

INTERNATIONALIZATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION VIA DISTANCE
LEARNING: A GROUNDED THEORY STUDY IN TURKEY

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DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I, Hakan Ergin, certify that

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ABSTRACT

Internationalization of Higher Education via Distance Learning:

A Grounded Theory Study in Turkey

This qualitative study examined how a faculty in Turkey internationalized via distance learning. This was made by multiple data collection and analysis procedures. First, observations were made to explore the operation of the faculty. Second, official documents produced by the faculty, university, national and supranational organizations were analyzed to reveal how hierarchical relations among policymakers influenced the faculty's approach to internationalization. Third, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 10 administrators of the faculty, 10 faculty members and 10 international distance students to explore their experiences in international distance learning programs. Based on the findings, the operation of the faculty was associated with the theory of the industrialization of teaching (Peters, 1983). Next, it was explored that the faculty administration was under the pressure of the massification of higher education and world university rankings. It was revealed that the participants had undergone academic, economic, social/cultural and psychological transformative influences of international distance learning programs. The main contribution of this study to the literature is that a theoretical model of distance internationalization has been proposed. The model introduces the rationales, philosophical foundations, global pressure, advantages, challenges and transformative influences in the internationalization of higher education via distance learning. It is expected to provide a route map for policymakers and higher education institutions with an agenda of internationalization via distance learning.

ÖZET

Yükseköğretimin Uzaktan Öğrenme ile Uluslararasılaşması:

Türkiye'de Bir Gömülü Teori Çalışması

Bu nitel çalışma, Türkiye'de bir fakültenin uzaktan öğrenme ile uluslararasılaşmasını incelemiştir. Bu, çoklu veri toplama ve analiz süreçleri ile yapılmıştır. Birincisi, fakültenin işleyişini keşfetmek için gözlemler yapılmıştır. İkincisi, fakülte, üniversite, ulusal ve uluslararası kuruluşlar tarafından hazırlanan yükseköğretimin uluslararasılaşması ile ilgili resmi belgeler, politika belirleyicilerin arasındaki hiyerarşik ilişkinin fakültenin uluslararasılaşmaya olan yaklaşımını açığa çıkarmak için analiz edilmiştir. Üçüncüsü, uluslararası uzaktan öğrenme programlarındaki deneyimlerini keşfetmek için, on fakülte yöneticisi, on öğretim üyesi ve on uluslararası uzaktan öğrenci ile yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmeler gerçekleştirilmiştir. Bulgulara göre, fakültenin işleyişi ile, öğretimin sanayileşmesi adlı teori arasında bir ilişki kurulmuştur. Ayrıca, fakülte yönetiminin uzaktan öğrenme ile uluslararasılaşmaya ilişkin kararlarında, yükseköğrenimin kitleselleşmesi ve dünya çapında üniversite idealinin baskısı altında oldukları keşfedilmiştir. Son olarak, katılımcıların uzaktan öğrenme programları ile akademik, ekonomik, sosyal/kültürel ve psikolojik bir dönüşüme uğradıkları ortaya çıkmıştır. Bu çalışmanın alan yazına temel katkısı, uzaktan uluslararasılaşma adlı teorik modelin ilk defa ortaya konmasıdır. Model, yükseköğretimin uzaktan öğrenme ile uluslararasılaşmasında gerekçeler, felsefi temeller, küresel baskı, kolaylık, zorluk ve dönüştürücü etkileri ortaya koymaktadır. Modelin, uzaktan öğrenme ile uluslararasılaşma gündemi olan politika belirleyiciler ve yükseköğretim kurumlarına bir yol haritası olması beklenmektedir.

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ABBREVIATIONS

AEUU	Association of European Union Universities
ARWU	Academic Ranking of World Universities
BA	Bachelor of Arts
BAU	Bahçeşehir University
BBC	British Broadcasting Corporation
BBS	Bulletin Board System
CARA	Council for At-Risk Academics
C-BERT	Cross-Border Education Research Team
CBT	Computer-based Training
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CHEA	Council for Higher Education Accreditation
CMC	Computer-mediated Conferences
COFHE	Consortium on Financing Higher Education
CQAUE	Centre for Quality Assurance in International Education
CWCU	Centre for World-Class Universities
DAAD	German Academic Exchange Service
EC	European Commission
EHEA	European Higher Education Area
EUROSTAT	European Union Statistical Office
FA	Faculty Administrator
FC Barcelona	Barcelona Football Club
FDR	Franklin D. Roosevelt
FM	Faculty Member who Teach International Distance Students

GATS	General Agreement on Trade in Services
GED	Global Education Digest Report
GPA	Grade Point Averages
G20	Group of Twenty Major Economies
HE	Higher Education
HEI	Higher Education Institution
HU	Harvard University
IAU	International Association of Universities
IBM	International Business Machines
IDS	International Distance Students
IIE	Institute of International Education
INAREK	Institutional Ethical Review Board of Human Subject Research
ISO	International Organization for Standardization
K-12	Kindergarten through Twelfth Grade
MBA	Master of Business Administration
METU	Middle East Technical University
MIT	Massachusetts Institute of Technology
MNE	Turkish Ministry of National Education
NAFSA	National Association of Foreign Student Advisers
NGO	Non-governmental Organization
NUEA	National University Extension Association
OECD	Organization for Economic and Cultural Development
OU	Open University
ÖSYM	Assessment Selection and Placement Centre (<i>Ölçme, Seçme ve Yerleştirme Merkezi</i>)

QS	Quacquarelli-Symonds World University Ranking
R&D	Research and Development
TDU	Turkish-German University
THE	Times Higher Education
THY	Turkish Airlines
TL	Turkish Lira
TRNC	Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus
TUIK	Turkish Statistical Institute (<i>Türkiye İstatistik Kurumu</i>)
UAE	United Arab Emirates
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNHCR	United Nations Refugee Agency
WB	World Bank
WDR	World Disasters Report
WENR	World Education News & Reviews
WTO	World Trade Organization
WW1	World War One
WW2	World War Two
YABSİS	Database for International Academics (Yabancı Akademisyen Bilgi Sistemi)
YAYKUR	Institution of Informal Higher Education (Yaygın Yükseköğretim Kurumu)
YÖK	Council of Higher Education (<i>Yükseköğretim Kurulu</i>)

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

"Internationalization of higher education over the past decades is moving more from a focus on 'abroad' towards a focus on 'at home', placing less stress on physical mobility for a small group". (de Wit, 2016, p. 77)

Imagine a student from China who starts an undergraduate program at a university in Turkey and studies the first two years there. Then s/he continues the third year as an international student at a university in Britain which has exchange agreement with his/her university in Turkey. Later, s/he finishes the undergraduate studies on his/her university's international branch campus in the USA. Thereupon, s/he stays in the USA but applies for an online master's program in a university in China.

The paragraph above is not an excerpt from a fiction book. On the contrary, it is a representation of today's reality about higher education. It reveals that higher education is no more trapped inside the walls of a building today. Rather, it flows across borders.

In this scenario, two phenomena that lead to the cross-border flow of higher education are internationalization of higher education and distance learning.

1.1 Background

Internationalization of higher education dates back to more than 2500 years when the sophists visited each other in the Confucian Schools in China or in the Platonic Academy of Athens (Hudzik, 2015). Today, international students and academics continue to move from a country to another for study. Accordingly, the number of international students worldwide has already reached at over four million (United

Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization [UNESCO] Statistics, 2017). On the other hand, just the number of international academics in the USA has already climbed over 134000 (Institute of International Education [IIE], 2017). Beside the individuals, universities mobilize by founding international branch campuses abroad. The number of international branch campuses has already reached at 311 (C-BERT [Cross-Border Education Research Team], 2017). From a futuristic point of view, this could be regarded just as a start as this 2500-year-old phenomenon is "continuing to evolve" (Hudzik, 2015, p. 20).

In this context, this historical but still evolving global flow of higher education brings to mind the question of what it really is. However, there is no one definition of it which is agreed universally (Knight, 2015). According to a widely cited one, internationalization of higher education "at the national/sector/institutional levels is defined as the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education" (Knight, 2003, p.2). Nevertheless, as the concept evolves, newer definitions are likely to occur (de Wit, Hunter, Howard, & Egron-Polak, 2015; Hudzik, 2015).

Similarly, not every university agrees on a universal way of becoming more international. Yet, they desire it for academic, economic, social/cultural and political rationales (Knight, 2008; 2015). Academically, universities desire to have more international students and academics to get higher scores in the world university rankings as these rankings assess international outlooks of universities. So that, they could join the world class club and prove to be high quality (Ergin, 2015; Quacquarelli-Symonds World University Ranking [QS], 2017; Times Higher Education [THE], 2017; Tilak, 2016; Shields, 2015). Economically, as international students are mostly charged higher tuition fees than local students, these tuition fees

are regarded as a good income generation (General Agreement on Trade in Services [GATS], 2016; Kalkınma Bakanlığı, 2015). Socially/Culturally, international contacts within higher education is considered as a way of introducing national culture and learning about other cultures (Egdon-Polak & Hudson, 2014). And politically, international higher education is desired to educate future's diplomats and bureaucrats in other countries to make investments for soft power in future international relations (Büyükgöze, 2016).

Turkey is among the countries which have the national agenda of internationalization of higher education (Çetinsaya, 2014). Currently, the country hosts 87629 international students and 3144 international academics (Yükseköğretim Kurulu [YÖK], 2017). Beside this, Turkey hosts one international branch campus of a French university and has two international branch campuses in the USA and Germany (C-BERT, 2017).

Next, distance learning dates back to an advertisement in 1728 which was about learning stenography by post in the USA (Battenberg, 1971). Similar to internationalization of higher education, distance learning has no one universal definition. It has been defined in a variety of ways for decades (Dohmen, 1967; Holmberg, 1977; Peters, 1973; Rovai, Ponton, & Baker, 2008). Recent research defines it as "institution-based, formal education where the learning group is separated, and where interactive telecommunications systems are used to connect learners, resources, and instructors" (Simonson, 2009, p. 1).

The basic principle of distance learning is independence of time and geography. That is, thanks to communication technology, teachers and students can teach and learn at a distance in different time and geographic zones. This learning type has been employed in higher education for centuries. Illinois Wesleyan

University started to provide correspondence courses in 1877 and since then the use of distance learning in higher education has continued. Furthermore, universities helped distance learning expand. The launch of the internet by Illinois Wesleyan University in 1993, which has made distance learning quite convenient, is an explicit example of this contribution (Chaloux and Miller, 2014; Simonson, Smaldino, & Zvacek, 2015).

Distance learning in Turkey dates back to the second half of the 1950s when Ankara University offered in-service training for bank workers via postal service (Aydın, 2011). However, the golden age of distance learning in Turkey started with the foundation of Anadolu University Open Education Faculty in 1982 (Anadolu University, 2017). Today, the university still offers distance learning to more than two million students which makes it one of the top universities in the world by enrolment rate (Worldatlas, 2017).

1.2 Statement of the research problem

The brief historical overview of internationalization of higher education above reveals that it has continued throughout thousands of years. However, important to note here is that this perpetual process of internationalization of higher education has mainly been built upon physical mobility. In other words, for 2500 years, international scholars have physically been moving from a country to another for study. Today, international publication on internationalization of higher education focuses mainly on this physical mobility. Even the most recent and regular global reports on internationalization of higher education evaluate the degree of internationalization through the comparative numbers of physically mobile

international academics and students by countries (IIE, 2017; Organization for Economic and Cultural Development [OECD], 2016; UNESCO Statistics, 2017).

It is surely beyond doubt that face-to-face interaction enhances social and cultural exchange between the physically mobile international academics or students and the local academics or students (de Wit, 2016). However, physical mobility-oriented internationalization of higher education could be too elitist to meet the academic, economic, social/cultural and political needs for internationalization. That is, due to its economic, bureaucratic and time-related costs, physical mobility-oriented internationalization enables a minority to take part in international education. Even today's one of the most popular international mobility programs, ERASMUS+, enables only 5% of total university students in Europe (de Wit et al., 2015). This indicates that the physical mobility based internationalization of higher education excludes a vast majority.

With the development of communication technology, distance learning has undergone a notable transformation. While it was offered by radio and post almost a century ago, it is offered by videoconferencing on the internet which enables instructors and learners to actively interact with each other today. (Simonson et al., 2015; Williams, Paprock & Covinton, 1999). In this high technology-assisted learning, instructors and learners can digitally mobilize and meet independent of local time and geography. They can even exceed the borders digitally. That is, instructors and learners from different countries can meet in an online learning environment based upon international curriculum that includes global and intercultural contents (Agnew & Kahn, 2015).

Considering the above-mentioned rationales for it, internationalization of higher education is expected to contribute to individuals, universities and countries in

several ways. In this sense, participation of more international students, academics and universities in international education can enhance meeting these expectancies. However, the burden of physically moving from a country risks internationalization for all. At this point, distance learning can come to the help of internationalization of higher education. As it enables the separation of time and place, it can save international academics and students the economic, bureaucratic and time-related burden of physically moving from a country to another. Rather, it provides them with the chance of staying at home and meet in an online environment assisted with international curriculum (Leask, 2015). So that, unlike the elitist understanding of internationalization of higher education that excludes a vast majority, internationalization for all can be achieved. For this reason, exploring the link between internationalization of higher education and distance learning to come up with a theoretical understanding and practice of internationalization via distance learning is of vital importance.

