
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Program quality</li> </ul>		
3. Program success factors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• GDDP as a global trend</li> <li>• <b>Faculty and staff motivation</b></li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Improved student recruitment</li> <li>• <b>Faculty and staff incentives</b></li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sustaining partner relationships</li> <li>• <b>Adequate staff and faculty support</b></li> <li>• Providing domestic student support</li> <li>• Program promotion</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• High cross-case</li> <li>• Low within-case</li> </ul>

The administrators focused on sustaining partner relationships in the long term, adequate staff support by dedicated faculty, and motivating domestic students more effectively by actively promoting the program and providing additional financial support. The convergent data are outlined in Table 8.

### **Stakeholder Perception of Access to Decision-Making**

The data collected at four case study universities also reflects stakeholder views regarding their role in GDDP-related decision-making in general.

**Faculty.** The faculty in the first case study expressed a low level of program awareness of and access to meetings and committees responsible for GDDP-related agenda. The level of motivation to gain more access to decision-making was also low. The two exceptions were faculty members that also occupied administrator positions and were responsible for international credentials, international student courses, or

overall GDDP coordination. One faculty member mentioned that after university corporatization in 2003, university president and a small group of administrators around him seem to have gained more power through numerous committees and research groups, with little faculty representation.

The faculty in the private university-based program seemed to participate in internationalization-related meetings more often and be more vocal about their role in meetings with administration. They recalled arguing on internationalization-related issues extensively, questioning administration if some things were unclear, making complaints and offering suggestions, i.e., in the case of university aggressive approach to teaching in English and a number of other initiatives. Yet faculty members were not sure to what extent their voice mattered in decision-making in the end.

**Staff.** Staff members' level of engagement in decision-making ranged from medium to high. In the first case study, a large number of staff members were involved in GDDP-related work at multiple units and committees. Given periodical staff rotation and lack of clear program "site" or ownership on campus, a staff member who was most knowledgeable about the program simultaneously expressed frustration with often not having enough information or power to address program-related inquiries from students or other institutions. The lack of regulations at the national level led to vague rules at public institutions' as they search for "best practices", she suggested, thus disempowering staff.

As opposed to that, at the second case study site there was a certain staff member (or a team) responsible for program monitoring and maintenance, serving as a liaison for interested students, and collaborating with other internationally-oriented

campus units, such as study abroad office, ESL centers, etc. However, staff members also noted lack of on-going program evaluation or monitoring, apart from student evaluation forms they filled out after coming back to their home institution.

**Administrators.** In general, university employees responsible for program oversight at first case study institutions in Japan and Australia were optimistic about the program and felt they could make program-related decisions only in collaboration with faculty and staff. In Japan, some respondents mentioned, however, that multiple levels of decision-making on campus do not allow for quick decision-making by administrators. Therefore one of administrators there considered it a bit “difficult” and mentioned that it was hard to reach consensus during meeting on campus on how the programs should be implemented and financed, given extremely low student participation numbers (2 students) and the asymmetry of the student flow, with both students being Japanese.

In the second case study administrator responses also reflected a preference for collegial-style decision-making based on meetings where program challenges and future directions were regularly discussed. Over the years, students have been completing program evaluation form after returning from the program, and those forms have served a valuable source of program evaluation information, administrators felt.

## **Summary**

### **Research Question One**

The extent of cross-case view congruence on program rationale among faculty and staff was higher than that of administrators. However, this could be due to the fact

that more staff and faculty members were interviewed, compared to relatively few administrators at each institution. Yet all the stakeholder groups emphasized the importance of the program for student academic and personal (i.e., cross-cultural) development. In the light of the global competition for highly educated human resources, this data speaks to potential program value.

At case study universities in Australia and the U.S., the level of participation in study abroad is fairly high. Yet, at the public Japanese institution, study abroad participation is more of recommendation than a requirement, as opposed to the private university. Japanese private institutions typically have to be extremely flexible and competitive in order to attract domestic students in the current demographic and economic climate, hence historically they offer more flexible (and sometimes, more internationally-oriented) curriculum, but are less prestigious than public universities.

The view of the program as a MEXT-supported university internationalization project agreed upon by staff members reflects a certain level of respect and dependency for MEXT funding at both public and private institutions on Japanese side. As universities are searching for more ways to finance their operations, some targeted program funding allows employing program staff and covering operational expenses.

Additionally, multiple faculty members at American, Australian, and Japanese HEIs mentioned faculty research collaboration opportunities as an important program benefit and a worthy goal. While professors are already increasingly involved in cross-border research and teaching, they are motivated by sustained long-term collaboration and global networking and publishing opportunities. Responses suggest that faculty

research and university strategic interests (i.e., providing competitive innovative educational programs) go hand in hand. On the whole, there was a high level of congruence across and within the cases.

### **Research Question Two**

As far as implementation challenges go, all stakeholder groups cited international and domestic student recruitment problems. The level of cross-case congruence was fairly high among faculty, except for the ethics issue. As for support staff members and administrators cross-case congruence was also high.

Lack of budget funds and quality concerns among faculty and resource concerns among administrators understandably contribute to the recruitment challenge. Both incoming and outgoing students often do not receive adequate financial aid, which may lead to the program being viewed as elitist and unaffordable, in spite of being advertised as cost-effective. Similarly, the lack of policies in place to continuously evaluate and improve the program may lead to it being implemented in an ad hoc manner, not deeply integrated in the curriculum, and ultimately leading to even greater quality concerns by partner institutions, parents, faculty, and the students involved.

Additionally, program promotion seemed to be an issue. As document analysis in the previous chapter indicated, in the two first case study HEIs it was relatively difficult for students to access current program details, as information on the website was partially outdated. It was also extremely hard to obtain GDDP application materials or booklets without faculty or staff guidance.

### **Research Question Three**

One of the ways to address the above described challenges identified by two

groups of stakeholders (staff and administrators) was to improve faculty motivation and interest. In spite of the lure of international collaboration, most faculty members already have established working relationships with researchers around the world. Only sustained long-term relationship-building efforts could help establishing meaningful faculty links within GDDP, as respondents suggested.

Student benefits were also on the faculty radar. Yet, in order to entice faculty to work with this relatively new program, they felt, there needed to be a focused curriculum, allowing for clear credit transfer guidelines, academic requirements, calendars, as well as additional financial remuneration or in-kind benefits, and professional support (i.e., language classes for faculty who may not be 100% comfortable teaching in English). If those conditions are satisfied, there is chance some faculty members may become true program “champions”.

GDDPs seem to gradually become a global trend, and it is likely the number of such programs will increase. Improving domestic and international student recruitment is necessary to keep the program afloat and the budget balanced, as both faculty and administrators at case study institutions seem to agree. During conversations on decision-making mechanisms with university stakeholders, it became clear that university organizational structure and institutional culture influenced stakeholder perceptions. In the first case study organizational structure of the Japanese public university was very centralized, in spite of the decentralization efforts following the corporatization of Japanese national universities in 2003. The long-time university president and senior staff surrounding him as well as one faculty member program champion seemed to be in charge of the program. Yet, in the absence of specific

MEXT guidelines on GDDP, decision-making was diffused among various committees the “power group” was involved in, eventually leaving most of the faculty and many staff members out of the decision-making process.

In the second case study, the governance structure was less centralized as university was less dependent on the Ministry guidelines due to the very low government funding level. Both partner institutions had a long-established history of international collaboration, especially given the International Relations focus. Some staff members expressed their enthusiasm connected to the collegial and innovative environment that helped nourish flexibility and progressive thinking.

## CHAPTER VII: DISCUSSION

The discussion section in this chapter addresses theoretical research implications in the light of the study results presented. It also outlines policy recommendations for program leadership and directions for future research.

The data was analyzed using a pattern-matching technique (Yin, 2009) to determine cross-case similarities and differences. This technique helped determine whether and how individual GDDP stakeholders address known implementation issues, based on theoretical framework and propositions. The cases were tested against formulated tentative hypotheses until a new theoretical hypothesis based on Bolman and Deal (1991) organizational theory framework evolved.

The driving research question was, to what extent the views of stakeholders in these institutions are congruent around GDDP rationale, benefits, challenges and success factors. In other words, do both sides of the relationships receive what they

want? Obtaining the data related to participant HEI stakeholders' views allowed seeing a wide range of views and potential data overlaps and interconnections in answering this question.

## **Research Implications**

### **Explanatory Program Implementation Model**

Study results confirmed that graduate dual degree programs face multiple academic, administrative and recruitment challenges, often failing to gain high reputation and significant student participation. Motivated stakeholders closely involved with programs could ameliorate many of these challenges.