1.3 Purpose of the study

This study is an attempt to understand how an open education faculty in Turkey internationalizes via distance learning. Hence, the way the institutional decision-making for internationalization via distance learning is processed, how internationalization via distance learning is rationalized by the faculty administrators, faculty members and international distance students, the conveniences, challenges and transformative influences of internationalization via distance learning are in this study's scope of exploration. This exploration is expected to provide an insight into internationalization at home which could be an effective complement of traditional internationalization of higher education.

1.4 Research questions

This study aims to seek for the answers of the questions below:

1. How does a faculty with an agenda of internationalization via distance learning operate?
2. What affects the faculty administration's decision making about internationalization via distance learning?
3. What motivates faculty administrators, faculty members and international distance students to take part in international distance programs?
4. What are the institutional and individual advantages of internationalization via distance learning?
5. What are the institutional and individual challenges of internationalization via distance learning?
6. How does internationalization via distance learning transform a faculty, faculty members and international distance students?

The first question is asked to understand how the open education faculty, the research setting in this study, operates. Several aspects of the faculty including physical appearance, division of labour, mechanization and formalization are expected to be revealed in participant observations there. So that, understanding the operation of the faculty is expected to enhance understanding the mass production of distance teaching there.

The second question is asked to reveal the processes of policy making about internationalization via distance learning. Faculty, university, national and supranational levels of documents have been analyzed to understand how and why the faculty's agenda of internationalization via distance learning is influenced by the university administration, YÖK, OECD and THE.

The other questions are asked to reveal how the institutional policy of internationalization via distance learning has been implemented. What reasons have required this implementation, how this policy has been enhanced and challenged in practice and how it has transformed faculty and individuals are explored from the perspectives of the faculty administrators, faculty members and international distance students in semi-structured interviews.

1.5 Significance of the study

Internationalization of higher education is a broad phenomenon that transforms the functions of research, teaching and services of universities (Knight, 2003, 2004, 2008). However, it is hard to state that it gets the inclusive scholarly attention that it deserves. That is, this historical phenomenon is commonly referred from a physical mobility-oriented perspective. Even the global reports on internationalization of higher education focuses mainly on comparing countries by the number of physically mobile international academics and students they host (OECD, 2016; UNESCO Statistics, 2017). Nevertheless, internationalization of higher education is more than global, descriptive and statistical comparisons about physical mobility. Rather, it is about how universities adopt it to reach their institutional objectives (Hudzik, 2015). Therefore, the institutional strategy for becoming international is not universal. On the contrary, it varies from institution to institution (de Wit et al., 2015). In other words, "people tend to use it in the way that best suits their purpose" (de Wit, 2002, p. 14). In this sense, for a better understanding of internationalization of higher education, revealing institutional strategies and experiences of internationalization with a qualitative research design is of vital importance to explore new forms of internationalization (Hubbard, 2014).

A new stream of internationalization of higher education is internationalization via distance learning. Universities adopt distance learning technology to reach their internationalization objectives more quickly and economically (de Wit et al., 2015; de Wit, 2016; Knight, 2008). Institutional policy making, rationalization, digital mobility, internationalization of curriculum, benefits, challenges and transformative influences are among the components of this new stream that seek scholarly attention. To meet this need, this study explores a faculty's strategy of internationalization via distance learning. So that, this study will be a contribution to the evolution of internationalization of higher education as "internationalization is not dead, or coming to an end, but rather continuing to evolve" (Hudzik, 2015, p. 20). Within this context, for the first time, a theoretical model of distance internationalization will be proposed and the emerging concept of distance internationalization of higher education will be defined. This model is expected to be a route map for the policy makers of higher education who seek for a new strategy of internationalization which could be a complementary of traditional internationalization.

1.6 Organization of the study

This study includes six chapters. Chapter two presents an extensive review of the literature on internationalization of higher education and distance learning in the world and Turkey. Beside this, the link between the two topics is questioned. Chapter three provides the methodological details about the study including the research design, research questions, data collection instruments, research setting, participants, pilot study, data collection procedures, credibility of the data, data analysis, sensitivity assurances, ethical assurances and position of the researcher. Chapter four

presents the evaluation of the observation notes, multi-level analysis of the documents and semi-structured interview findings. Chapter five includes discussion on the findings in the categories of the rationalization of internationalization of higher education via distance learning, advantages and challenges of distance international programs and transformative influences of internationalization of higher education via distance learning. This discussion is followed by a substantive theory of distance internationalization of higher education and an emerging definition. Lastly, chapter six presents conclusion and final remarks including implications, recommendations, limitations, suggestions and reflections.

1.7 Summary of the chapter

This chapter provided introductory information about the background of the study, statement of the research problem, purpose of the study, research questions, significance and organization of the study. The next chapter will present a detailed review of the related literature.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

"Use the literature, don't let it use you". (Becker, 1986, p. 149)

This chapter provides three sections. The first section includes an extensive discussion about internationalization of higher education. In the second section, distance learning is discussed in detail as well. These sections are followed by a third section, in which the link between internationalization of higher education and distance learning is discussed, even though there are no clear-cut theoretical models to reveal this link. The links or intersections of internationalization of higher education and distance learning is not theorized. Yet, upon providing a comprehensive survey of literature on both topics, possible connections between the two are discussed as "it can enhance the ability to identify properties and dimensions of concepts from data" in a grounded theory based research (Corbin and Strauss, 2015; p. 55).

2.1 Internationalization of higher education

This section presents theoretical foundations of internationalization of higher education including the definitions of, history of, rationales for, approaches to, types of and misconceptions about internationalization of higher education. This is followed by the presentation of detailed statistical information about international students, academics and branch campuses in the world and Turkey today. So that, not only the conceptual and theoretical development of internationalization of higher education, but also the current situation of it is examined closer.

2.1.1 Defining internationalization of higher education

It is not easy to come up with a standard definition of the concept of internationalization of higher education which is agreed by all. This is mainly because internationalization is confused with globalization. Nevertheless, recent research (Altbach, 2007; Knight, 2005) has argued that they both are different. In this sense, globalization and internationalization are respectively discussed.

2.1.1.1 Globalization

The concept of globalization has recently been a topic of concern in different disciplines including political science, economics and education. In addition to this, it "has come to be seen as a central theme for both society and higher education" (Altbach, 2007, p. 23). It does not have an academic definition which is agreed by all the researchers. In other words, it is among the concepts whose interpretations "still differ among scientists" (Halangescu, 2015, p. 81). Globalization is commonly regarded as a substitute for similar concepts like capitalism. These substitutions make defining globalization more complicated. Therefore, not only defining what globalization is, but also defining what it is not is difficult. Notwithstanding this, globalization is more than just a substitution and needs a definition (Tierney, 2010). For this reason, various perspectives towards the conceptualization of globalization are explored in this section.

The very beginning of the current millennium is the time period in which globalization was discussed from various perspectives. This could be because of the fact that the communication technology such as the internet began to make the world smaller at that time. In one of these definitions made in this era, it is stated that "globalization is the compression of the world and the intensification of the

consciousness of the world as a whole" (Robertson, 1992, p. 8). In this definition, it is underlined that with globalization, the belief that world is getting smaller and smaller has become more common on the minds of people anywhere in the world. From another perspective, globalization is defined as "... the flow of technology, economy, knowledge, people, values, ideas ... across the borders" (Knight, 1997, p. 6). This implies that globalization occurred with the mobilization of not only concrete beings like individuals, money and technological inventions, but also the abstract ones like ideological perspectives beyond borders. A similar perspective defines globalization as "widening, deepening and speeding up of world-wide interconnectedness in all aspects of contemporary social life, from the cultural to the criminal, the financial to the spiritual" (Held & Mc Grew, 2000, p. 2). This definition takes a broader perspective and refers that cross border mobility of any aspects of human life is within the scope of globalization.

In today's world, media, brands of clothing, food, technological equipments and knowledge, disseminated by these technological equipments, have already crossed the national borders all around the world. A definition of globalization made by an anonymous writer on the internet, reflects the huge effect of globalization on the lives of people around the world:

Globalization is the death of Diana, Princess of Wales, beamed to 10 billion viewers simultaneously, a young Christian lady who was having an affair with an Afro-Arabian Muslim man, who died in the French capital of Paris, crushed in a German made car with a Dutch engine, driven by a Belgian driver who had drunk a few glasses of scotch whisky made in Scotland, hotly pursued by Italian paparazzi riding on Japanese scooters made in Malaysia using underpaid labour from Afghanistan. (Maringe, 2012, p. 19)

The definition above reminds us the fact that the news we receive, the drink we have and a car we use can be the concrete clues for the existence of globalization in our lives. They reveal that even individual lifestyles are globalized. However, it is

noteworthy that globalization influences not only individuals, but also international higher education policies. Accordingly, "in higher education, similar international organizations have been created to oversee key decisions and monitor the quality of university education" (Maringe, 2012, p. 22). In today's world, this duty is performed by several international organizations including the Association of European Union Universities (AEUU), the Council for Higher Education Accreditation (CHEA), the Consortium on Financing Higher Education (COFHE) and the Centre for Quality Assurance in International Education (CQAUE) (Maringe, 2012). Bassett (2012) states that the World Bank (WB), UNESCO and OECD are global policy makers whose policies are influential on the countries worldwide, especially the developing ones as well. Not only the conferences, academic publications and planning of these organizations, but also the data and the statistical findings of these organizations are crucial for higher education stakeholders in the world. Thus she reminds that "the role of these multinational powers should not be overlooked or underestimated" (Bassett, 2012, p. 288) as "there is no indication that their roles will change in the near future" (Bassett, 2012, p. 288).

To conclude, globalization can be regarded as the flow of things, money, thoughts, values and policies across national borders. The next section about internationalization of higher education specifies how this global flow reflects on higher education.

2.1.1.2 Internationalization of higher education

Likewise globalization, "there is not agreement on a precise definition" (de Wit, 2002, p. 114) of internationalization of higher education. The world is in a continuous change and it is important to "re-visit the question of definition and

ensure that the meaning reflects the realities of today and is also able to guide and be relevant to new developments" (Knight, 2008, p. 20). With this, the dynamic structure of the term which is highly related to the surrounding world is underlined. In this sense, the evolution of defining internationalization of higher education is discussed in this section.

An early conceptual approach to the term defines internationalization of higher education as the "process of integrating an international or intercultural dimension into the teaching, research and service functions of the institution" (Knight, 1994, p. 7). Nevertheless, as it is believed that a definition of internationalization of higher education should be up-to-dated, a newer definition for the concept is provided as follows:

Internationalization at the national/sector/institutional levels is defined as the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education. (Knight, 2003, p. 2)

The newer definition is named as the updated working definition and it is stated that the newer and previous ones are complementary to each other for two reasons. First, in the newer definition, the concept is shaped by the levels of nation, sector and institution. Next, rather than the words teaching, research and service; purpose, function and delivery are used. So that, the definition has become more inclusive and it addresses not only universities, but also other higher education providers (Knight, 2004).

Concerning the sections in the updated definition by Knight (2004), it could be noticed that not only the words in the newer definition have changed, but also the perspective towards the concept has changed. Using process, it is noted that internationalization of higher education is not instantaneous, but continuous. That is, it would be difficult to limit the duration of the concept with a starting and an ending

point. Next, the word international, and intercultural and global seem to reflect a wider perspective towards the concept. That is to say, internationalization of higher education is regarded as a worldwide process not only among nations, but also among cultures. Last, the words purpose, function and delivery seem to be purposefully selected as well. While purpose refers to the role or mission of a higher education institution, function means tasks such as teaching or academic studies and delivery implies domestic or international programs or education offered by a provider of higher education or company (Knight, 2004).

Another perspective underlines that for the last several decades, topics including equality of opportunity, links between higher education and labour market and education and economic growth have been on the agenda of many countries. This similarity could be a sign of the international interaction among higher education systems which spreads. With this in mind, internationalization of higher education is defined as:

the totality of substantial changes in the context and inner life of higher education relative to an increasing frequency of border-crossing activities amidst a persistence of national systems. (Teichler, 2004, pp. 22-3)

In his definition, it is stated that international activities cause significant changes in national higher education systems. These international activities could be exemplified as physical mobility of students and academics, academic knowledge transfer and academic cooperation (Teichler, 2004).

As mentioned above, at the very beginning of the 2000s, internationalization of higher education was defined from various perspectives (Fielden, 2008; Goddard, 2006; Knight, 2004; Teichler, 2004; Van Damme, 2001). Nonetheless, these have not been 'the last' trials of defining it. In the second decade of the 2000s, it was argued that the concept should be defined in a more comprehensive way:

Comprehensive internationalization is a commitment, confirmed through action, to infuse international and comparative perspectives throughout the teaching, research, and service missions of higher education. It shapes institutional ethos and values and touches the entire higher education enterprise. It is essential that it is embraced by institutional leadership, governance, faculty, students, and all academic service and support units. It is an institutional imperative, not just a desirable possibility. Comprehensive internationalization not only impacts all of campus life but the institution's external frames of reference, partnerships, and relations. The global reconfiguration of economies, systems of trade, research, and communication, and the impact of global forces on local life, dramatically expand the need for comprehensive internationalization and the motivations and purposes driving it. (Hudzik, 2011, p. 6)

As his definition implies, internationalization of higher education is more comprehensive than it is thought to be. It is stated that there is no one type of internationalization of higher education and it might proceed in very various ways in different higher education institutions. While an institution may give priority to international mobility of students, another may focus on international partnerships. Therefore, it is noted that internationalization of higher education should address to these institutional varieties (Hudzik, 2015).

Lastly, the most recent definition of internationalization of higher education touches upon not only the functions of the concept, but also the target population of it:

the intentional process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions and delivery of post-secondary education, in order to enhance the quality of education and research for all students and staff, and to make a meaningful contribution to society. (de Wit et al, 2015, p. 29).

In this recent definition, it is reminded that internationalization of higher education is commonly regarded as mobility of international students and academics. Nevertheless, it is underlined that the concept is more than this. That is to say, if internationalization of higher education focuses on just mobility of a minority group, then it could serve only to elites who has the chance of participating in an

international mobility program. Nonetheless, internationalization of higher education should be more inclusive. To achieve this, internationalization of curriculum and learning goals should be attached importance for a more quality education. For this purpose, rather than struggles for a short-term mobility, internationalization at home might be an effective alternative (de Wit et al., 2015).

As noted above, for the last three decades, a variety of definitions have been made for internationalization of higher education. These various definitions have focused on different components of the concept including the mobility of students and academics, curriculum, partnerships and branch campuses. This reminds that "internationalization is not dead, or coming to an end, but rather continuing to evolve" (Hudzik, 2015, p. 20). For this reason, as internationalization of higher education evolves, newer definitions will probably be developed.

This section has presented the conceptual history of internationalization of higher education for the last three. However, the history of its practice dates back to more than this. The next section presents the historical background of the practices of internationalization of higher education.

2.1.2 History of internationalization of higher education

In this section, a historical overview of internationalization of higher education is provided. The section is divided into two sub-sections. The evolution of internationalization of higher education until the establishment of the modern university in the twelfth century is discussed as non-institutionalized internationalization of higher education. As modern universities have shaped and changed the way higher education internationalizes, the time period beginning from the early modern university up to now is discussed as institutionalized

internationalization of higher education. Within this context, Europe, which hosted the first modern universities, and the United States of America (USA), which has become the most popular destination for today's international academics and students are focused regarding the historical advancements of internationalization of higher education in both.

2.1.2.1 History of non-institutionalized internationalization of higher education

Internationalization of higher education has recently become apparent on the agenda of the stakeholders of higher education including students, academics, higher education institutions and administrators of these institutions. Nonetheless, the history of internationalization of higher education dates back to centuries ago (de Ridder-Symoens, 1996; Rashdall, 1895; Wei, 2012).

Human beings' need for connecting to each other has had influences on the development of internationalization of higher education. To exemplify, today's modern universities did not exist in the years Before Christ (BC); however, those years witnessed higher learning idea centres. Students and scholars visited those centres including "the Confucian Schools in China (sixth century BC), the Platonic Academy of Athens (fifth century BC) and the Library of Alexandria (fourth century BC)" (Hudzik, 2015, p. 7). These centres functioned like today's international education hubs and attracted international learners from various parts of the world (Hudzik, 2015).

The early meeting places of international scholars and learners were Miletus, Athens, Alexandria, Rome and Baghdad. Miletus is noteworthy as Pythagoras (569-475 BC), who is thought to be the first international scholar, visited Thales there and was taught by Thales and Anaximander. Next, Athens hosted scholars including

Plato (427-347 BC) and Aristotle (384-322 BC). There, the academy and lyceum were opened by these scholars. And, Alexandria became another destination for international scholars as it hosted Library of Alexandria (283 BC). This library is the first state-funded research centre and believed to have been visited by many famous international scholars including Euclid (325-265 BC) and Archimedes (287-212 BC). As Athens was invaded by the Romans in 86 BC, the Romans took many works in Athens to Rome. So that, Rome became another international centre for the study of practical subjects such as law, military and governance. In addition to the pagan, Greek and Roman, the Muslim scholars established learning centres as well. In 750-850 AD, Abbasid caliphs invited international scholars to Baghdad. The Greek and Roman works were translated into Arabic and Baghdad became a significant international learning centre at that time (Gürüz, 2011).

2.1.2.2 History of institutionalized internationalization of higher education

As noted above, up until the establishment of modern universities, teaching and learning, which was equivalent to today's higher education, was provided by sophists, philosophers and polymaths. These learners and scholars used to visit each other and exchange information. However, modern universities changed not only the way higher education is provided, but also shaped the internationalization processes of it. In this sense, mentioning the history of the internationalization processes in Europe, where is home to the first modern universities, and the history of the internationalization processes in the USA, whose modern universities are today's most international higher education institutions, is of importance.

It is indicated that modern university is invented by the Europeans (Altbach, 2014). Nonetheless, the establishment of this modern institutional structure was not

an instant one. That is, the intellectual roots formed in the pre-medieval times led to the evolution of the modern university in Europe. This evolution started with the universities of Bologna and Paris, which were established in the eleventh century, and continued with the spread of others in the continent (Gürüz, 2011; Rashdall, 1895).

What evolved and developed in Europe in the medieval times is not only the modern university, but also internationalization of higher education. That is, the mobility of both students and academics to the first universities started and it later spread across the continent. To exemplify, the number of the international academics was twenty eight in 1378. However, this number increased at sixty three in 1500. Not only academics, but also students started to mobilize among the first European universities. For example, upon the invitation of the English king in 1229, a number of students and academics from Sorbonne University moved to Oxford University (Verger, 1992).

The medieval mobility of the international students and academics in Europe could be regarded as a success story. This is because the ratio of the international students in the number of all the students at European universities in the seventeenth century could reach at 10% (Neave, 2002). Considering the fact that the ratios of international students in many European countries including Germany, Belgium, Netherlands, Spain and Italy are still below 10% even today (UNESCO Statistics, 2017), it would not be wrong to conclude that the medieval stakeholders of higher education could manage to create an environment that was suitable for the mobility of academics and students in Europe at that time.

The intensive intra-European mobility of international academics and students affected the atmosphere of the higher education in Europe in the sixteenth

century in several ways. First, study abroad was thought to be academically vital. Second, North European students moved to Italy for both academic reasons and enjoying the Italian culture. And as a result, this made a significant increase in the number of international students at Italian universities at that time. Once, the ratio of international students there increased at up until 50%. Third, the wish for learning a second language including Greek, Hebrew and European languages became widespread. Fourth, law, medical and natural sciences became popular areas of interest (de Ridder-Symoens, 1996). Last, the Latin language became an international common academic language among academics and students (Huang, 2014).

The popularity of academic pilgrimage results from several reasons. Initially, the number of universities were very limited in Europe at that time. This made academics and students to move to several cities which had universities. Nevertheless, as a monastic travel culture had already existed in the European history, the European academics and students could easily adapted to this mobility. Next, there were institutions which supported the international mobility of academics and students. Churches supported international academics and students directly or indirectly by controlling the rents and food prices. In addition, roads that were built for trade facilitated the travel of international academics and students. Last, authorities provided international academics and students with several privileges such as exemption from taxes (de Ridder-Symoens, 1992).

Despite the existence of the facilitative circumstances of academic mobility in the medieval times and after it, not every academic or students had the chance of travelling from their hometowns to other countries for academic purposes. Before, poor clerics used to travel from a country to another. Nevertheless, beginning from the sixteenth century, most of the international academic travellers were children of

the rich. They sent their children abroad to prepare them for the prospective diplomatic and/or bureaucratic positions (Hammerstein, 1983).

As time passed by, the number of universities in Europe rose; and so did the selectiveness of international students. In other words, as international students had more alternatives for study abroad, they considered several criteria before they chose the university abroad. Accordingly, the tradition of students' family, ideological (religious and political) views, fame of the university, facilities and opportunities for students such as the chance of learning a second language, registration fee and distance were among the determining factors that affected the European international students' choices in that period (de Ridder-Symoens, 1996; Perkin, 2006).

The eighteenth century onwards, the number of international students in Europe increased remarkably. In Table 1, this change in the number and ratio of the international students in France between 1899 -1936 is shown.

Table 1. Number and Ratio of International Students in France between 1899 -1936

Year	Number	Ratio %
1899	1635	5.7
1916	1945	15.4
1924-25	8789	16.5
1927-28	14368	22.3
1935-36	9061	12.2

Source: [Klineberg, 1976, p.76].

Table 1 presents that there is a constant increase in the number and ratio of the international students in France between 1899 - 1928. While the number of international students in France was 1635 in 1899, it increased almost eight times in four decades and reached at 14368. Correspondingly, the ratio of the international students to the total number of students increased from 5,7% to 22,3%. Nonetheless, this number and ratio seem to have decreased between the years 1928-36. Gürüz (2014) notes that this decrease is caused by the Great Depression in 1929. Accordingly, due to the economic crisis in the world at that time, the mobility of the international students decreased significantly.

In addition to France, Germany was an important centre for international higher education in Europe. The quality and organizational structure of German universities had such a global reputation that even the early American universities were inspired by them. For instance, the universities of Johns Hopkins, Chicago and Clark were all influenced by the German style of higher education (Gürüz, 2011). In this sense, it was rather fashionable to study in Germany at that time.

According to Table 2, the number of international students in Germany continuously increased between 1860 and 1931. Nevertheless, it did not take a long time. The Great Depression and World War 2 (WW2) negatively affected the mobility of international students towards Germany. And, as a result, the number decreased to 1927 in 1940. Correspondingly, the same fluctuation can be seen in the ratio of international students to total number of students in Germany at that time. That is, the ratio peaked at 10.7 in 1911-12. Nevertheless, as the WW2 approached, it dropped until 4.3 in 1939-40 (Gürüz, 2011). This change in the number and ratio of international students in Germany at that time reveals that international mobility negatively affected by political and economic crises.

Table 2. Number and Ratio of International Students in Germany between
1860 - 1940

Year	Number	Ratio %
1860-61	753	6.1
1880-81	1129	5.2
1900-01	1751	7.6
1911-12	7088	10.7
1930-31	7422	5.7
1933-34	4853	4.5
1939-40	1927	4.3

Source: [Klineberg, 1976, p.76].

In the early years of the twentieth century, Europe took several steps to institutionalize internationalization of the European higher education. One of these steps is the foundation of the German Academic Exchange Services (DAAD) in 1925. This institution was founded by a German student called Carl Joachim Friedrich, who visited the USA for an academic purpose in 1922-23. Later, he helped thirteen German students go to the USA as international students. An exchange office was founded in Germany thereafter and DAAD started its services. Right now, it still organizes mobility of international academics and students and do academic collaborations among universities in different countries. The Turkish-German University (TDU) was officially founded in Istanbul with the support of the DAAD (DAAD, 2016).

Another international academic organization started in the first half of the twentieth century in Europe was the British Council. It was founded in 1934 in the UK to organize cultural, social and academic relations between the UK and other countries. Today, it still offers services among the UK and more than one hundred countries and accesses more than twenty million people in person and more than five hundred million people online. It helps the British people study abroad and people from other countries to study in the UK (British Council, 2016).

Beginning from the post-World War One (WW1) period, the European countries attempted to institutionalize internationalization of higher education in Europe by founding organizations such as DAAD and the British Council. Nevertheless, these struggles were interfered by the WW2 in the middle of the century. Therefore, the WW2 was a milestone in the development of internationalization of higher education in Europe. Since then onwards, the European countries tried to develop mutual understanding among each other via internationalization of higher education. Implying the European Council, UNESCO, OECD and European Union (EU), Teichler (2010, 2012) states that in this post-WW2 period, supra-national actors were actively worked for this purpose.

The process, in which supra-national actors were actively involved in to strengthen internationalization of higher education in Europe beginning from the post-WW2 period up until now, could chronologically be categorized into four stages. In the first stage, just after the WW2, developing sympathy towards each other in Europe was the main goal. For this, the mobility of students was thought to be an effective way. To facilitate this, the European Council, UNESCO and European Commission intensively cooperated for the recognition of study among the European countries. These struggles produced a result and by the Lisbon Convention

in 1997, the European countries declared that they would recognize study among each other including degrees and other qualifications of prior education. In the second stage, the massification of higher education was adopted as a good way of obtaining more economic income from higher education. Hence, the types and durations of higher education programs were diversified with the cooperation of the OECD. In the third stage, the focus was the Europeanization of higher education in Europe. Therefore, intra-European mobility started by the implementation of the ERASMUS program in 1997. With this program, short term academic mobility among the European countries became more widespread. In the fourth stage, the main aim was converging the higher education policies and implementations in the European countries. The Bologna Declaration in 1999 and the Lisbon Declaration in 2000 were among the steps taken for this purpose. Yet, it was 2010 when the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) was established. With the establishment of this area, the same credential system, diploma supplement and quality assurance have been adopted by the European countries (Teichler 2010, 2012).

The above mentioned historical overview of internationalization of higher education in Europe reveals that internationalization of the European higher education has continuously improved since the foundation of the modern university on the continent. Although the wars and economic crises interfered with this continuous development, national and supranational steps were taken to internationalize higher education both among the European countries and between the European countries and the world.

Today, the USA has become another centre for international higher education although her universities are newer than those of the Europe. It currently hosts about 134014 international academics and more than one million international students

(IIE, 2017). This means one in every four international students in the world prefers an American University for study abroad. Beside this, the USA has opened 84 branch campuses in different parts of the world (C-BERT, 2017). It means one in every four branch campuses in the world has been opened by the USA. How could the US succeed it? The answer of this question lies in the historical overview of internationalization of the American higher education.

As noted before, modern university was invented in Europe (Altbach, 2014). The first universities, Bologna and Paris University, were opened in the 1100s (Szentirmai & Radacs, 2012). This means that the history of the modern university in Europe dates back to one thousand years ago. The evolution and progress of the European universities is tightly related to the American universities' success of internationalization today. That is, up until the American universities evolved in the nineteenth century, the European universities had already developed and become a popular destination for international academics and students from different countries. American academics and students were among these international scholars who travelled to Europe for study. To exemplify, Jarausch (1995) notes that one in every five university students in Göttingen in 1890 was American. This could imply the intensiveness of the American students' mobility towards the German universities at that time. The experiences of the American academics and students inevitably influenced the evolution and future of the early American modern universities.