The proposed framework is based on the challenge themes that emerged from cross-case data analysis, including the “critical areas” of view incongruence (and potential internal resistance), among staff and faculty members. It addresses lack of faculty motivation, lack of clarity on GDDP academic value among faculty, lack of student participation, and lack of staff motivation. Consequently, the model suggests the areas that need to be paid specific attention to by leadership in bilateral and consortia-based partnerships alike to address the pervasive challenges of quality assurance, ethical concerns about the nature of double degrees, and adequate resource utilization as well as communication in order to build partner relationships (see Figure 6). As a result, the possibility to improve student motivation and participation in GDDP increases, thus improving the program prospects of survival and sustainability.

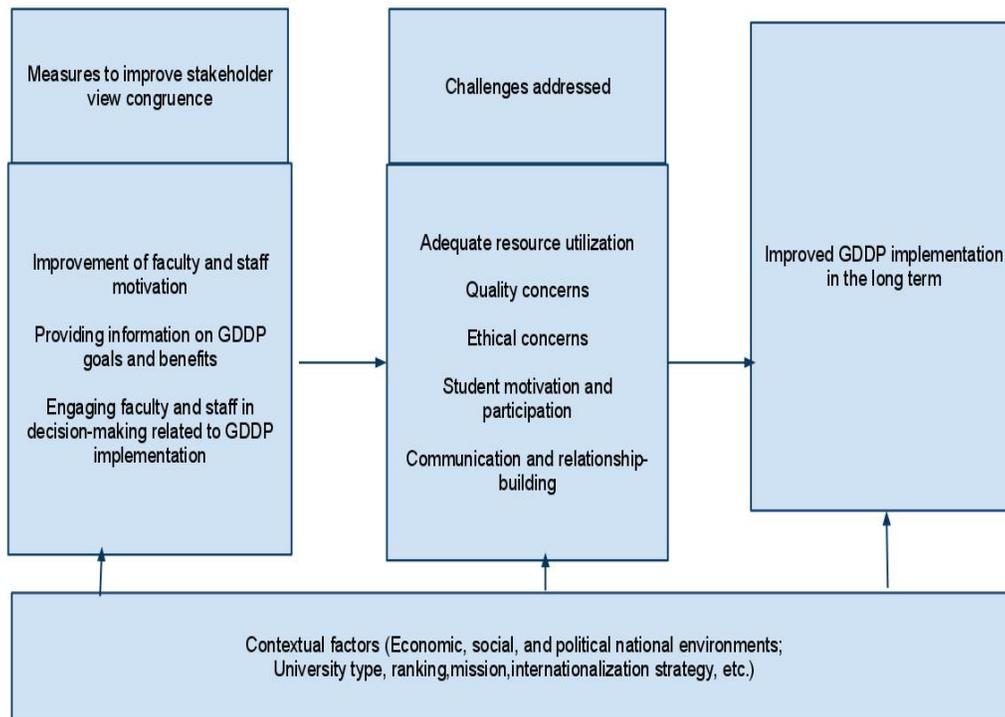


Figure 6. Explanatory GDDP Implementation Improvement Factors Model

The model presents several areas for policy-creation to improve cross-border collaborative program establishment and implementation practices. These measures include faculty and staff motivation building practices, providing information on GDDP goals and benefits more effectively, and engaging all stakeholders in decision-making processes. They are described in detail below. Undoubtedly, they need to be adapted to national contexts and institutional cultures.

### Connecting to Conceptual Framework

#### Resource-Based View of Strategic Inter-University Alliances

Case study universities are both shaped by national contexts and open to global engagement opportunities. They are actively searching for complementary resources

to ensure sustainable competitive advantage in the future, driven by the need to obtain high rankings, revenue and attract students. Institutional differences between partners (i.e., research expertise in public policy at the Australian partner school vs. peace studies in Japan) may contribute to partnership comparative advantage if leadership has selected partners strategically. Even though the case study background data showed that personal relationships were of utmost important in initiating both GDDP case studies, their outcomes differed dramatically.

First, in the consortia-based case, partner institutions have failed to exploit all opportunities for improved performance and are experimenting to establish own “best practices” should the program survive in the future. A tight integration of curriculums was simply not a part of their agenda, as Beerkens and van der Wende (2006) suggested earlier in their study. The GDDP was just a part of a larger INU cooperation framework. Even though Hiroshima University and Flinders University are compatible institutions with similar goals, valuable complementary resources and leadership support, their staff and faculty were under-informed and not motivated to actively promote this particular program. Indeed, high motivation and participation in decision-making may be deemed not necessary and too expensive for the achievement of objectives with a low degree of integration typical of consortia. A minimum level of compatibility would be sufficient.

Second, more complex coping mechanisms (adjustments, incorporation of difference) are needed for bilateral partnership activities that require higher level of integration and, therefore, a higher level of compatibility (Beerkens and van der Wende, 2006). In the second case study, although domestic and international student

participation in on the decrease, the program is well-organized, discipline-focused, well-promoted, and well-known, as leadership identified and developed the key complementary and compatible resources early in the history of the program.

We also have to take program history, structure, and institutional type (public vs. private) into consideration. Yes the overall dynamic of the first case study program led to some of conclusions above.

### **Research Assumptions**

**Adequate program understanding and resource utilization.** First, this research proposal was based on the hypothesis that, similar to other types of strategic alliances, complementary resources in case study institutions may need to be “recognized, utilized and exploited” by stakeholders more effectively in order for the program to succeed (Beerkens & van der Wende, 2006). Research data indeed indicates certain stakeholders’ low awareness of program goals and existing institutional resources (Japanese staff and faculty in the first case study), as well as limited access to decision-making (Japanese and American faculty in both case studies).

The INU consortium that GDDP is a part of is a Ministry-funded project, as MEXT developed the funding scheme for selected 30 Global Universities, where double degree program development is outlined as one of many possible “best practices”, a relatively new component of a wider internationalization strategy. Thus, according to one faculty member, it is very hard to determine institutional or individual student benefits of such programs, as not many students are “motivated to participate or really understand how it works” (13-7).

Therefore GDDP implementation challenges, such as fluctuating student participation, may be in part connected to the lack of stakeholder understanding of program goals and needed resources that may decrease stakeholder ability and willingness to support the relatively new and unfamiliar program type.

Lack of “front line” stakeholder motivation and understanding is exacerbated by the ad hoc manner, in which the program had been implemented in the consortia-based case study. Conversely, for bilateral GDDP, the data indicated higher level of program integration into the institutional fabric (albeit in one department) that corresponded to higher level of faculty, staff and administrator view congruence on essential program characteristics and potential ethical issues.

**Participation in decision-making.** Another explanatory hypothesis for the study posited that consulting all of the stakeholders regarding the program value, feasibility and sustainability seldom precedes the GDDP establishment. National policies aimed at increased competitiveness in the global educational market and pre-existing contacts with foreign institutions played the main role in rationalizing the decision to implement such programs at universities. Limited participation in decision-making among staff and faculty was recorded in both case studies, but was more pronounced in the first case study. The second case study data also indicated higher overall participation in decision-making across stakeholder groups. Lack to decision-making may further intensify faculty and staff resistance in accepting and promoting GDDPs.

The resource-based view of GDDP suggests that the rationale for alliances is the value-creation potential of university resources that are pooled together. Indeed,

case study universities are also collections of productive resources at the disposal of different users. However, human resources are harder to “pool together”, and, as Beerkens and van der Wende (2008) suggested, the internal resistance to new international programs in HEIs may intensify due to additional challenges to existing structures and processes during the process of international program implementation. Bolman and Deal (1991) conceptual framework below may provide recommendations on how to address these issues utilizing the symbolic reference frame.

### **Bolman and Deal Framework: GDDP as a Symbolic Program**

One way to introduce new and risky international alliance-based programs such as GDDP is to use them as symbolic resources to improve the global image of a university.

Bolman and Deal (1991) suggested that leaders conceptualize organizations within four frames of reference; structural, human resource, political and symbolic. The symbolic frame is characterized by the idea that organizations are like “theaters” (Bolman & Deal, 1991, p.15). This frame may help analyze how the GDDP stakeholders view GDDP implementation in Japanese universities.

The primary reason for proposing the use for this framework is the symbolic nature of GDDPs themselves. Even though the second case study universities were successful in the long-term and partner HEIs developed trust and continuity, GDDP as a fully developed stand-alone program was too challenging and expensive for a medium-sized public Japanese university in the first case study. It required additional investment into curriculum integration, faculty training, and program promotion. MEXT funding was provided for general internationalization efforts, but not enough

was allocated to GDDP: for instance, one of administrators mentioned, “accommodating costs for lectures in English in multiple departments would not be feasible” (12-6). Therefore the program had to be based on existing resources.