The interaction between the American academics and students and the German universities led to structural changes in the American higher education system. Up until the end of the nineteenth century, the basic function of the American universities was teaching. Upon these American academics and students returned to the USA from Germany, they integrated research into the functions of

American universities. Thus, the American universities founded at that time including the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) in 1860 and Cornell in 1868, had the mission of both teaching and research that were exported from the German higher education system. The Americans made several structural changes in the German system. The establishment of graduate school, departments as academic units, doctor of philosophy programs (PhD) and administrative and community services are among these innovations (Gürüz, 2011).

As mentioned above, American universities, today's most popular destination for international academics and students (IIE, 2017), have evolved in international atmosphere. This is clearly provided in the description of the American university by Altbach (2004):

The structure of the American university itself, so influential world-wide, constitutes an amalgam on international influences. The original colonial model, imported from England, was combined with the German research university idea of the 19th century, and the American conception of service to society, to produce the modern American university. (p. 4)

This explanation is meaningful as it reminds the German, British and American contributions to the American higher education. However, the internationalization of the American higher education was influenced by global disasters. For example, the WW2 was a significant milestone in the improvement of internationalization of higher education in the USA. One of the developments influencing the future of internationalization of higher education in the USA at that time was the enactment of the Bill of Rights in 1944. With this, Franklin D. Roosevelt, the president at that time, promised the Americans economic, social, professional and educational rights. Within the scope of the right to education, community colleges, which aimed at providing the middle-class with the opportunity of vocational and technical

education, were established. This enabled mass of people to access higher education (Franklin D. Roosevelt Library, 2016; Gürüz, 2011).

As Europe implemented Erasmus Program for international academic mobility among the European countries, the USA introduced the Fulbright Scholarship Program for international academic mobility between the USA and other countries in the world. The program was proposed to the Congress by Senator J. William Fulbright in 1946. Senator Fulbright stated that the program aimed at minimizing the armed conflict in the post-WW2 period. For this purpose, the mobility of the American students, teachers, academics and artists to other countries and the mobility of international students, teachers, academics and artists to the USA was expected. The program still operates today and has offices in 155 countries. It is regarded as one of the largest international academic mobility programs in the world as it has enabled more than 125000 American and 200000 international people to study abroad (Fulbright Association, 2016; Fulbright Turkey, 2016).

It could be concluded that the American higher education has internationalized since the very beginning of its evolution in the nineteenth century. The country implemented internationalization strategies including opening branch campuses, hosting and sending international academics and students and introducing worldwide mobility programs such as Fulbright. Considering the fact that the USA is the most popular destination for international academics and students today (IIE, 2017), it could be inferred that the American struggles for internationalization for two centuries succeeded to attract mobile scholars and learners from other countries.

The historical overviews of the European and American higher education reveal that both have undergone a long lasting internationalization processes. In this sense, exploring the rationales for internationalization of higher education is of vital

importance to reveal the reasons why internationalization of higher education has been desired in different parts of the world for centuries.

2.1.3 Rationales for internationalization of higher education

To date, the rationales for internationalization of higher education have been discussed by several researchers (Gürüz, 2011; Hudzik, 2015; Johnston & Edelstein, 1993; Scott, 1992) in different times. Nevertheless, no list of rationales for internationalization of higher education has attracted more attention in the literature than the one by Knight and de Wit (1999). They categorize the rationales as academic, economic, social/cultural and political. This category has become so fundamental that Gürüz (2011) describes this category as 'classical', while Knight (2008) describes it as 'traditional'.

2.1.3.1 Academic rationale

Internationalization of higher education and the presumption to have higher academic quality fuel each other. Accordingly, universities are always expected to achieve academic standards which are considered to bring them quality. These standards are related to teaching, research and service functions of a university. The more international standards a university achieves, the higher academic quality it is believed to have (Knight 1997, 2004; Qiang, 2003).

Today, a popular way of proving to achieve these international standards is becoming a world class university (Teichler, 2009). A good way of showing to be a world class university is taking place in international university rankings. Nevertheless, being ranked on the top of these lists is very competitive and it requires being international. To exemplify, Times Higher Education (THE) is an independent

journal in the UK which ranks top universities in the world every year. In 2016-17 academic year, it ranked top 980 universities in the world by five indicators including teaching, research, citations, industry income and international outlook (THE, 2017). International outlook refers that having more international students, academics and collaborations means having a better rank on this list. For example, in 2016-17 academic year, the top three universities ranked by THE are the University of Oxford, California Institute of Technology and Stanford University whose ratios of international students are respectively 35%, 27% and 22% (THE, 2017). This means almost one in every three or four students at these universities are international.

It should be noted that not only theorists focusing on internationalization of higher education, but also academics and the administrators of higher education institutions have the belief that internationalization of higher education and academic quality are positively correlated. In the Third International Association of Universities (IAU) Global Report, how internationalization of higher education is perceived and practiced in 745 higher education institutions in 115 countries is examined. The results indicate that a vast majority of the participant higher education institutions state that the basic advantages of internationalization is knowledge and research production via international collaboration (Eggen-Polak & Hudson, 2010). This is confirmed by another study conducted with 406 academics in the Slovenian public universities to reveal academics' views on the link between internationalization of higher education and their personal and professional developments. The results indicate that most participant academics have the idea that internationalization of higher education contributes to not only their universities'

reputation, but also help them to improve their academic skills. They believe that this improvement reflects on their research and teaching quality (Svetlik & Lalic, 2016).

The discussion above reveals that internationalization of higher education is believed to raise the quality of teaching and professional skills of academics. Beside this, internationalization of higher education is desired for economic rationale.

2.1.3.2 Economic rationale

Higher education institutions desire internationalization of higher education not only for obtaining teaching, service and research quality, but also economic income. In other words, universities host international students and academics, open international branch campuses, do academic collaborations and projects with their international counterparts to grow their budget. In this context, the link between a university's economic growth and its internationalization is worth discussing. This relation could be discussed within the scope of short-term and long-term incomes.

First, as universities become international, they can generate income in the short run. This is because universities in most countries charge higher fees for international students than the domestic ones. For example, sixteen countries in the Group of Twenty Major Economies (G20) and OECD charge higher tuition fees for international students than domestic students (Kalkınma Bakanlığı, 2015; OECD, 2014). These fees vary from university to university in these countries. In the US, Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) charges more than forty thousand American dollars (\$) while some others may charge about ten thousand American dollars. In the UK, international students in social sciences are charged ten thousand Great Britain Pound (GBP/£) while the ones in clinical programs are charged almost twice more than this (Kalkınma Bakanlığı, 2015). The sum of the fee charged from

thousands of international students could be a large revenue for these countries. For example, there are 428724 international students in the UK (UNESCO Statistics, 2017) and the total income the country obtains from international students' tuition fees and international research and collaboration reaches at 5.7 billion GBP which equals to the 20% of the total higher education income (Universities UK, 2014).

Turkey is among the countries which charge higher tuition fees for international students than domestic students. The fees for foundation universities are higher than the ones for state universities. Besides, the fees for public universities are determined by the cabinet decision every academic year. These fees vary from programs to program. Table 3 shows the tuition fees for international students at public universities in Turkey for 2014-15 academic year.

Table 3. Tuition Fees for International Students in Turkey by Programs

Program	Minimum Tuition Fee (TL)	Maximum Tuition Fee (TL)
Engineering/Architecture	387	15285
Law	313	11550
Medicine	591	77720
Open Education	71	990
Tourism	284	10265

Source: [Kalkınma Bakanlığı, 2015].

Table 3 shows that tuition fees for international students in Turkey vary from program to program. While international students in open education programs are

charged between 71-990 TL, others in medical programs are charged between 591-77720.

Secondly, internationalization of higher education countries with economic benefits in the long run as well. Not all countries charge higher tuition fees for international students than their domestic students. Moreover, some countries do not charge tuition fees for international students. For example, eight G20 and OECD countries including France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Mexico, South Korea, Spain and Switzerland charge the same amount of tuition fees for international and domestic students. Besides, three G20 and OECD countries including Finland, Iceland and Norway do not charge any tuition fees for international students (Kalkınma Bakanlığı, 2015; OECD, 2014). The question that should be raised here is why these countries do not prefer generating income from tuition fees for international students. The answer of this question is highly related to the long lasting economic benefits of internationalization of higher education. This should be discussed within the scope of the link between the knowledge economy and higher education.

Easier communication among nations has led to social, political, economic, military and academic interaction among countries. What has become global is learning as well. As Kahn and Agnew (2017) note "global learning mirrors the interconnected world in which one lives and learns and demonstrates how ideas, communities, and practices intersect and cross borders" (p. 54). Under this circumstance that requires cross border collaborative leaning and knowledge creation, internationalization of higher education has become an issue of economic competition among countries. A good way to clarify this can be mentioning the effects of the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) provided by the WTO.

GATS is defined as "the first set of multilateral rules covering international trade in services" (WTO, 2016, para. 3). This is an international document that regulates the trade among 140 member countries of the WTO. It covers not only several rules about global trade, but also "member countries' specific commitments to provide access to their markets" (GATS, 2016, para. 2). What is noteworthy here is that education is included among the sectors in the GATS. This means that education is described as 'tradable' in it (GATS, 2016; WTO, 2016). This means higher education is commodified in the global market place.

Globally merchandised higher education can be considered as a transnational economic opportunity by some countries. This is because cross-border higher education is a multi-billion dollar sector and countries attempt to take a share in this market (Knight, 2002; 2008). In this context, internationalization of higher education has an important role. That is, the more international reputation a higher education system has, the more share in the global market it can take. In other words, as international universities are considered as good universities (Ergin, 2015), more internationally known universities can host more international students and academics, open more international branch campuses and do more internationally collaborative academic works. As a result, both universities and national economies can generate income. In this sense, "the underlying vision is to create a university that is dynamic and responsive to socio-economic agendas and that gives priority to innovation, entrepreneurship and competitiveness" (Maassen, 2012, p. 231). Being international fuels a university's innovative, entrepreneur and competitive aspects. This is because internationalization provides a university with international referencing in the global market place which makes it more competitive. As "the more an individual university aspires to the top end of competition, the more

significant global referencing becomes" (Marginson, 2006; p. 27). As a result, more global referencing means more institutional and national income generation.

Consequently, internationalization of higher education provides universities and national economies with economic benefits in the short and long run. Beside this economic rationale, internationalization of higher education is desired for social/cultural reasons.

2.1.3.3 Social/cultural rationale

Higher education is tradable now and it is exported as a commercial good. However, when the interaction between the cultures of exporting and importing countries is considered, it could be noticed that internationalization of higher education is more than a commercial good. This is because "the preparation of graduates who have a strong knowledge and skill base in intercultural relations and communications is considered by many academics as one of the strongest rationales for internationalizing the teaching/learning" (Knight, 1997, p.11). International understanding is attached importance by higher education practitioners in the very as well. In the 4th IAU Global Report, the perceptions of 1336 higher education administrators in 131 countries towards internationalization of higher education are revealed. Findings indicate that 52% of the respondents have the opinion that the top benefit of internationalization is providing students with international awareness (Egron-Polak and Hudson, 2014). This reveals that practitioners of internationalization of higher education attach importance to mutual understanding among nations in the internationalization processes.

Beside developing understanding among nations, the other social/cultural rationale for internationalization of higher education is promoting national culture.

Upon the rise of the nation state, in order to protect national identity, higher education is considered as a useful means (Hudzik, 2015). For example, a European student can study in Turkey as an international student. During the time period s/he is in Turkey, s/he can taste traditional Turkish coffee. When s/he returns to his/her home university, s/he can tell his/her classmates about the Turkish coffee and its role in the Turkish culture in a presentation s/he makes in his/her home university. So that, the Turkish culture could be introduced thank to this academic mobility.

To conclude, internationalization of higher education is expected to provide individuals, institutions and countries with the exchange of social and cultural values. In addition to this, it is considered as a means of political power in international relations.

2.1.3.4 Political rationale

Internationalization of higher education is meaningful for not only individual students or academics who move to another country and experience new culture and higher education system, but also for states who use multiple political tools in their diplomatic relations with other countries. This is because "higher education, is often considered as a form of diplomatic investment for future political and economic relations" (Knight, 1997, p. 9). Accordingly, if a country hosts an international student, that country may benefit from the student in the future when the student returns home and takes a position in business, diplomacy and/or education in his/her home country. For example, a European student can study in Turkey. S/He can help collaborate with Turkey about the European Union and Turkey relations when s/he returns to his/her home country and takes a position in international relations there. This should be discussed with the analysis of the concept of power.

Although it is known that "some people have more power than others is one of the most palpable facts of human existence" (Dahl, 1957, p. 201), it is not easy to describe what power is. This is because:

Power is like the weather. Everyone depends on it and talks about it., but few understand it. Just as farmers and meteorologists try to forecast the weather, political leaders and analysts try to describe and predict changes in power relationships. Power is also like love, easier to experience than to define or measure, but no less real for that (Nye, 2004; p.1).

The concept of power can be defined as "the ability to influence the behaviour of others to get the outcomes one wants" (p. 2). This ability is performed variously. The typology of power that includes this variety is shown in Table 4. Accordingly, the concept of power has three types each of which requires different behaviours, primary currencies and government policies. Military and economic power is considered as hard power. In the use of hard power, inducements and threats are widely employed. This is known as carrot-stick relation. That is, a person is either awarded or threatened by a user of hard power. So that, a change in the behaviour of the person is aimed. As individuals use hard power to change behaviours of other individuals, governments use it to change policies of other governments.