As a result of limited funding and, this study would argue, of insufficient motivation and understanding of the program by faculty, staff and students, the GDDP did not attract even the minimal numbers of student participants, was largely unknown and unsupported by faculty and staff. Even though there was an understanding among stakeholders that such program could theoretically contribute to student learning and development, many viewed it as essentially a symbolic project. It was seen as an experimental effort financed by a government grant, “sitting” on the margins of wider internationalization initiatives in university (that included research collaboration, study abroad, students and faculty exchange) without gaining widespread support. GDDP became a symbolic “add-on” to already existing collaborative activities within the INU consortium network. According to administrator “champions”, the program could build on existing institutional resources in terms of classes and infrastructure and would not require many administrative adjustments, given that all agreements were already in place:

Our university cannot afford a fully new double degree program. As long as you are able to provide programs or lectures in English...it's not hard to organize a double degree program, it does not require many administrative adjustments, just builds on what we've got...that was my selling point at the university. I didn't ask them to change (12-6).

International visibility is important for Japanese HEIs as they compete for government funding and decreasing numbers of students, while internationalization of higher education is expected to help improve its competitiveness. Two out of four first case

study faculty members commented on the necessity of international collaborative programs for campus promotion and creation of positive institutional image among potential applicants:

Our university is not good at advertising itself, but because of the [INU] consortium, Swedish or Austrian universities will keep talking about how great double degree program we have, and Hiroshima University name will appear...to make our program more attractive, to automatically promote our name (11-5).

In the end, the GDDP served largely to create an illusion of global engagement at Hiroshima University. Yet, paradoxically, reducing the ambiguity and uncertainty around this largely symbolic program through symbolic means may make it easier to use rational approaches to problem solving, and decision-making related to program improvement.

In this study the American and Japanese partner institutions from the first case study may not get what they were hoping to get out of the GDDP if the program dynamic does not improve in the near future.

### **Recommendations for University Leaders**

#### **Utilizing the Symbolic Approach**

University administrators, faculty and staff who wish to improve GDDP implementation using a symbolic approach should focus on vision and inspiration for GDDP as a vehicle for further university internationalization and provision of students with an academically valuable innovative program. Setting specific and publicized GDDP goals, creating GDDP-associated traditions, ceremonies, and rituals are very important to the symbolic approach, which is most appropriate when goals and/or cause-and-effect relationships are unclear for multiple stakeholders (Bolman & Deal,

1991). Such activities may raise awareness of GDDP merits and potential benefits as well as increase faculty and staff involvement in program implementation by increasing outcome predictability and providing direction.

### **Access to Decision-Making as Motivational Tool**

This study analyzed university stakeholder views of the program and access to decision-making mechanisms, and found that one of the factors that may be leading to the challenging lack of student participation was leadership inability to motivate stakeholders at all levels, which may lead to disinterest, lack of commitment, and even covert resistance (i.e., stemming from struggling with ethical issues). One way to address this issue may be providing sufficient and timely information on the new program development. Maureen (2008) asserted that joint decision-making among multiple stakeholders should accompany global learning program implementation at any given institution as it is strongly connected to curriculum internationalization and student learning outcomes: multiple potential GDDP benefits that all case study stakeholders agreed on.

Yonezawa, Akiba and Hirouchi in their 2009 study argued, “The value of international exchange, mutual understanding, and mutual respect should be widely shared by the efforts of the entire academic community” (p.17). In the absence of strong stakeholder commitment to isolated programs, only the superficial provision of memoranda of agreement, strategic planning documents for the purposes of participation in a domestic budgeting game might emerge.

Many GDDP stakeholders recognized program challenges, potential benefits, and university resources that could improve GDDP implementation, but had a very

limited access to decision-making in order to utilize these resources. Therefore many current GDDP implementation challenges are not being addressed by HEIs in an effective and efficient manner, leading to an ad hoc program implementation that is mostly “on paper”. Without sufficient joint decision-making within HEI and communication among all stakeholders involved, GDDPs may be implemented at an ad hoc level due to low levels of stakeholder commitment and resource utilization. In Japanese context this is especially relevant due to the fact that the recent university governance reform aimed at decentralization and university autonomy may have not yet had much time to affect rigid university culture, especially at public HEIs.

### **Addressing Asymmetry in Partner Relationships**

The internal incongruence connected to stakeholder motivation as well as insufficient program planning and integration may affect the partnerships negatively, especially if only one partner institution is acting in a more strategic manner. The reason for that might lie in strong within-case view incongruence at one or both institutions leading to negative outcomes in practice, during everyday operations. Although multiple economic, political and other factors not addressed in this dissertation affect program performance, asymmetry in partner relationships is not a rare phenomenon (Chapman & Sakamoto, 2009), often leading to partnership reassessment according to long-term goals and performance of both partners (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007).

### **Recommendations for GDDP Partners.**

According to Beerkens and van der Wende (2006) study, international HEI consortia can utilize coping mechanisms in order to increase program performance. Among those listed could be working to motivate university stakeholders to commit to GDDP activities by diversifying internal or external funding provision or gaining access to wider regional programs). Even though the authors of the framework emphasized the need to increase the complementarity of resources (including their acquisition, identification, dissemination and exploitation), the underlying goals of stakeholder motivation and participation in the implementation process are hard to overestimate.

Furthermore, high quality in a cross-border partnership is often defined based on loyalty and sense of “ownership” by partner institutions, in addition to official monitoring and assessment standards. However, the sense of GDDP ownership is hard to achieve among stakeholders involved, since most people aim to remain loyal to home institution (Beerkens, 2004) for a variety of objective and subjective reasons. At the same time, institutions involved in international partnerships care about quality as their names will be associated with the program and known worldwide. Hence, mutual recognition of internal quality assurance programs by partners would be helpful according to Knight (2009), as it is often difficult for institutions to monitor the quality of partner institution’s courses.

Additionally GDDP partner institutions could address the issues of stakeholder motivation and involvement by following the recommendations below:

**Planning ahead.** Planning for a long time frame is in order to see the financial and other returns. In strategic alliance-building, initial objectives may differ from

eventual implementation, highlighting the need to have clear objectives, implementation, and conditional exit plans from the beginning. Chapman and Sakamoto (2010) in their analysis of cross-border partnerships in higher education also emphasized that financial return is usually not the only motivation, but in any case quick payoff on initial investments should not be expected.

**Focusing on program quality.** Focusing on quality assurance, not just the “two for one” value for students, allowing for quick obtaining of two diplomas. Such pragmatic approach, although useful in the short-term, may contribute to lowering prestige and university image, if program content is not up to the par due to the limited number of courses available, low English-language capacity, teaching methods that are unattractive for international students, or other reasons.

**Involving the faculty.** Working to involve faculty members in the process through orientations, invitation to relevant meetings, and bringing highly qualified students from abroad to study in graduate courses and conduct research. Engaging faculty may partially alleviate the fact that Japanese and American academics currently place more emphasis on the international dimension in their personal research activities (such as international collaboration and publishing) as opposed to directly participating in exchange activities, research and training with foreign scholars or students (Cummings & Bain, 2009; Huang, 2009).

In the end, whether the GDDP is a well-functioning example of inter-institutional collaboration depends on the nature of the partnership. Perhaps the most important recommendation, as Higgit et al. (2008) stressed, is the effort to subject international collaborative practices and projects in universities to a critical review in

regards to discipline-specific evaluations of pedagogical benefit and learner outcomes. Such evaluations are beyond the scope of this dissertation yet it is the researcher's hope that the initial recommendations outlined above could assist university teams in achieving their final desired outcomes.

### **Future Study Suggestions**

This study selected cases that reflect one of the more recent trends in cross-border higher education. This purposeful selection of cases resulted in the study of four universities with very different characteristics, all striving to design competitive internationalization strategies. To establish further concrete strategic models to help develop innovative international educational programs, future research should be conducted with different types of higher education institutions adopting different types of internationalization strategies in different national contexts.

While this is a small-scale case study, using large-scale surveys to explore the impact of such programs on learning outcomes or labor market success of its graduates might help define future studies. Such studies may shed light on the unclear future of joint and double degrees in Japan, Australia, and the U.S. in addition to gaining more of an insight on the complexities imposed by the increasing perception of education as a profitable product. This study aimed to construct an explanatory model of cross-border GDDP implementation factors that could also be tested and refined in future larger scale and/or mixed method studies.

Finally, this study concentrated on internal and interuniversity issues by illustrating, among other issues, the dilemma of program investment needs and potential outcome unpredictability that stakeholders at different universities in varying

national contexts face. The balance in adapting to internal and external GDDP environments is important for international collaborative program success. Future studies could address national, international, and regional developments in higher education, such as a growing interest in the establishment of common Asian higher education area similar to the EU among ASEAN countries. How could double degree program format be utilized if this were to happen?

Varying national contexts could provide an interesting environment for research on cross-university partnerships. For instance, double degree program market among Chinese universities is predicted to be growing (Uroda, 2011), and the explanatory model of cross-border GDDP implementation factors presented in this study could be tested and refined in future studies in China.

Internationalization approaches are diverse among Japanese universities, and presented case study findings cannot be generalized. However, there are some common trends among Japanese educational institutions. For instance, national universities tend to focus on internationalization in research, seeking a more active presence and competitiveness in the global academic community. On the other hand, private universities tend to focus more on internationalization in education by offering students more opportunities for international experiences (Yonezawa, Akiba & Hirouchi, 2009), including GDDPs. Further exploring of the differences in internationalization approaches in different institutional settings from the point of view of economic sociology or organizational theory is warranted. The driving question in future research agenda may be how the double degree program is to be positioned within the mutual strategies of the consortia-participating institutions.

The paucity of research specifically on double degree programs may reflect the underlying problem of “not fitting in”, being “add-on” programs that sit on the margins of wider internationalization initiatives without gaining wide-spread support. And yet their innovative characteristics and potential for interdisciplinary education development for undergraduate and graduate students (Russel, et al.2007) as well as other benefits addressed by the stakeholders in this study give them much promise.

### **Final Thoughts and Reflections**

This comparative case study research examined the benefits that graduate dual degree programs offer at institutional and student levels, the factors affecting GDDP implementation, and how universities deal with implementation challenges. Looking at selected universities in Japan, Australia, and the United States, the special effort in this study was to explore how different stakeholders understand and view such programs and how their expectations and opinions may influence program implementation process. The financial and administrative burden that GDDPs represent for institutions involved is significant, but little is known about what factors influence program implementation “on the ground”, as opposed to the “official story” given by university administration. The research investigates this “gray area” based on local interpretations of GDDP policy and practice by multiple university-based stakeholders who engage in educational planning and by those who are mainly impacted by these very policies. Hence the study presented a set of findings related to the dichotomy between institutional aspirations (i.e., official policy related to inter-university collaboration) and empirical stories at the grassroots implementation level.

By adopting Beerkens and van der Wende (2006) interuniversity cooperation framework, this study examined the GDDP implementation process, and found some partner universities achieved non-optimal outcomes due to inability to provide enough motivation and support for faculty, staff and students. Many stakeholders may be unaware or unable to utilize or make decisions about the compatible and complementary resources needed for partnership success.

The explanatory model of GDDP implementation based on the study results presents several areas for policy-creation to improve program establishment and implementation practices. These measures include faculty and staff motivation building practices, providing more information on GDDP goals and benefits, and engaging all stakeholders in decision-making processes. These recommendations need to be adapted to national contexts and institutional cultures.

Lastly, the study addresses the need to critically analyze current practice as a basis for implementing new GDDP programs in American, Japanese and other national universities. The study may potentially serve as a resource for institutional policy makers as a basis for implementing new GDDP programs, in the end benefiting graduate students as they enter the global labor market.

Formal degree collaborations with international partner institutions are likely to grow (Chapman and Sakamoto, 2010; Council of Graduate Studies, 2009). How do universities make choices about areas of collaboration and responsibility in dealing with problematic issues affecting program performance? Are all inter-university arrangements essentially too loosely organized to fully exploit collaboration

opportunities? These are some puzzling big-picture questions future studies may help shed light on.

#### REFERENCES

Akiba, H. (2008). *The changing face of transnational education in Malaysia: A case study of international offshore university programs*. (Doctoral dissertation).

Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (UMI No. 3299405)

Altbach, P. (1998). *Comparative Higher Education: Knowledge, the University, and Development*. Hong Kong: Comparative Education Research Centre, The University of Hong Kong.

Altbach, P. (2004). Higher education crosses borders: Can the United States remain the top destination for foreign students? *Change*, 26 (2), 18-24. Retrieved from

[http://www.bc.edu/bc\\_org/avp/soe/cihe/publications/pub\\_pdf/Student%](http://www.bc.edu/bc_org/avp/soe/cihe/publications/pub_pdf/Student%20flows.pdf)

[20 flows. pdf](http://www.bc.edu/bc_org/avp/soe/cihe/publications/pub_pdf/Student%20flows.pdf)

- Altbach, P. (2006). Globalization and the university: realities in an unequal world. In J. Forest & P. Altbach (Eds.), *International handbook of higher education* (pp. 121-139). Dordrecht : Springer.
- Altbach, P., & Knight, J. (2006). *The internationalization of higher education: Motivations and realities*. The NEA 2006 Almanac of Higher Education. Retrieved August 3, 2009, from [http://www.bc.edu/cihe/pga/pdf/Internationalization\\_2006.pdf](http://www.bc.edu/cihe/pga/pdf/Internationalization_2006.pdf)
- Altbach, P. G., & Teichler, U. (2001). Internationalization and exchanges in a globalized university. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 5(1), 5-25.
- American University (2009). *Grad dual degree programs: Ritsumeikan University*. Retrieved August 3, 2009, from <http://www1.sis.american.edu/sisabroad/gdualdegree/ru.html>
- American University (2009). *Fast facts*. Retrieved August 3, 2009, from <http://www.american.edu/discoverau/fast-facts.cfm>
- Aoki, K. (2005). Japanese higher education institutions in the 21st century: The challenge of globalization and internationalization. *Electronic Journal of Contemporary Japanese Studies*, Discussion Paper 7 (November 4). Retrieved July 28, 2009 from <http://www.japanesestudies.org.uk/discussionpapers/2005/Aoki.html>
- Arimoto, A. (2007). *The competitive research environment in the Japanese*

*context*. Paper presented at the Regional Research Seminar for Asia and Pacific: Competition, Cooperation and Changes in the Academic Profession, Hangzhou, China.

Asaoka, T., & Yano, J. (2009). The contribution of 'Study Abroad' programs to

Japanese internationalization, *Journal of Studies in International Education*,

13(2), 174-188.

Ayoubi, R. & Al-Habaibeh, A. (2006). An investigation into international business

collaboration in higher education organisations: A case study of international

partnerships in four UK leading universities. *International Journal of*

*Educational Management*, 20(5), 380-396.

Bannerman, P., Spiller, J., Yetton, P., & Davis, J. (2005). *Strategic alliances in*

*education and training services: A literature review*. Canberra: Department of

Education, Science and Training.

Barney, J. (1991). Firm Resources and Sustained Competitive Advantage. *Journal of*

*Management*. 17(1), 99-120.

Beerkens, E. (2004). Global opportunities and institutional embeddedness: Higher

education consortia in Europe and Southeast Asia. Paper presented at CHER

Conference 17-19 September 2004, University of Twente, Netherlands.

Retrieved August 5, 2009, from

<http://www.beerkens.info/files/Beerkens%20CHER%20Conference.pdf>

Beerkens, H. (2004) Global opportunities and institutional embeddedness: Higher

education consortia in Europe and Southeast Asia. Enschede: CHEPS.

Beerkens, E. (2002). International Inter-Organisational Arrangements in Higher

- Education: Towards a Typology. *Tertiary Education and Management*, 8(4): 297-314.
- Beerens, E., & van der Wende, M. (2007). The paradox in international cooperation: Institutionally embedded universities in a global environment. *Higher Education*, 53(1), 61-79.
- Bhuyan, D. (2009). Cultivating global citizens through innovative program development- how the INU is empowering students through the Master's of global citizenship and peace. Retrieved July 29, 2009, from [http://www.wcf2009.org/program/down/077\\_S5-I07-4\\_Devi\\_Bhuyan.docx](http://www.wcf2009.org/program/down/077_S5-I07-4_Devi_Bhuyan.docx)
- Bogdan, R. C., & Biklen, S. K. (1992). *Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theory and practice* (2nded.). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Bolman, L. & Deal, T. (2003). *Reframing Organizations: Artistry, Choice, and Leadership*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass
- Bray, M., & Thomas, R. (1995). Levels of comparison in educational studies: Different insights from different literatures and the value of multilevel analyses. *Harvard Educational Review*, 65(3), 472-490.
- Broadfoot, P. (1999). Stones from other hills may serve to polish the jade of this one: Towards a neo-comparative 'learnology' of education. *Compare*, 29(3), 217-232.
- Burnett, S. & Huisman, J. (2010). Universities' Responses to Globalisation: The Influence of Organisational Culture. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 14 (2), 117-142.