Governments who use military power put coercion, threat and war on their diplomatic agendas. The atomic bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki in Japan by the USA during the WW2 exemplifies the use of military hard power (CNN Politics, 2016). Beside this, hard power can be employed economically. Governments who employ economic hard power prefer inducement, aid or sanction. For instance, the USA administers some economic sanctions for several countries including Iran, Iraq, Libya and North Korea In the scope of these sanction programs, the USA blocks assets of these countries and restricts trade between them (USA Department of the Treasury, 2016).

Table 4. Three Types of Power

Type	Behaviours	Primary Currencies	Government policies
Military	coercion deterrence protection	threats force	coercive diplomacy war alliance
Economic	inducement coercion	payments sanctions	aid bribes sanctions
Soft	attraction agenda setting	values culture policies institutions	public diplomacy bilateral and multilateral diplomacy

Source: [Nye, 2004, p.31].

The concept of soft power is "getting others to want the outcomes that you want - co-opts people rather than coerces them" (Nye, 2004, p. 5). The aims of hard and soft power are the same. Both aim to make a change in the behaviour of an individual or policy of a government. Nevertheless, hard and soft power requires different behaviours, primary currencies and government policies. In the use of soft power, rather than attraction and values are employed. While countries who use hard power prefer sanctions and/or war, others who use soft power prefer diplomacy in international relations. In this diplomacy, countries benefit from their institutions in different sectors and social/cultural values. For example, several Turkish TV series are translated into Arabic and broadcast on TV in the Middle East. So that, the

Turkish culture and actors/actresses are introduced to the Middle Eastern people on TV (Çavuş, 2012).

Different sectors can collaborate in the use of soft power. A good example for this can be the collaboration between the Spanish football team Barcelona Football Club (FC Barcelona) and the Turkish Airlines (THY). In this international collaboration, THY sponsored the flights of the FC Barcelona (Yağmurlu, 2007). So that, not only THY was promoted, but also the name of the country was promoted wherever the football team travelled.

One of the sectors, which has widely been used as a means for soft power, is higher education. As higher education is imported and exported as a tradable good (GATS, 2016; WTO, 2016), higher education relations among countries enable them to develop strategic alliances (Knight, 2008). In this sense, internationalization of higher education can fuel these strategic alliances. The conceptualization of this relation is shown in Table 5.

According to Table 5, exercises of hard and soft power in higher education have different components and scopes of influences. In the use of hard power in higher education, traditional instruments of hard power including force and sanctions are exercised and "universities can offer little resistance to government policies" (Lo, 2011, p. 215).

When higher education is associated with soft power, the aim of making universities attractive comes into prominence and, as a result, those universities can be global power. As the reputation of universities is significant in this process, the more universities internationalize, the more they become globally attractive. So that, they can host more international students and academics and build networks around the world.

Table 5. Power in Higher Education

	Hard Power	Soft Power
Spectrum of Behaviors	<div> <div>coercion</div> <div>inducement</div> </div> <div>←-----→</div> <div>Command</div>	<div>agenda setting</div> <div>attraction</div> <div>Co-opt</div>
Most Likely Resources	<div>force</div> <div>payments</div> <div>sanctions</div> <div>bribes</div>	<div>institutions</div> <div>values</div> <div>cultures</div> <div>policies</div>
Translation in Higher Education	<div>role differentiation</div> <div>funding</div>	<div>global</div> <div>world class</div> <div>university</div> <div>image</div> <div>rankings</div>
Scope of Influences	National	Global

Source: [Lo, 2011, p. 214].

Considering higher education as a means of soft power in international relations is not new. The worldwide famous Fulbright scholarship program of the USA was introduced just after the WW2. The aim of the program was developing mutual understanding between the USA and the rest of the world. Up to now, almost half a million international students, academics, researchers and teachers participated in this program (Fulbright Association, 2016; Fulbright Turkey, 2016). Research (Demir, Aksu & Paykoç, 2000) indicates that Fulbright scholars can work in policy

making positions when they return to their hometowns. As a recent example from Turkey, Ali Babacan, the former Deputy Prime Minister of Turkey, can be provided (US Embassy in Turkey, 2016). Accordingly, Babacan worked as the Minister of Foreign Affairs and Minister of European Union Affairs and Chief Negotiator in Turkey as well. So that, as a former Fulbright scholar, he worked in authorized positions for the Turkish diplomacy (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2016).

Hosting international students for future diplomatic investment is exercised by Turkey as well. Today, Turkey hosts nearly three million Syrian guests who escaped from the conflict in Syria (UNHCR, 2017), she develops and practices several policies to enable the Syrians to study or work in universities in Turkey (Ergin, 2016). So that, Turkey will not only benefit from the brain power of the Syrians in Turkey, but also will be able to facilitate her future diplomatic relations with Syria. This is because when the Syrian conflict comes to an end, the Syrians, who study and/or work in the Turkish universities now, may return to Syria and work in policy making or diplomatic positions there. As they learn about the Turkish values, institutions and hospitality in Turkey, the future mutual understanding between them and the Turkish authorities might be easier. In addition, higher education can contribute to international economic relations among countries. According to Kırmızıdağ, Gür, Kurt and Boz (2012), an Arabic prince can study at the Middle East Technical University (METU) in Turkey. When he completes his study in Turkey and returns home, he can ease the business of the Turkish companies in Saudi Arabia.

As a result, higher education can be an effective means of easing international diplomatic and economic relations among countries. International students and academics can be considered as future diplomats. Hosting them well can enable them

to develop sympathy towards the host country. In this sense, hosting more international students and academics means more future diplomats. Therefore, internationalization of higher education is of vital importance as more international universities can attract more international students and academics. For this reason, approaches to this policy should be explored.

2.1.4 Approaches to internationalization of higher education

Approaches to internationalization of higher education "refer to the stances adopted by persons in leadership positions towards the promotion and implementation of programs aimed at internationalization" (p. 250). Accordingly, "approach is different from a definition" (Knight, 2008, p. 31). However, the way people interpret and implement internationalization of higher education may vary from one to another. In other words, "there is no right approach" to internationalization of higher education (Knight, 2008, p.31). Yet, approaches could be categorized into national or sector and institutional level approaches (Knight, 2008).

2.1.4.1 National or sector level approaches

There are five national or sector level approaches to internationalization of higher education including programs, rationales, ad hoc, policy and strategic. There are no hierarchical relations among them (Knight, 2008).

First national or sector level approach to internationalization of higher education is programs. Accordingly, stakeholders of higher education can understand that internationalization of higher education should include programs including the mobility of academics and students from a country to another, international projects and any collaborations with international partners (Knight, 2008).

Second national or sector level approach to internationalization of higher education is rationales. This refers why internationalization of higher education at national or sector level is necessary. These necessities vary from income generation to mutual understanding (Knight, 2008).

Third national or sector level approach to internationalization of higher education is ad hoc. Accordingly, different institutions or departments in a country attempt to be a part of internationalization processes in line with their missions. In other words, these institutions or departments make independent attempts to participate in specific collaborations with partners abroad (Knight, 2008).

Fourth national or sector level approach to internationalization of higher education is policy which is a more theoretical one. That is, in policy documents, the importance of internationalization of higher education and its possible contributions to different sectors is emphasized (Knight, 2008).

Fifth national or sector level approach to internationalization of higher education is strategic in which the priorities and national interests of a country are central. Internationalization of higher education is considered as a means of achieving strategic goals that provide the country with various benefits. Therefore, the planning and implementation of internationalization of higher education processes are under the influence of these national priorities (Knight, 2008).

Consequently, there is no one way of approaching to internationalization of higher education at the national or sector level. Countries and sectors understand and practice it according to their own circumstances and priorities. While a country focuses on mobility, another focuses on international research collaborations. Beside the national or sector level, internationalization of higher education can be approached at the institutional level.

2.1.4.2 Institutional level approaches

Just as there is no one way of approaching to internationalization of higher education for nations, there is no one way of planning and implementing it at the institutional level. Institutions may approach to internationalization of higher education in six ways including activity, outcomes, rationales, process, ethos and abroad/cross border (Knight, 2008).

First institutional approach to internationalization of higher education is activity. For higher education institutions, which adopt activity approach, the core of institutional internationalization is the mobility of students and academics. They also open branch campuses and develop international networks with other universities abroad (Knight, 2008).

Second institutional approach to internationalization of higher education is outcomes. This refers that international outlook of a higher education institution is of vital importance. In this sense, increasing the number of international agreements and advertising it is a common practice (Knight, 2008).

Third institutional approach to internationalization of higher education is rationales. It means that reasons or rationales for institutional internationalization of higher education are significant. Therefore, planning and implementation of internationalization of higher education is made considering the institutional perspective towards why becoming international is an institutional requirement. For example, if the specific rationale for internationalization is income generating for a higher education institution, it aims to enrol more international students to charge tuition fees (Knight, 2008).

Fourth institutional approach to internationalization of higher education is process. In this approach, the emphasis is not on the beginning or end of

internationalization but on the process itself. That is, internationalization is considered as a comprehensive procedure and it should address to research, service and teaching/learning functions of a higher education institution (Knight, 2008).

Fifth institutional approach to internationalization of higher education is ethos. Accordingly, the main goal is to make a campus intercultural. In other words, it is believed that the campus environment should enhance understanding of international culture (Knight, 2008).

Sixth institutional approach to internationalization of higher education is abroad/cross border. In this approach, the aim is to reach people abroad. It can be achieved by means of traditional mobility programs, distance learning and opening branch campuses abroad (Knight, 2008).

In conclusion, understanding internationalization of higher education varies among countries, sectors and higher education institutions. This influences the way they implement their policy of internationalization of higher education. This leads to a variety of types of it.

2.1.5 Types of internationalization of higher education

As noted before, the way internationalization of higher education is defined and theoretically conceptualized differ among researchers. In a similar manner, how internationalization of higher education is rationalized and approached varies from a country to another country, a sector to another sector and a higher education institution to higher education institution. This variety reflects on the types of it and internationalization of higher education appears in four different forms and contexts including traditional, European, developing country and individual (Altbach & Knight, 2007).

2.1.5.1 Traditional internationalization

First type of internationalization of higher education is traditional. Accordingly, the main aim is not to generate income but to make the campus climate more international and intercultural by hosting international students and academics and making the curriculum more intercultural (Altbach & Knight, 2007).

2.1.5.2 European internationalization

Second type of internationalization of higher education is European. It refers to the start of the ERASMUS program in 1997 and establishment of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) (Teichler 2010, 2012). According to the European Commission (2016), the ERASMUS+, today's popular mobility program, has the budget of fifteen billion euro for the years 2014-2020. It reveals that the European countries have been attaching importance to the intra-European mobility of academics and students for decades (Altbach & Knight, 2007).

2.1.5.3 Developing country internationalization

Third type of internationalization of higher education is developing country internationalization which refers to policy making about internationalization of higher education in developing countries. Accordingly, recent numbers indicate that one in four international students study in developing countries (UNESCO Statistics, 2017). In this sense, hosting international students is of vital importance for developing countries as they not only generate income from their tuition fees, but also invest on their future diplomatic relations. So that, they benefit from internationalization of higher education both economically and politically (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Knight, 2008).

2.1.5.4 Individual internationalization

Fourth type of internationalization of higher education is individual internationalization. The majority of international students in the world are self-funded. In other words, most international students' educational or related expenses including accommodation, travel and living are sponsored by themselves or their families. In this sense, individual decision making processes of international students and their families is a factor that influences the worldwide flow of international students. Budget, culture, educational backgrounds, family priorities and expectations of international students and families can influence destinations in international students' academic movements (Altbach & Knight, 2007).

The variety of its types refer that internationalization of higher education is understood and implemented differently by individuals, higher education institutions, higher education administrators and policy makers. This variety leads to richness of practices. Nevertheless, it might lead to misconceptions as well.

2.1.6 Misconceptions about internationalization of higher education

The discussion about reveals that internationalization of higher education has been defined, rationalized, approached and practised in a variety of ways. Accordingly, governments, higher education administrators, policy makers and higher education institutions consider their priorities when they make plan about internationalization and implement these plans. Understanding internationalization of higher education in a variety of ways inevitably leads to a variety of practices of internationalization of higher education. De Wit (2011) draws attention to the misconceptions of internationalization of higher education caused by this variety. He notes that there are nine common mistakes of practising internationalization of higher education.

2.1.6.1 Internationalisation is education in the English Language

First misconception about internationalization of higher education is the idea that internationalization is education in the English Language. It would not be wrong to accept that the English language is a global medium of communication.

Nevertheless, it is very common to see that several universities in non-English speaking countries may offer teaching in English and argue that they are international just because they teach in English. However, teaching in English is not enough to make a classroom international alone. Rather, the quality of the input and communication in a class is of makes a difference (de Wit, 2011).

2.1.6.2 Internationalisation is studying or staying abroad

Second misconception about internationalization of higher education is the idea that internationalisation is studying or staying abroad. Academic mobility from a country to another is popular among university students and academics today. However, study in another country may not be enough to make a student or academic international. This is because internationalization of higher education refers to intercultural climate, mutual understanding and empathy among people from different countries beside increasing the academic quality of mobile students, academics, higher education institutions and countries. Nevertheless, physically being abroad does not always guarantee achieving all of these. That is, the achievement of these goals depends highly upon how the time abroad is spent by mobile academics and students. In other words, the way an international student or academic interacts with his/her environment and the people around him/her and the organizational culture of the university s/he visits are influential on how s/he internationalizes abroad (de Wit, 2011).