- Chan, W. (2004). International cooperation in higher education: Theory and practice. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 8(1), 32-55.
- Chapman, D. W. & Sakamoto, R. (2010). The future of cross-border partnerships in higher education. In R. Sakamoto & D. W. Chapman (Eds.), *Cross-border partnerships in higher education: Strategies and issues* (pp. 265-270). New York: Routledge.
- Chapman, D., Cummings, W. & Postiglione, G. (Eds.). (2010). *Crossing borders and bridging minds in higher education*. New York: Springer Publishing.
- Chesbrough, H. & Teece, D. (1996). When is virtual virtuous? Organizing for innovation. *Harvard Business Review*, 74 (1): 65-73.
- Council of Graduate Studies (2009). The graduate international collaborations project: A North American perspective on joint and dual degree programs. Communicator, 42 (8) [www.cgsnet.org](http://www.cgsnet.org)
- Council of Graduate Studies (2007). *Data sources: International dual, joint, and other collaborative degree programs*. Retrieved March 17, 2009, from [http://www.cgsnet.org/portals/0/pdf/DataSources\\_2007\\_10.pdf](http://www.cgsnet.org/portals/0/pdf/DataSources_2007_10.pdf)
- Council for Asian Gateway Initiative, Prime-Minister's Office. (2007). *Asian gateway initiative*. Retrieved July 2, 2009, from [http://www.kantei.go.jp/foreign/abepphoto/2007/05/16asia\\_e.html](http://www.kantei.go.jp/foreign/abepphoto/2007/05/16asia_e.html)
- Creswell, J. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Methods Approaches* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Cummings, W., & Bain, O (2009). The internationalization of the U.S. academy in comparative perspective: a descriptive study. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, 10(1), 107-115.
- Das, T. & Teng, B. (2000). A resource-based theory of strategic alliances. *Journal of Management*, 26(1), 31-61
- Davies, W. M. (2000). Commercialism, fundamental research and the 'new' universities. *Australian Quarterly*, 73(6), 24-27.
- Davis, D., Olsen, A. and Bohm, A. (2000). *Transnational education providers, partners and policy: Challenges for Australian institutions offshore*. Presented at the 14th Australian International Education Conference. Brisbane.
- de Wit, H. (1999). Changing rationales for the internationalisation of higher education. *International Higher Education*, 15, 1- 2
- Ellingboe, B. J. (1999). *Internationalizing the private liberal arts college: A comparative, five-college case study of components, strategies, and recommendations* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (UMI No. 9916427)
- Fullan, M. and Stiegelbauer, S.(1991). *The new meaning of educational change*. London: Cassell.
- Gall, M., Gall, J., & Borg, W. (2003). *Education research: An introduction* (7<sup>th</sup> ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson Education
- Government of Japan (2008, June 27). *Economic and fiscal reform 2008: Basic policies* (Cabinet decision). Tokyo: Council on Economic and Fiscal Policy,

- Prime Minister's Office. Retrieved July 8, 2009, from [http://www.kantei.go.jp/foreign/hukudaphoto/2008/06/27keizai\\_e.html](http://www.kantei.go.jp/foreign/hukudaphoto/2008/06/27keizai_e.html)
- Henderson, J. (1990). Plugging into strategic partnerships: The critical IS connection. *Sloan Management Review* (spring), 7–18.
- Hiroshima University (2009). *Activities at HU through INU*. Retrieved August 3, 2009, from <http://www.hiroshima-u.ac.jp/en/top/International/inu/index.html>
- Horie, M. (2002). The internationalization of higher education in Japan in the 1990s. *Higher Education*, 43 (1), 65-84.
- Horn, A., Hendel, D., & Fry, G. (2007). Ranking the international dimension of top research universities in the United States. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 11 (3-4), 330-358.
- Huang, F. (2006). Internationalization of university curricula in Japan: Major policies and practice since the 1980s. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 10 (2), 102-108.
- Huang, F (2009). The internationalization of the academic profession in Japan: A quantitative perspective, *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 13 (2), 143-158.
- Huisman, J., & van der Wende, M. (Eds.). (2004). *On cooperation and competition: National and European policies for the internationalisation of higher education*. Bonn, Germany: Lemmens.
- International Network of Universities (2009). *About INU*. Retrieved August 1, 2009, from <http://www.inunis.net/>

The International Network of Universities (2008). *Intensive Summer School on Global Citizenship: Curriculum Outline 2009*. Melbourne, Australia.

The International Network of Universities (2007). *INU Student Seminar on Global Citizenship: Climate Change – A Global Issue 2008 Report*. Hiroshima, Japan.

Retrieved April 14, 2009 from

<http://www.latrobe.edu.au/inu////students/07seminar.htm>

The International Network of Universities (2008). *INU Student Seminar on Global Citizenship and Peace Hosted by Hiroshima University, August 2008- Report*.

Hiroshima, Japan.

The International Network of Universities (2009). *The Dual Degree Programs*.

Melbourne, Australia.

Ishikawa, M (2009). University rankings, global models, and emerging hegemony:

Critical analysis from Japan, *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 13 (2), 159-173.

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

Knight, J. (2006). *Higher education crossing borders. A guide to the implications of the general agreement on trade in services (GATS) for cross-border education*. Commonwealth of Learning: Vancouver, BC.

Knight, J. (2005a). *Crossborder education: Programs and providers on the move*. Research Monograph 10. Canadian Bureau for International Education, Ottawa, ON, Canada.

- Knight, J. (2005b). New typologies for crossborder higher education. *International Higher Education*, Winter 2005. Retrieved June 16, 2009, from [http://www.bc.edu/bc\\_org/avp/soe/cihe/newsletter/News38/text002.htm](http://www.bc.edu/bc_org/avp/soe/cihe/newsletter/News38/text002.htm)
- Knight, J. (2009). Internationalization : unintended consequences? *International Higher Education*, 54, 8-10. Retrieved June 3, 2009, from [http://www.bc.edu/bc\\_org/avp/soe/cihe/newsletter/Number54/p8\\_Knight.htm](http://www.bc.edu/bc_org/avp/soe/cihe/newsletter/Number54/p8_Knight.htm)
- Knight, J., & De Wit, H. (Eds.) (1997). *Internationalization of higher education in Asia Pacific countries*. Amsterdam, Netherlands: European Association for International Education
- Kobayashi, M., Cao, Y., & Shi P. (2006). *Comparison of global university rankings*. Center for Research and Development in Higher Education, The University of Tokyo.
- Kogan, M. (1996). Comparing higher education systems, *Higher Education*, 32(4), 395–402.
- Kuder, M & Obst, D. (2009). *Joint and double degree programs in the transatlantic context: a survey report*. New York; Berlin: Institute of International Education; Berlin: Freie Universität Berlin. Retrieved March 20, 2009, from [http://www.ifki.fu-berlin.de/v/tdp/en/news\\_dates/news/09-01-22\\_icesurvey.html](http://www.ifki.fu-berlin.de/v/tdp/en/news_dates/news/09-01-22_icesurvey.html)
- Kuriyama, N., Saito, T., Mauekawa, S., Muta, H. (2008). Research on the current situation of joint degree programs in Japanese graduate schools. *Research on Academic Degrees and University Evaluation*, 8, 3-20.

- Kuwamura, A. (2009). The challenges of increasing capacity and diversity in Japanese higher education through proactive recruitment strategies. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 13 (2), 189-202.
- Lassegard, J. (2006). International student quality and Japanese education reform. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 10 (2), 119-140.
- Lincoln, Y., & Guba, E. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. New York: Sage
- Luijten-Lub, A., Huisman, J., & van der Wende, M. (2005). Introduction. In J. Huisman & M. van der Wende (Eds.), *On cooperation and competition II: Institutional responses to internationalisation, Europeanisation and globalisation* (pp. 11- 17). Bonn, Germany: Lemmens.
- Marginson, S. (2006). Dynamics of national and global competition in higher education, *Higher Education*, 52 (1), pp. 1-39.
- Marginson, S. (2007). Global position and position taking: The case of Australia *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 11(1), 5-32.
- Matsushige, H. (2002). English proficiency and economic status of social science graduates. *Journal of Educational Sociology* (in Japanese), 111-119.
- Maureen, B. (2008). Internationalization of curriculum in higher education through study abroad and global learning. Wollongong NSW: University of Wollongong, Ph.D. dissertation.
- Maxwell, J. (1996). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Mazzarol, T., & Soutar, G. (2002). Push-pull factors influencing international student destination choice. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 16, 82-90.
- Mazzarol, T., Soutar, G., Seng, M. (2001). *The third wave: Future trends in international education*. Paper presented at the ANZAM (Australia New Zealand Academy of Management) conference, Auckland, New Zealand.
- McBurnie, G., & Zirguras, C. (2007). *Transnational education: Issues and trends in offshore higher education*. Routledge: New York.
- Merriam, S. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Mestenhauser, J. & Elingboe, B. (Eds.). (1998). *Reforming the higher education curriculum: Internationalizing the campus*. Phoenix, AZ: Oryx Press
- MEXT (2010). Guidelines for Building Organized and Continuous Cooperation Including Double and Joint Degree Programs. Retrieved from <http://www.mext.go.jp/english/koutou/detail/1294463.htm>
- Mok, K. (2006). Japan's response to globalization: Corporatization and changing university governance. In K. Mok (Ed.), *Education reform and education policy in East Asia* (pp. 193-222). London: Routledge.
- Mok, K. (2007). Questing for internationalization in Asia: Critical reflections. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 11 (3-4), 433-454.
- Naidoo, V. (2009). Transnational higher education: A stock take of current activity *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 13 (3), 310-330.