2.1.6.3 Internationalisation equals to an international subject

Third misconception about internationalization of higher education is the idea that internationalisation equals to an international subject. In some cases, rather than international topics, local ones are included in the curriculum. Rather than this, global topics that includes multicultural perspectives should be included in the curriculum (de Wit, 2011).

2.1.6.4 Internationalisation implies having many international students

Fourth misconception about internationalization of higher education is the idea that internationalisation implies having many international students. Today, many universities attempt to increase the number of their international students to prove that they are international. With this, they aim to have international reputation, attract more international students and imply that they offer quality teaching. Nevertheless, in some classes there are international students from the same country. They can spend too much time together when they are abroad. The interaction between them and the local students might not be satisfactory for intercultural exchange. In addition, but out of class time is important for internationalization as well. Participation to social activities on campus can enhance internationalization (de Wit, 2011).

2.1.6.5. Having a few international students in the classroom makes internationalisation into a success

Fifth misconception about internationalization of higher education is the idea that having a few international students in the classroom makes internationalisation into a success. Administrators of higher education institutions may consider that enrolling

only a few students in an academic program makes that program international.

However, the interaction between these few international students and local students is significant. If these international students are not provided with international curriculum and an English speaking environment in classes, they might be isolated (de Wit, 2011).

2.1.6.6 There is no need to test intercultural and international competencies specifically

Sixth misconception about internationalization of higher education is the idea that there is no need to test intercultural and international competencies specifically. When an international academic or student stays abroad, s/he is commonly believed to acquire international or intercultural skills. However, staying abroad does not guarantee earning multicultural skills and understanding. A person can stay abroad and isolate himself/herself from his/her environment. Therefore, not all international academics and students should be assumed to be equally international (de Wit, 2011).

2.1.6.7 More partnerships, more international

Seventh misconception about internationalization of higher education is the idea that having more international partnerships means becoming more international. In addition to increasing the numbers of their international students, universities aim to increase their international partnerships. They contact other universities abroad and sign mutual partnerships for academic collaborations including students and staff mobility, projects and publications. They promote the number of partnerships they sign to imply that they are international. Nevertheless, some of these partnerships

exist on paper only and may not be put into practice. Therefore, rather than the number of international partnerships, the processes and outcomes of these partnerships make a difference (de Wit, 2011).

2.1.6.8 Higher education is international by nature

Eighth misconception about internationalization of higher education is the idea that higher education is international by nature. Accordingly, some university administrators may not make any plans for making their institutions more international. They believe that universities are international and do not need any internationalization processes. Nevertheless, it should be reminded that universities are institutions that are exposed to the influences of nation states. For this reason, they need to be in an interaction with other cultures and countries to become more multicultural (de Wit, 2011).

2.1.6.9 Internationalisation is a goal in itself

Ninth misconception about internationalization of higher education is the idea that internationalisation is a goal in itself. It refers to the fact that some stakeholders of higher education have the belief that internationalization of higher education should be a goal for academics and students, universities and higher education systems. However, it should be reminded that internationalization of higher education is a process. In this process, the target is to make worldviews of individuals including academics, students and other staff members and functions of institutions including teaching, research and services more multicultural, multinational and global. For this reason, internationalization of higher education is not a target itself and it does not have a finish line (de Wit, 2011).

The detailed theoretical discussion above reveals that internationalization of higher education is conceptualized, rationalized, approached and practised differently by stakeholders of higher education including students, academics, university administrators, policy makers and researchers. Notwithstanding this, the unchanging agenda has been the mobility of students and academics and foundation of international branch campuses. Therefore, statistical information about international students, academics and branch campuses may reveal the present situation of internationalization of higher education in various parts of the world.

2.1.7 Internationalization of higher education in the world

In this section, the present situation of internationalization of higher education in the world is presented. For this, detailed statistical information about international mobility of students, academics and international branch campuses are respectively presented.

2.1.7.1 International mobility of students

For centuries, students have been wandering from a country to another to search for knowledge (Hudzik, 2015; de Ridder-Symoens, 1996; Rashdall, 1895; Wei, 2012). This academic tradition started with Pythagoras. Accordingly, he visited Thales in Miletus in the fifth century and "received advice from him" (Gürüz, 2011, p. 149). Since then, international mobility has continued. Today, the number of international scholars has climbed over more than four million (UNESCO Statistics, 2017) and it is expected to reach at more than seven million by the year 2025 (Bohm, Davis, Meares & Pearce, 2002). For a better understanding of this ancient mobility, a

definition international student, an overview of global student mobility and international students in Asia, Europe and North America are provided.

As supranational organization that regularly releases reports on global higher education, the UNESCO defines international students as ones who "leave their country or territory of origin and move to another country or territory with the objective of studying" (Global Education Digest Report, 2009, p. 36). However, the UNESCO does not seem to find this definition adequate and adds further requirements to be counted as an international student in the same report. Accordingly, a mobile student cannot be a permanent resident or citizen of the host country. In addition, the mobile student needs to have a prior educational qualification not from the host country but from another country (World Education News Reviews, 2016).

Currently, there are 4,332,699 mobile students in the world. In accordance with the previously given definition of international studentship, these millions of mobile students have left their home countries and enrolled in an academic program in a university in other countries where they are not permanent residents or citizens. The change in the total number of international students in the last fifteen years is shown in Figure 1.

As shown in Figure 1, there is a continuous increase in the total number of international students in the world. While there were 2.01 millions of international students in 1999, this number reached at 4.33 millions in 2014. The significant increase in the number of international students throughout the world can be attributed to the easier access to universities abroad via the internet, promotion by universities to attract more international students and awarding international universities in world university rankings.

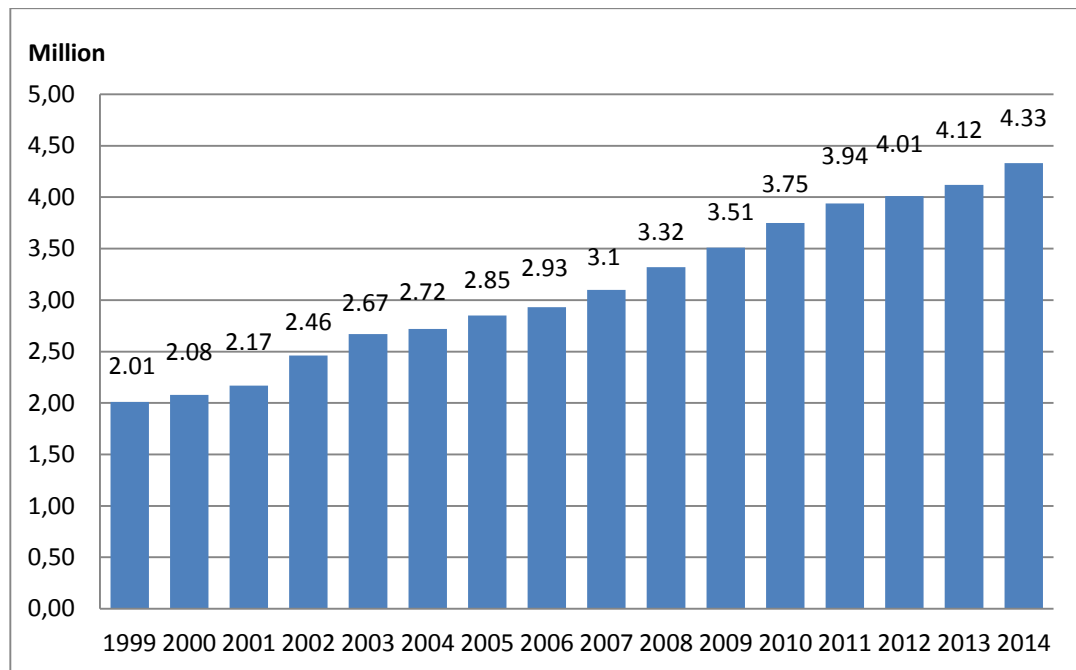


Figure 1 Change in the total number of international students in the world
Source: [UNESCO Statistics, 2017].

Upon providing the global change in the total number of international students in Figure 1, the distribution of this mass of students in the world is worth discussing to understand which regions attracts them. In Figure 2, a distribution of international students in the world by the development levels of host countries is provided.

Figure 2 shows that there is an uneven worldwide distribution of international students by the development of host countries. Accordingly, 1002018 international students study in developing countries. It means that one in every four international students studies in a developing country. On the other hand, 3330680 international students study in developed countries. It means that three in every four international students have preferred universities in developed countries. The interest for universities in developed countries might be because they have more funding for promotion and they offer more scholarships for international students which may make them more attractive.

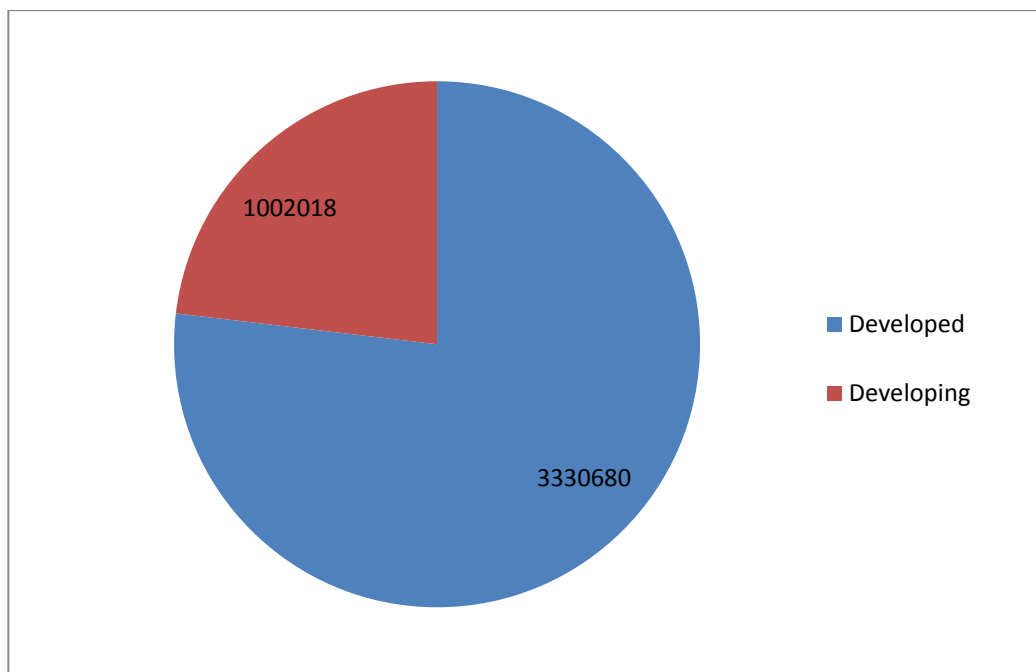


Figure 2 International students in developed and developing countries
Source: [UNESCO Statistics, 2017].

Another distribution of international students in the world can be made by the continents. This distribution is provided in Figure 3.

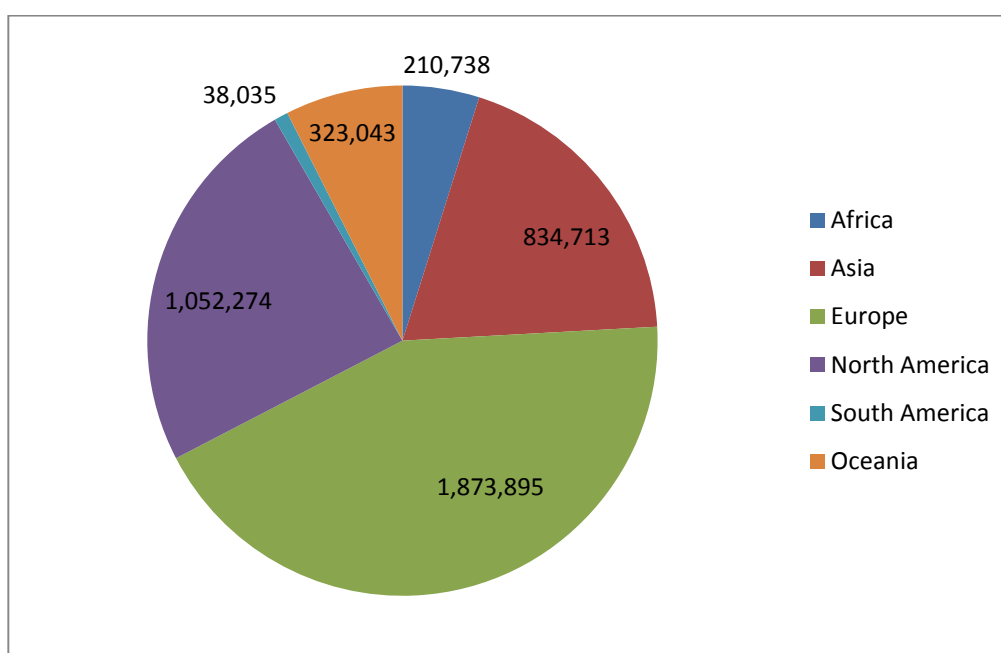


Figure 3 International students by continents
Source: [UNESCO Statistics, 2017].

Figure 3 shows that half of the international students in the world is in Europe and North America while rather less is in Africa. Besides, Asia, Europe and North America are the continents where the density of international students highest.

Specifically, Asia hosts 834713 international students. Table 6 shows the international students in several Asian countries.