- Ninomiya, A., Knight, J., & Watanabe, A. (2009). The past, present, and future of internationalization in Japan. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 13(2), 117-124
- Oleksiyenko, A. (2008). *Global portfolios and strategic international partnerships of a major research university*. (Doctoral Dissertation). University of Toronto.
- Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (1996). *Internationalisation of higher education*. Paris: OECD.
- Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (2004). *Internationalization and Trade in Higher Education: Opportunities and Challenges*. Paris: OECD
- UNESCO (2005). *Guidelines for quality provision in cross-border higher education*. Paris: UNESCO. Retrieved June 5, 2009, from <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001433/143349e.pdf>
- Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (2007). *Education at a glance*. Paris: OECD.
- Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (2004). *Internationalisation and Trade in Higher Education: Opportunities and Challenges*. Paris: OECD.
- Paige, M. (2003). The American case: The University of Minnesota. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 7(1), 52-63.
- Paige, M. (2005). Internationalization of higher education: Performance assessment and indicators. *Nagoya Koutou Kyoiku Kenkyu*, 5, 99-122.
- Paige, M., & Mestenhauser, J. (1999). Internationalizing education administration. *Education Administration Quarterly*, 135, 500-517.

- Parker, L. (2004). Quality research in *Surviving your thesis*, S. Burton and P. Steane (Eds.), 169-77. New York: Routledge
- Parkhe, A. (1991). Interfirm diversity, organizational learning, and longevity in global strategic alliances. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 22(4), 579-601.
- Patton, M. Q. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods* (2nd ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage
- Pokarier C. (2006). Cross-border education in the Australia-Japan relationship, *Australian Journal of International Affairs*, 60(4), 552-573.
- Poole, D. (2001). Moving towards Professionalism: The Strategic Management of International Education Activities at Australian Universities and Their Faculties of Business. *Higher Education*, 42 (4), 395-435.
- Pokarier C. (2008). *Internationalization as driver of university reform in mature systems? Mixed evidence from Japan*. Retrieved July 15, 2009, from [pac.unescobkk.org/fileadmin/user\\_upload/apeid/workshops/macao08/papers/1-d-1.pdf](http://pac.unescobkk.org/fileadmin/user_upload/apeid/workshops/macao08/papers/1-d-1.pdf)
- Richards, L. (2005). *Handling qualitative data: A practical guide*. London: Sage.
- Ritsumeikan University (2009). *The Founding Spirit and Educational Philosophy of Ritsumeikan: A Brief History*. Retrieved August 3, 2009, from <http://www.ritsumei.ac.jp/eng/profile/history/index.shtml>
- Rudzki, R. (1995). The application of a strategic management model to the internationalization of higher education institutions. *Higher Education*, 29(4), 421-441.

- Sakamoto, R. & Chapman D. W. (2010). *Cross-border partnerships in higher education: Strategies and issues*. London: Routledge.
- Sanderson, G. (2007). A foundation for the internationalization of the academic self. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 12, 276-307.
- Saunders, S. (2007). *Perceptions of quality in cross-border higher education at Sojourner-Douglass Bahamas Campus*. Unpublished Ph.D. thesis, Morgan State University.
- Scott, P. (1998). Massification, internationalization and globalization. In P. Scott (Ed.), *The globalization of higher education* (pp. 109-129). Buckingham, England; Philadelphia, PA: the Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press.
- Scott, W. (1981). *Organizations: Rational, natural and open systems*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall International
- Skelton. A. (2007) (Ed.). *International perspectives on teaching excellence in higher education: Improving knowledge and practice*. London: Routledge.
- Stake, R. (2000). Case studies. In N. Denzin & Y. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 435-454). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Stake, R. (1995). *The art of case study research*. London: Sage
- State University of New York Cortland (2009). *International Sport Management - Dual Diploma*. Retrieved July 29, 2009, from [http://catalog.cortland.edu/preview\\_program.php?catoid=10&poid=1360&bc=](http://catalog.cortland.edu/preview_program.php?catoid=10&poid=1360&bc=)

- Stronkhorst, R. (2005), Learning outcomes of international mobility at two Dutch institutions of higher education. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 9(4), 292 - 315.
- Teather, D. (2004). *Consortia: International networking alliances of universities*. Melbourne: Melbourne University Press.
- Teichler, U. (1993). Research on higher education in Europe: Some aspects of recent developments in Frackmann, E. and Maassen, P. (eds), *Towards Excellence in European Higher Education in the 90s*, Proceedings of 11th European AIR Forum, University of Trier, 27–30 August 1989, EAIR.
- Trooboff , S., Vande Berg, M. & Rayman, J (2008). Employer attitudes toward atudy abroad. *FRONTIERS: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad*, XV (Winter 2007-2008), 17-33.
- Uroda, A. (2011). *Borders bridging degrees: Harbin and Vladivostok's dual-degree programs*. *Crossing Borders in East Asian Higher Education*. CERC Studies in Comparative Education, 2011, Volume 27, III, 231-261
- van der Wende (2001). The international dimension in national higher education policies: What has changed in Europe over the last five years? *European Journal of Education*, 36(4), 431- 441.
- van der Wende M. and Middlehurst R. (2004). *Cross-border post-secondary education in Europe*. (Report chapter). *Internationalization and Trade in Higher Education: Opportunities and Challenges*. Paris: CERI/OECD.
- van Vught, F., van der Wende, M., & Westerheijden, D. (2002). Globalisation and internationalisation: Policy agendas compared. In J. Enders & O. Fulton (Eds.),

*Higher education in a globalising world: International trends and mutual observations* (pp. 1-14). Dordrecht, the Netherlands: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Vavrus, F., & Bartlett, L. (2006). Comparatively knowing: Making a case for the vertical case study. *Current Issues in Comparative Education* 8(2) [Online]. Retrived Jun8, 2009, from [http://www.tc.columbia.edu/cice/Archives/8.2/82vavrus\\_bartlett.pdf](http://www.tc.columbia.edu/cice/Archives/8.2/82vavrus_bartlett.pdf)

Welle-Strand A., and Thune, T., (2002) *Internationalisation and ICT in a service university*. Paper presented at 7th Quality in Higher Education International Seminar, Transforming Quality, RMIT, Australia.

Wernerfelt, B. (1984). A resource-based theory of the firm. *Strategic Management Journal*, 5 (2), 171-180.

World Trade Organization (2004). International trade statistics report 2004. Geneva, Switzerland.

Yin, R. (2003). *Applications of Case Study Research* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications

Yin, R. (2009). *Case study research: Design and methods* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications

Yonezawa, A., Akiba, H., & Hirouchi, D. (2009). Japanese university leaders' perceptions of internationalization: The role of government in review and support. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 13 (2), 125-142.

## APPENDICES

### **Appendix A: Interview Protocols**

#### **Graduate Double Degree Program Administrators and Staff Protocol**

##### **1. Program establishment context and rationale**

- How has the partnership between your and partner institution started?
- What was needed in money/other resources to start this program?

- How was a partner institution for GDDP arrangement identified? What features of a partner country have facilitated establishing the arrangement?
- What are partnership goals? Have the goals changed over time?
- How does the current GDDP fit the with university mission?
- How does the current GDDP fit with university overall internationalization strategy?
- What are main program implementation objectives?
- How is progress on program objectives attainment monitored?

## **2. Factors influencing GDDP implementation**

- How have academic alignment issues decided upon in the course of GDDP administration so far?
- Which, if any, program quality issues have arisen in the course of GDDP administration so far?
- Which, if any, accreditation issues have arisen in the course of GDDP administration so far (i.e., concerning double diploma acceptance in the job market/academic community within and outside your institution)?
- Which, if any, student recruitment problems have arisen in the course of GDDP administration so far?
- What other issues you think are important to mention that are hindering GDDP in any way?
- What, if any, internal/external structural institutional barriers to successful program implementation can you name?

## **3. Addressing current GDDP implementation challenges**

- To what extent do you consider the GDDP partnership a good “fit” for all partner institutions involved?
- What are regular requests of GDDP partners? How are they normally addressed (what kind of procedure/mechanism is in place, if any, to address

potential problematic issues)?

- What additional resources would be desirable for improved program performance?

## **Graduate Double Degree Program Faculty Protocol**

### **1. Program Background**

- How long have you worked with the program?
- What is (are) the main program goal(s)?
- What activities take place within the framework of the program?
- Who makes GDDP-related decisions at the university?

### **2. Program Rationale, Challenges, and Benefits**

- Why, in your opinion, has your institution decided to participate in the graduate double degree program?
- How was a partner institution for GDDP arrangement identified and selected?
- What valuable resources can your partner institution offer? How is it different from/similar to your institution?
- How does the current GDDP fit the with university mission?
- How does the current GDDP fit with university overall internationalization strategy? Is GDDP integrated into any important university policy documents
- How does the current GDDP fit with national higher education reform agenda?
- Do you think your GDDP partnership a good “fit” for all institutions involved?
- What do you see as advantages associated with the program in terms of student learning?
- What other advantages associated with the program can you name?

### **3. Addressing current GDDP implementation challenges**

What resources were needed to start this program?

- What risks or challenges can you name that affect the program?
- How do you address them?
- How is program implementation process monitored?
- How is program implementation evaluated?