Table 6. Number and Ratio of International Students in Several Asian Countries

Country	Number	Ratio%
China	123127	0.28
India	38992	0.13
Indonesia	7235	0.17
Iran	13767	0.29
Japan	132686	3.44
Russia	213347	3.05
Singapore	48938	19.17
South Korea	55536	1.67

Source: UNESCO Statistics (2017).

Table 6 shows that half of the international students in Asia study in Russia, Japan or China which respectively hosts the highest number of international students on the continent. However, when the ratio of international students to the total number of students in higher education is considered, it appears that the highest ratio is Singapore's with 19.17%, followed by Japan with 3.44% and Russia with 3.05%. Among the countries in Table 6, the lowest number of international students is in Indonesia with 7235 and the lowest ratio of international students to the total number of students in higher education is in India with 0.13%.

In addition to Asia, Europe is worth mentioning as it is the continent on which the first examples of modern universities, and as a result, the first international students appeared (Altbach, 2014; Rashdall, 1895). Currently, the continent hosts the highest number of international students. The distribution of these students in several European countries is provided in Table 7.

Table 7. Number and Ratio of International Students in European Countries

Country	Number	Ratio %	Country	Number	Ratio %
Austria	67691	15.90	Latvia	4477	5
Belgium	55516	11.20	Lithuania	3915	2.46
Bulgaria	11844	4.25	Luxemburg	2976	41
Croatia	639	0.38	Malta	821	6.2
Czech Republic	41149	9.8	Netherlands	70692	7.25
Denmark	29941	9.93	Norway	9522	3.55
Estonia	2859	5.18	Poland	27770	1.46
Finland	23142	7.7	Portugal	14883	4.11
France	235123	9.8	Romania	23073	4.26
Germany	228756	7.7	Slovakia	11107	5.61
Greece	27600	4.2	Slovenia	2489	2.75
Hungary	21707	7.1	Spain	56361	2.87
Italy	87544	4.73	UK	428724	18.22

Source: [UNESCO Statistics, 2017].

Table 7 shows that the number and ratio of international students in Europe varies from country to country. The highest number of international students are respectively in the UK, France and Germany which host almost one million of international students. It means that half of the international students in Europe is in these countries. Croatia, Malta and Slovenia host the lowest number of international students among the European countries in the table. When the ratio of international students to the total number of students is considered, it appears that almost one in two university students in Luxembourg is international. In addition, the UK, Austria and Belgium are among the European countries whose ratios of international students to the total number of students are over 10%.

Last, North America is of vital importance in today's internationalization of higher education. Currently, the continent hosts more than one million international students (IIE, 2017). The distribution of these students by several North American countries is shown in Table 8.

Table 8. Number and Ratio of International Students in Several North American Countries

Country	Number	Ratio%
Canada	151244	10
Mexico	8020	0.24
USA	1043839	5.2

Source: [Institute of International Education, 2017; OECD, 2016; UNESCO Statistics, 2017].

Table 8 shows that a vast majority of international students in North America is in the USA. The number of international students there has climbed over one million. It means that 5.2% of the students in the USA is international. The number of

international students in Canada is 151244 which means one in every ten students there is international. Last, 8020 international students study in Mexico which equals to 0.24% of the total number of students in the Mexican universities.

In the discussion of internationalization of higher education in the North American countries, the USA should be attached special importance. Compared to the European universities, the American universities are newer. While the first universities were opened in the eleventh century in Europe, it was the nineteenth century when the American universities were opened (Altbach, 2004; Jarausch, 1995; Rashdall, 1895).

Despite being rather newer, American universities have attracted more international students than those of other countries (OECD, 2016). Accordingly, the country succeeded in hosting more than one million international students. The recent change in this number is shown in Figure 4.

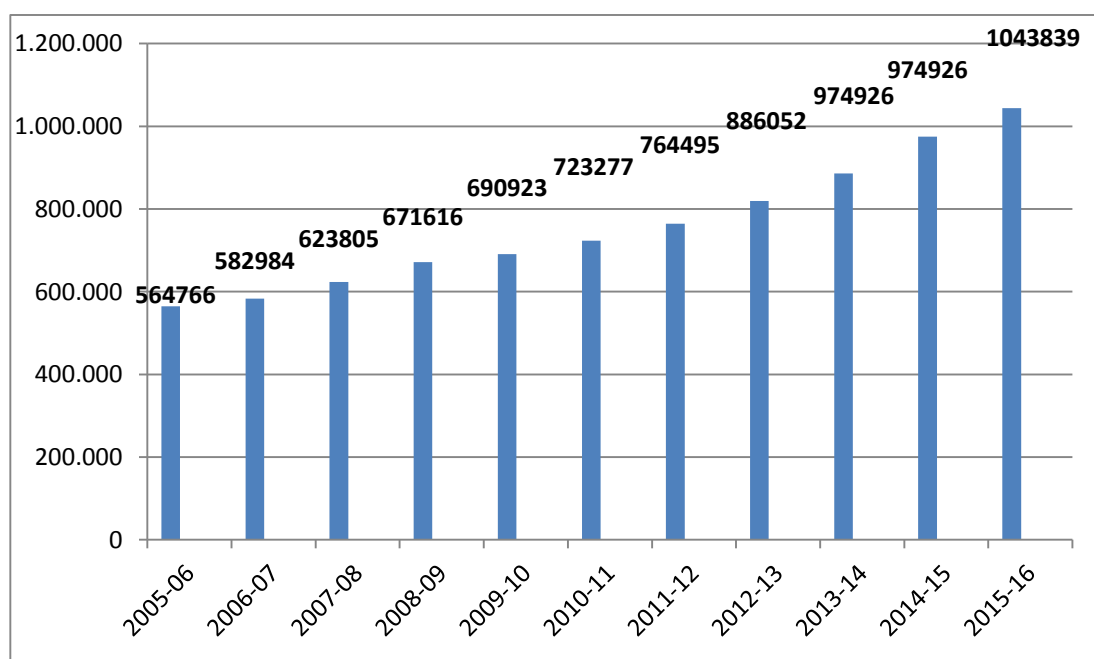


Figure 4 Recent change in the number of international students in the USA

Source: [Institute of International Education, 2017].

Figure 4 shows that the number of international students in the USA between 2005 and 2016 increased significantly. While the number was 564766 in 2005, it reached at 1043839 in 2016. It means that there was a two-fold increase in the number of international students in the American higher education in the last decade. As the total number of students in the American universities is 20.2 millions, it can be stated that one in every twenty students in the American universities is international (USA Department of Education, 2017).

Next, the continuously increasing number of international students in the USA come from different countries of origin. In Table 9, the number of international students in the USA from the top fifteen places of origins and the ratio of these origins to the total number of international students in the USA is provided.

Table 9 shows that half of the international students in the USA comes from China or India. While three in every ten international students in the USA are from China, almost two in every ten international students are from India. The top fifteen countries sending students to the USA are from various parts of the world. Sending 10691 citizens of her to study in the American universities, Turkey is among this top fifteen countries.

The fact that the American universities can attract many international students from a variety of countries can be attributed to several reasons. However, a major reason could be the world university rankings. In these rankings, the American universities appear in the top (THE, 2017). This provides the American universities with an opportunity of promoting themselves worldwide. It can make the prospective international students and families consider that the American universities are better to study than any others. This can lead to a significant increases in the number of international students in the USA.

Table 9. Top Fifteen Places of Origins of International Students in the USA

Rank	Origin	Number	Ratio% to the total international students in the USA
1	China	328547	31.5
2	India	165918	15.9
3	Saudi Arabia	61287	5.9
4	South Korea	61007	5.8
5	Canada	26973	2.6
6	Vietnam	21403	2.1
7	Taiwan	21127	2
8	Brazil	19370	1.9
9	Japan	19060	1.8
10	Mexico	16733	1.6
11	Iran	12269	1.2
12	UK	11599	1.1
13	Turkey	10691	1
14	Nigeria	10674	1
15	Germany	10145	1

Source: [IIE, 2017].

The detailed discussion on international students in the world reveals that the number of them has been in a continuous increase. However, not only students, but also academics move from a country to another for academic purposes today.

Accordingly, they visit higher education institutions abroad to collaborate with their colleagues, conduct research and teach there. In this sense, for a better understanding of today's mobile academics, it is worth being an international academic and analyzing available statistical information about them in different parts of the world including Asia, Europe and North America.

2.1.7.2 International mobility of academics

The history of wandering academics dates back to the fifth BC. At that time, mobile academics were called sophists who were wandering around the world and teaching rich people's children (Welch, 1997). Since then, academics have continued to travel from a country to another to learn from other international academics, teach students and do academic research there. When the early modern universities were opened in Europe in the twelfth century, academics from different countries moved to university cities (de Ridder-Symoens, 1992; Wei, 2012). In the era of the early American universities, academics at the European universities started teaching and research in the American universities (Gürüz, 2011). Beginning from the WW2, international academic programs such as Fulbright and ERASMUS+ have been implemented to strengthen the mutual understanding among countries (European Commission, 2016; Fulbright Association, 2016).

The international mobility of academics is as old as that of international students. However, defining who an international academic is and providing statistical information about international academics is not as easy as defining who an international student is and providing statistical information about international students around the world. One reason for this can be the fact that it is easier to find official documents about international students. That is, international students are officially enrolled in academic programs, registered for dorms on campuses and awarded with diplomas or degrees at the end of their studies abroad. All these written and official documents can make statistical calculations easier. Nevertheless, finding official documents about international academics might be more difficult as durations of their visits and legal definitions about being an international academic varies from country to another (Teichler, 2011).

Accordingly, a mobile researcher is defined as “someone who works as a researcher in a country where s/he is not a citizen or permanently resides” (European Commission, 2008, p. 18). In this definition, rather than an international academic, mobile researcher is preferred. Besides, it is implied that a mobile researcher should not be a citizen or permanent resident of the country where s/he visits for academic purpose.

Determining the criteria for becoming an international academic can be discussed in several ways. First, mobile, international, foreign are used interchangeably just as researcher and academic are used interchangeably. Next, minimum duration of an international academic's visit to another country is controversial. Whether a short term visitor of an international conference should be counted as an international academic is open to discussion. Last, it is not easy to reach statistical information about international academics. Some countries count doctoral candidates as international academics while some others do not. Similarly, some countries count short term academic visitors as international academics while some others do not (Teichler, 2011).

Although it is difficult to access reliable statistical data about international academics, exploring the present situation of them is noteworthy to have an understanding about their distribution on the world. For this, international academics in Asia, Europe and North America could be mentioned.

Similarly, there are no reliable data that show the number, academic and demographic characteristics of international academics in Asia. For this reason, statistical information about international doctoral candidates in Asia can be used to have an opinion about international academics in Asia. For this, the ratio of

international doctoral candidates to the total doctoral candidates in several Asian countries is provided in Table 10.

Table 10. Ratio of International PhD. Candidates in Several Asian Countries

Country	Ratio%
China	3
India	1
Japan	19
Russia	5
South Korea	8

Source: OECD (2016).

Table 10 shows that the ratio of doctoral candidates in the given Asian countries varies from each other. While almost one in every five doctoral candidates in Japan is international, the ratio of international doctoral candidates to all the doctoral candidates in South Korea is 8% and it is 5% in Russia. In addition, the ratio of international doctoral candidates to the total doctoral candidates in China is 3% while it is 1% in India.

Similar to Asia, there are no statistical data about the number, demographic, and other academic characteristics of international academics in Europe. However, the continent hosts many doctoral candidates today. Regular statistical data about the ratio of international doctoral candidates to the total number of doctoral candidates in the European countries are published in a report by the OECD every year. In these reports, the European countries are compared by the number ratio of doctoral candidates to the total number of doctoral candidates. In Table 11 the recent statistical comparison is provided.

Table 11. Ratio of International PhD. Candidates in Several European Countries

Country	Ratio %
Austria	25
Belgium	37
Czech Republic	14
Denmark	30
Finland	19
France	40
Germany	7
Ireland	23
Italy	13
Luxembourg	85
Netherlands	37
Norway	20
Slovenia	8
UK	42

Source: [OECD, 2016].

Compared to the Asian countries, it can be inferred from Table 11 that the ratio of international doctoral candidates in the European countries is rather higher. With a

ratio of 85%, almost all the doctoral candidates in Luxembourg are international.

With the ratio of 42% and 40% respectively, it seems that almost half of the doctoral candidates the UK and France is international. The lowest ratio of international doctoral candidates in Europe is Slovenia's with 8% and Germany's with 8%.

Last, North America is a popular destination for international doctoral candidates today. The ratio of international doctoral candidates to the total number of doctoral candidates in two North American countries is provided in Table 12.

Table 12. Ratio of International PhD. Candidates in Several North American Countries

Country	Ratio%
Canada	27
USA	35

Source: [OECD, 2016].

Table 12 shows that 35% of the doctoral candidates in the USA is international. In other words, one in every three doctoral candidates is international in the American universities. In addition, the ratio of international doctoral candidates to the total number of doctoral candidates in Canada, is 27%.

As noted before accessing the statistical data about international academics is rather challenging all over the world due to the varieties in different countries about defining who an international academic is. However, the IIE focuses on the international academics in the USA and regularly publishes descriptive data about them. Accordingly, the number of international academics in the USA increases continuously. This change in the number of international academics in the USA in the last fifteen years is shown in Figure 5.