### **4. Program Implementation Issues**

- What do you think about the current process of program implementation?
- What significantly affects this process at your institution?
- How is the current level of partner communication?

- How do you feel regarding your ability to influence decisions connected to program implementation? Why do you feel you are able to/not able to engage in relevant decision-making processes?

## **5. Program Improvement**

- What makes a successful graduate double degree program, in your opinion?
- How could the current program at your institution be improved?
- What additional resources (i.e., additional funding, staff, etc.) would be desirable to improve performance?
- Do you have access to such resources?
- Do you use them? How/why not?

## **Appendix B: Participant Interview Consent Form**

Dear Sir or Madam,

You are invited to be in a research study of establishing and sustaining cross-border graduate double degree programs (GDDPs). You were selected as a possible participant because I found your name through university website and program materials as well as your colleagues that you are involved in program implementation, planning, or have participated in the program (the text will vary depending on participant type: administrators, faculty, staff, or students). I ask that you read this form and ask any questions you may have before agreeing to be in the study.

This study is being conducted by me, Diana Yefanova, MA, a Ph.D (principal investigator), student at the Department of Organizational Leadership and Policy Development, at the University of Minnesota, USA. The purposes of this study are:

- To examine the views among GDDP-involved stakeholders at selected universities in Japan and in the U.S., on program rationale, accompanying implementation and maintenance policies and practice.
- To create an explanatory model of factors affecting GDDP implementation based on stakeholder perspectives in specific national contexts.

If you agree to be in this study, I would ask you to do the following things:  
 1) Respond to a short preliminary survey on your GDDP characteristics (year of establishment, number of participants, etc.); 2) participate in face-to-face or Skype/phone-based interview with the principal investigator

### **Risks and Benefits of being in the Study**

The study has no known risks. A minimal risk of personal name exposure in research

materials applies, as I intend to use real university names and interviewee names and titles. The benefits to participation are: better understanding of GDDPs, which potentially may inform institutional practice and allow to increase learning benefits of international collaboration for your university students, faculty and staff. However, there are no direct benefits to participation in the study.

**Compensation:**

You will receive no payment.

**Confidentiality:**

You may stipulate that your name should not be disclosed. The records of this study will be recorded on my laptop computer and will be kept private. I will use it for my dissertation. In any sort of report I might publish or publicly present using your names and information you have provided, we will inform you and inquire whether it is still OK to use your name. Research records will be stored securely and only the researcher will have access to the records.

**Voluntary Nature of the Study:**

Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with the University of Minnesota or your university. If you decide to participate, you are free to not answer any question or withdraw at any time without affecting those relationships.

**Contacts and Questions:**

The researcher conducting this study is Diana Yefanova. You may ask any questions you have now. If you have questions later, **you are encouraged** to contact me at (080) 4267-7907 or [yefan001@umn.edu](mailto:yefan001@umn.edu). My adviser's name at the University of Minnesota is Dr. David Chapman, he can be contacted at 612 626 8728, or [chapm026@umn.edu](mailto:chapm026@umn.edu)

If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study and would like to talk to someone other than the researcher(s), **you are encouraged** to contact the Research Subjects' Advocate Line, D528 Mayo, 420 Delaware St. Southeast, Minneapolis, Minnesota 55455; (612) 625-1650.

*You will be given a copy of this information to keep for your records.*

**Statement of Consent:**

I have read the above information. I have asked questions and have received answers. I consent to participate in the study.

Signature: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

### **Appendix C: Participant Interview Invitation Letter**

Date

Dear (Name),

You are invited to be in a research study presently titled “Stakeholder Perspectives on Cross-Border Graduate Double Degree Program Implementation Across National Contexts”.

You were selected as a possible participant because I found your name through university website, program materials, or you are involved in implementation, or planning of the program. This study is being conducted by Diana Yefanova, a Ph.D. student at the Department of Organizational Leadership and Policy Development, at the University of Minnesota, USA, currently a visiting research student at Hiroshima University, Japan.

This multiple case study research study is intended to lead to dissertation investigating the processes of establishing and implementing cross-border graduate double degree programs in higher education. The general study objectives are:

- To examine the views among administrators, staff, faculty and students at selected universities in Japan, Australia and the U.S. on program rationale and accompanying planning, implementation and challenges in policy and practice.
- To create an explanatory model of factors affecting GDDP implementation based on case study stakeholder perspectives in specific national contexts.

If you agree to be in this study, I would ask you to 1) respond to a short preliminary survey on your GDDP characteristics (5-8 questions) and 2) participate in face-to-face or Skype/phone-based interview with the principal investigator at the time and place convenient to you within the next month. The interview should take about an hour of your time. You will receive a detailed consent form specifying your privacy protection measures prior to the interview, if you agree to participate. Study participation is not connected to any significant risks or specific benefits. Your name will not be disclosed if you do not wish so. Potential benefits to participation are: contributing to a study that may lead to better understanding of GDDPs, thus informing institutional practice in

sustaining international collaborative projects.

If you have any questions or concerns, you are strongly encouraged to contact the researcher at (080) 4267-7907 (email at [yefan001@umn.edu](mailto:yefan001@umn.edu)) or Dr. David Chapman, her academic adviser at the University of Minnesota at (612) 626-8728 (email at [chapm026@umn.edu](mailto:chapm026@umn.edu)).

Sincerely,  
Diana Yefanova, M.A.

University of Minnesota  
Department of Organizational Leadership and Policy Development  
Comparative and International Development Education Program  
330 Wulling Hall  
86 Pleasant Street SE  
Minneapolis, MN 55455-0221  
Phone: 651.645.1535  
Email: [yefan001@umn.edu](mailto:yefan001@umn.edu)

#### **Appendix D: Initial Within-Case Data Categories (Sample)**

Research Question1.

How congruent are stakeholder views regarding program rationales and benefits ?

---

CS1 (HU-FU)		
Faculty	Administrators/leaders	Staff

---

Have to follow MEXT internationalization guidelines	Allows to apply for funding from MEXT together with other consortium partners	To apply for funding
30 Global pressure to provide E. curriculum	To provide faculty research opportunities	Due to overall HEI strategy of internationalization
DDP=sign of internationalization according to MEXT goals	To provide students with opportunities to become international citizens	To provide opportunities for students to study abroad
To promote HU via consortium	To build on existing resources (selling point to admin and faculty from champion)	To provide more possibilities in the future
To provide a unique program	To raise “the whole new global generation of Japanese”, as J needs globalized workforce	To lead the trend, gain more visibility as a provider of advanced programs
To Improve faculty exchange opportunities	To provide value-added education	
To provide opportunities for students to gain deeper field knowledge	Help to be more competitive	
To provide students with opportunities for cultural exchange		

---

CS2 (RU-AU)

---

Faculty	Administrators/leaders	Staff
To provide opportunities to see the world via study abroad in a structured way	For American students: To gain 2 degrees (A)  To gain cross-cultural	Provides more structured opportunities to study abroad than typical programs

---

To provide opportunities for collaboration for the Graduate School	experience(A) To develop work ethic and networking skills(A)	More impressive
Academically valuable for students	For Japanese st:  To improve oral and written English skills  To provide opportunities to network with scholars  To gain hands-on experiences via internships  For both: To learn to market themselves and build relationships with employers  Is an innovative, reciprocal, mutually beneficial program  Shows employers that a student is hard-working  Potential to attract more international students  Starting point to internationalize campus  Gain experience in both Am and Jap. educational systems	

Research Question2.

How congruent are stakeholder views regarding program challenges?

CS1 (HU-FU)

Faculty	Administrators/leaders	Staff
---------	------------------------	-------

Suspicious of [low] quality	Low student participation	Hard to find a good curriculum fit among consortium partners
Faculty accept but not support due to top-down	English language issues	
Not sure for usefulness for career	Little incentives for students to leave Japan	May negatively affect HEI image if not much progress with DDP
Questionable employability; small market	MA st. in Australia: participation is low, do not want to leave	Staff undereducated re: the program
No clear understanding on how credit transfer works	DDP is just a piece but, an add-on, tiny piece [ad hoc-DY]	Staff does not have enough control to address all issues
Difficulties fitting DDP into degree [curriculum/time wise in order to graduate in time]	Difficulties in communication	Teaching style in Japan [may present an obstacle for IS]
[Poor] English knowledge is a challenge	Nishitani: Uni can't afford a fully new DDP; need to accommodate costs (i.e. for lectures in English, no clear howDY)	Need better marketing, student stories
Faculty are not aware, nominally appointed		Does not matter for companies
[institution] Not ready to provide internationalized curriculum	Not all university units on board	Partner(s) may not be the best fit
Extra work for faculty	N: double-dipping (need significant different programs)	Most student uninformed
Lack of success stories on campus	Credit transfer issues	Program structure not integrated into depart. Curriculum
Small market for DDP		No unit clearly has expertise, responsibility, or ownership [due to multiple levels of hierarchy, committees, rotation, etc.]
Campus not internationalized enough		
DDP budget issues		
AN: very few students benefit so far		Research does not drive GDDP
Effectiveness/popularity vs. good practice/QA		Lack of faculty motivation and support

Accountability and efficiency are new to J unis>>>do not care about reputation as much	Lack of faculty champions (pref. well-known researchers)
Government still decides much	

---

CS2 (RU-AU)

---

Faculty	Administrators/leaders	Staff
Hard to attract good international students (2)	Japanese is hard	Not many similarities in ed. systems>>> need to adjust [for both J and A st)
Ethical concerns not so grounded	Differences in educational systems	for Am st: no writing support, research-intensive classes, bureaucracy, Japanese language
Regular study abroad courses preferred by students	Much coursework	
English language issues	High costs (2)/budget difficulties due to 1-way (1)	For J students: much reading, different academic culture, English, time management
Job hunting issues	Low motivation for student connected to labor market or fear	Curriculum changes and maintenance to provide quality assurance
Limited number of partners feasible, but many offers (quality may suffer)	Need for housing for IS	Not enough HR/support
	Not many professors like to do extra job (re: teaching in English)	Foreign student recruitment
	Program image	Not enough financial support for students (i.e. waiver for home tuition while abroad, plus
	Program costs for J st (Am private u very expensive, tripe of J), not enough subsidies from RU/MEXT	scholarships>>obligation to graduate)
	Need more committed staff focusing on GDDP and more	

Research Question 3.

How congruent are stakeholder views regarding program success factors?

**What are SUCCESS/OTHER factors affecting the process of GDDP implementation?**

---

CS1 (HU-FU)

---

Faculty	Administrators/leaders	Staff
Much depends on how managers utilize the DDP opportunity	Staff travel and communication supports programs	Cannot quit DDP, inevitable
If more students [Japanese and international] could be attracted to the institution, faculty would have more motivation	Students willing to pay will keep coming to Austr.>> need to do more from student's perspective, sell it more efficiently	
Same goals, not just personal connections, are important	Overhead costs are lower than offshore education such as branch campuses	
Give more info to faculty and students who know English and are interested in IR	DDP part of uni strategy of internationalization	
Faculty may not understand, but many are supportive	Nishitani: DDP just "builds on what they got"/ existing administrative and other resources; requires few admin adjustments and resource investment	
Consortium is [innovative], independent form government, very international structure reflecting changes in J education system		

---

---

AN: progressive leadership

---

---

CS2 (RU-AU)

---

Faculty	Administrators/leaders	Staff
Ethical concerns not so grounded	Believe in relationship building	University strong international orientation
Students enter HEI sometimes attracted by DMDP program	Program Q depends on proper curriculum, student support, staff	Based on strong personal relationship
Important success factors: finding a good partner with a good fit ; make program attractive; growing number of IS may increase interest in DDP; fast track RU students can do it superfast with DDP, BA>>MA	Balanced 2-way exchange	DDP integrated into mission
	Trust	Leadership support
	Student adviser expertise	Get more financial support for students (MEXT great support)
Fits into Global mission of the university	Pressure to catch up with others (within Japan and globally)	Good fit
	Have many orientations /information to motivate students with faculty help and printed promotional materials	Good communication
	Dedicated staff	

---

### Appendix E: Overview of Emergent Themes of Cross-Case Study Data Analysis

Research Questions	Emergent themes/categories (in order of frequency/importance)	Data sources
<p><b>1. How congruent are stakeholders' views regarding program rationale, goals, and benefits?</b></p>	<p><b>Faculty</b></p> <p><b>CS1</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• GDDP as a way to Follow MEXT internationalization guidelines (2)</li> <li>• GDDP as a marketing tool (1)</li> <li>• GDDP as an opportunity to earn extra revenue (1)</li> <li>• GDDP may lead to positive student learning and development outcomes (3)</li> <li>• Develop faculty collaboration (2)</li> </ul> <p><b>CS2</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Academic and cross-cultural development value for students (2)</li> <li>• Research collaboration development (2)</li> </ul> <p><b>Staff</b></p> <p><b>CS1</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Reputation-building (1)</li> <li>• Providing an opportunity for language learning (1)</li> <li>• To apply for MEXT funding</li> <li>• No clear understanding of program goals</li> </ul> <p><b>CS2</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Providing for a good cross-cultural experience (3)</li> <li>• GDDP as a quality structured learning experience (1)</li> <li>• Providing potential labor market advantage for students (3)</li> <li>• GDDP as part of university internationalization strategy (1)</li> </ul> <p><b>Administrators</b></p> <p><b>CS1</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Provide diversified education for own students (3)</li> </ul>	<p>1. Semi-structured interviews with faculty, staff, and administrators at four university sites</p> <p>2. Relevant documents</p>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Cost-effectiveness (2)</li> <li>• Providing faculty with research opportunities (2)</li> <li>• Recruiting well-prepared students (2)</li> </ul> <p><b>CS2</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• GDDP as an innovative program type (2)</li> <li>• GDDP as part of university internationalization strategy (1)</li> <li>• Providing potential labor market advantage (1)</li> </ul>	
<p><b>2. How congruent are stakeholders' views regarding program challenges?</b></p>	<p><b>Faculty</b></p> <p><b>CS1</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• No clear understanding of program goals (1)</li> <li>• Lack of faculty and/or researcher champions (2)</li> <li>• Ethical concerns (3)</li> <li>• Quality concerns (2)</li> <li>• Student employment concerns (2)</li> <li>• Lack of student participation (2)</li> <li>• Low level of overall university internationalization (1)</li> <li>• Lack of budget funds (1)</li> <li>• Lack of concern for reputation (1)</li> </ul> <p><b>CS2</b></p> <p>Student recruitment (3)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ethical concerns denied (1)</li> <li>• Balancing the budget (1)</li> <li>• Quality of partnership (1)</li> </ul> <p><b>Staff</b></p> <p><b>CS1</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• High program cost for students (1)</li> <li>• Lack of clarity on program rules and ownership (2)</li> <li>• Lack of faculty motivation (1)</li> <li>• Reputation risks (1)</li> <li>• Lack of curriculum integration (2)</li> </ul>	<p>1. Semi-structured interviews with faculty, staff, and administrators at four university sites</p> <p>2. Relevant documents</p>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Inadequate program marketing (1)</li> </ul> <p><b>CS2</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Domestic student financial burden (1)</li> <li>• Domestic student academic challenges (2)</li> <li>• Foreign student academic challenges (2)</li> <li>• Balancing the budget</li> </ul> <p><b>Administrators</b></p> <p><b>CS1</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Low student participation (2)</li> <li>• High Cost of Program Expansion (1)</li> <li>• Curriculum overlaps(1)</li> <li>• Credit transfer (2)</li> <li>• Communication difficulty (1)</li> <li>• Lack of concern for university reputation (1)</li> </ul> <p><b>CS2</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• High costs (2)</li> <li>• Low domestic students motivation (2)</li> <li>• Lack of campus resources (1)</li> <li>• Lack of staff support and motivation (1)</li> <li>• Lack of faculty motivation (1)</li> </ul>	
--	---	--

<p>3. How congruent are stakeholders' views regarding major success factors affecting the process of GDDP implementation?</p>	<p><b>Faculty</b></p> <p><b>CS1</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Faculty incentives (2)</li> <li>• Leadership (2)</li> <li>• MEXT guidelines provision (2)</li> <li>• Educational system reform (1)</li> <li>• Improved student recruitment (1)</li> </ul> <p><b>CS2</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Careful partner selection (2)</li> <li>• Institutional support mechanisms (1)</li> <li>• Domestic Student Recruitment (2)</li> <li>• Global mission of the university (1)</li> <li>• Financial aid from partner institution(1)</li> <li>• Faculty incentives (1)</li> </ul> <p><b>Staff</b></p> <p><b>CS1</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• GDDP as a global trend (1)</li> <li>• MEXT support (1)</li> <li>• Faculty incentives (1)</li> </ul> <p><b>CS2</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Leadership support (3)</li> <li>• Partner selection (2)</li> <li>• Global mission of the university (2)</li> <li>• Narrow program focus (1)</li> <li>• Financial support from domestic institution (1)</li> <li>• Quality assurance (1)</li> </ul> <p><b>Administrators</b></p> <p><b>CS1</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Adequate staff support (1)</li> <li>• Relatively low costs (2)</li> <li>• Program promotion (2)</li> <li>• Financial aid for outgoing students (3)</li> <li>• Good partner relationship (2)</li> <li>• MEXT guideline provision (2)</li> </ul> <p><b>CS2</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Creating long-term partner relationships (1)</li> <li>• Dedicated staff (1)</li> </ul>	<p>1. Semi-structured interviews with faculty, staff, and administrators at four university sites</p> <p>2. Relevant documents</p>
---	---	--

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Domestic student motivation (1)</li></ul>	
--	---	--