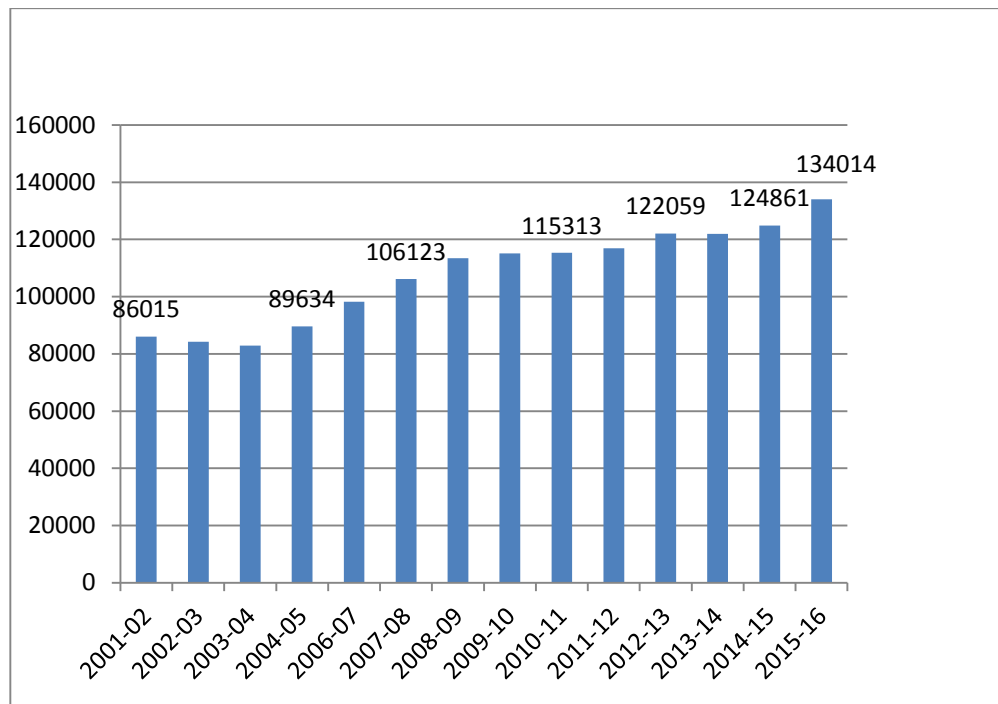


Figure 5 Recent change in the number of international academics in the USA
Source: [IIE, 2017].

Figure 5 shows that in the last fifteen years of time, the number of international students in the USA has increased significantly. While there were 86015 international academics in the country in 2001, the number has reached at 134014 in 2016.

The continuous increase in the number of the international academics in the USA refers that the American universities seem to continue being a popular destination for academics in other countries. For a more specific understanding of the international academics in the USA, their home countries can be mentioned. Accordingly, the USA hosts international academics from more than 190 places of origins today (IIE, 2017). It means that the country attracts academics from almost all the world. However, a vast majority of international academics come from a few places of origins. In Table 13, the number and ratio of the top fifteen places of origins of international academics in the USA is provided.

Table 13. Top Fifteen Places of Origins of International Academics in the USA

Rank	Country	Number	Ratio%
1	China	44490	33.2
2	India	12379	9.2
3	South Korea	7395	5.5
4	Germany	5345	4
5	Canada	4976	3.7
6	France	4545	3.4
7	Japan	4478	3.3
8	Brazil	4345	3.2
9	Italy	4036	3
10	Spain	3112	2.3
11	UK	2687	2
12	Turkey	2303	1.7
13	Taiwan	2024	1.5
14	Mexico	1914	1.4
15	Iran	1891	1.4

Source: [Institute of International Education, 2017].

Table 13 shows that the leading countries sending international academics to the USA are respectively China, India and South Korea. Accordingly, 33.2% of all the international academics in the USA is from China. It means that one in every three international academics in the USA is Chinese. This is followed by the Indian international academics with a ratio of 9.2% and the South Korean international academics with a ratio of 5.5%. In addition, the European countries of France, Italy, Spain; Japan and Taiwan from Asia and Brazil from America are among the top fifteen origins of international academics in the USA. Last, 2303 international academics in the USA are from Turkey.

To conclude, the criteria for being an international academic vary among countries. This makes access to reliable data difficult. Nevertheless, the available data indicate that Europe and the USA are popular destinations for international academics and doctoral candidates. In internationalization of higher education, not only individual students and academics, but also higher education institutions can move to another country. That is, a university can found an international branch campus in another country and it attracts local and international students there.

2.1.7.3 International branch campuses

Today, there are 311 international branch campuses in the world (C-BERT, 2017). These campuses are operated by the local laws of host countries. Therefore, it may not be possible to come up with a definition that addresses to all the international branch campuses in the world (Healey 2014; Lawton & Katsomitros, 2012). Despite this diversity, Becker (2009) defines an international branch campus as "an offshore operation of a higher education institution" (p. 2). However, not every offshore operation could be counted as an international branch campus. Therefore, he adds that to be counted as an international branch campus, the foreign university in the home town which founds the offshore institution should operate it on its own or with a local partner. In addition, degrees, certificates or diplomas should be given in the name of the foreign university which founds these institutions.

Currently, 311 offshore institutions in the world meet the above mentioned requirements for being an international branch campus. These international branch campuses are founded and operated by universities in 35 countries. In Figure 6, countries that home to five or above international branch campuses are shown (C-BERT, 2017).

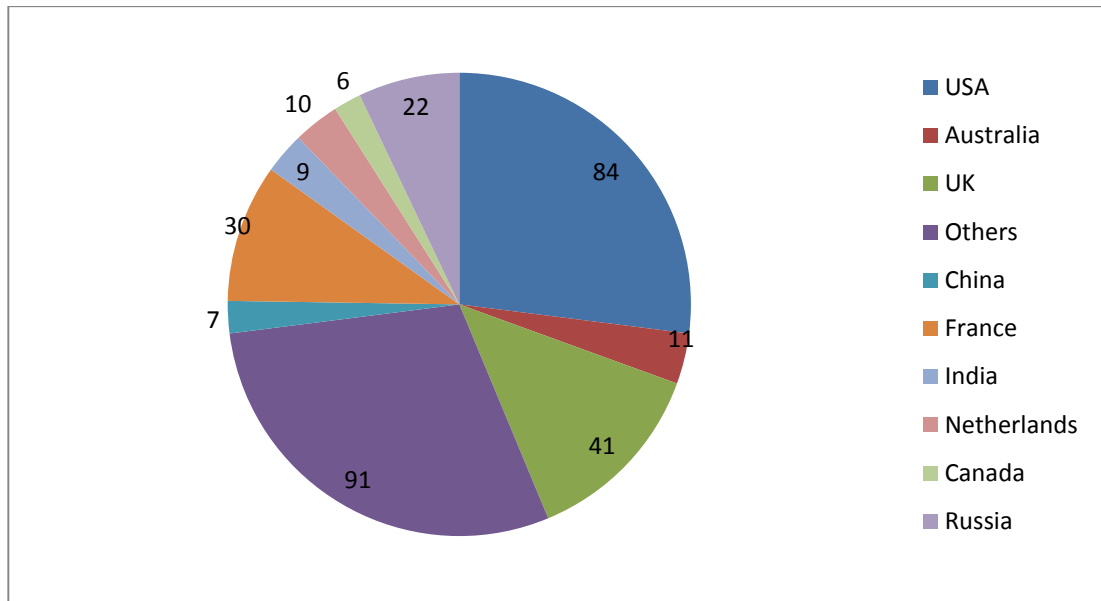


Figure 6 International branch campuses by home countries
Source: [C-BERT, 2017].

Figure 6 shows that nine countries are home to the five or more international branch campuses in different parts of the world. With 84, the leading country that has the highest number of international branch campuses is the USA. The UK and France follow the USA with respectively 41 and 30 international branch campuses. Russia, Australia, India, China, the Netherlands and Canada are among the countries whose universities founded five or more international branch campuses as well. It can be inferred from this distribution that one in every four international branch campuses is founded by an American university. And, half of the international branch campuses in the world are founded by the American, British or French universities.

Beside the home countries of international branch campuses, host countries of them are worth mentioning. Accordingly, 311 international branch campuses are located in 86 countries in different parts of the world today. To see the top host countries of international branch campuses, countries that host five or more international branch campuses are illustrated in Figure 7.

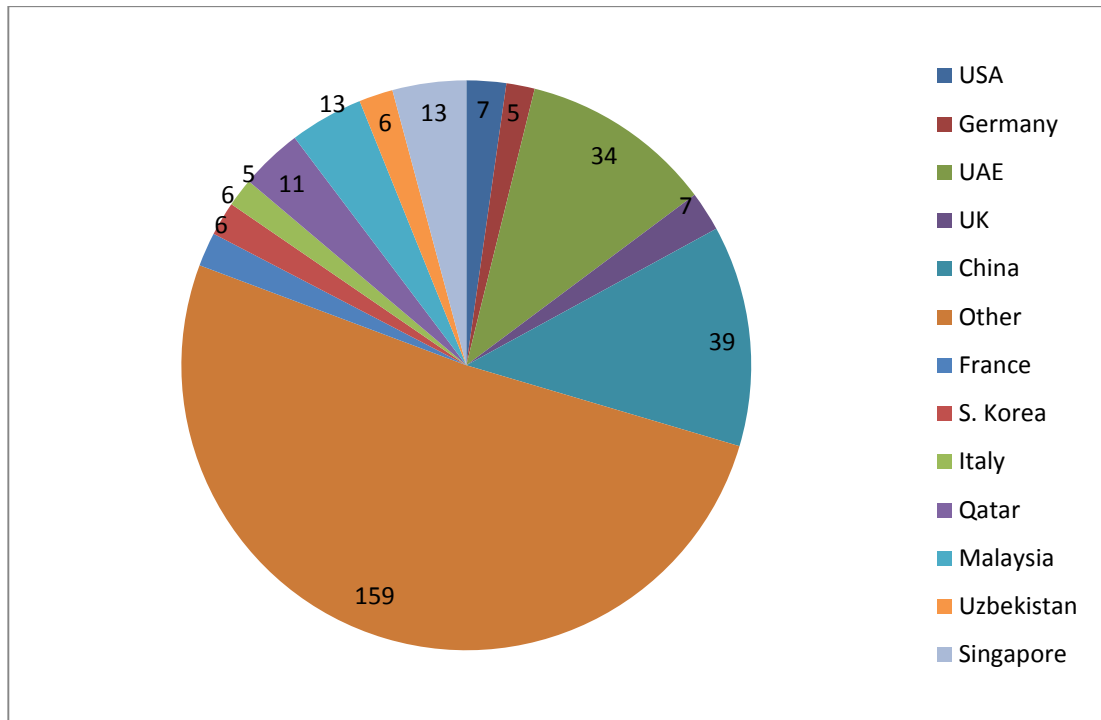


Figure 7 International branch campuses by host countries
Source: [C-BERT, 2017].

Figure 7 shows that twelve countries host five or more international branch campuses. With 39, the leading country that hosts the highest number of international branch campuses is China. The United Arab Emirates (UAE) follows China with 34, and Singapore and Malaysia host 13 international branch campuses for each. Qatar, the UK, the USA, Uzbekistan, France, South Korea, Italy and Germany are among the countries who host five or more international branch campuses as well. It can be inferred from this distribution that one in every ten international branch campuses is hosted by China. And, a quarter of the international branch campuses in the world are hosted by China, the UAE, Singapore or Malaysia.

The detailed discussion on the continuously increasing global flow of international academics, students and branch campuses reveals that physically moving from a country to another is desired not only individually, but also

institutionally. As the current study has been conducted in Turkey, the next section mentions internationalization of higher education in Turkey.

2.1.8 Internationalization of higher education in Turkey

Specifically, this study focuses on institutional internationalization processes in an open education faculty in Turkey. For a better understanding of the research settings' agenda of internationalization, the present situation of internationalization of higher education in Turkey is worth mentioning. For this reason, this section presents an overview of the higher education system in Turkey, international students and academics hosted in Turkey and international branch campuses opened or hosted by Turkey.

2.1.8.1 Overview of higher education in Turkey

Turkey has a dynamic population. The population of the country is 79.8 million and the median age of this population is 31.4 (Türkiye İstatistik Kurumu [TUIK], 2016). As the rate of the young population grows in Turkey, the higher education system grows. The current number of academics, students and graduates in 193 higher education institutions in Turkey is shown in Table 14. Accordingly, the number of academics, students and graduates is continuously increasing in Turkey. While the number of academics was 142437 in the 2013-14 academic year, it reached at 156168 in the 2015-16 academic year. Similarly, while the number of students at higher education institutions was 5472521 in the 2013-14 academic year, it climbed over 6.6 million in the following three years. In addition, while 733237 students graduated from higher education institutions in the 2013-14 academic year, this increased by 10% and climbed over 800 thousands in the following year.

Table 14. Overview of the Higher Education System in Turkey

Academic Year	Number of Academics	Number of Students	Number of Graduates
2013-14	142437	5472521	733237
2014-15	148903	6062886	801498
2015-16	156168	6689185	Not available

Source: [YÖK, 2017].

The recent change in the total number of academics, students and graduates indicates that the Turkish higher education system has undergone a significant quantitative growth. For an understanding of the current internationalization of the Turkish higher education system, the international students in Turkey are worth mentioning.

2.1.8.2 International students in Turkey

Today, Turkey hosts 87629 international students in her universities. The number of these students increases continuously. This continuous increase is shown in Figure 8. Accordingly, the number of international students in Turkey has gone up significantly between 1983 and 2016. While the number was 5378 in 1983, it reached at 87629 in 2016.

The recent increase in the number of international students in Turkey reveals that internationalization of the Turkish higher education has undergone a quantitative growth as well. In other words, the Turkish universities attract more international students today than they did in the past.

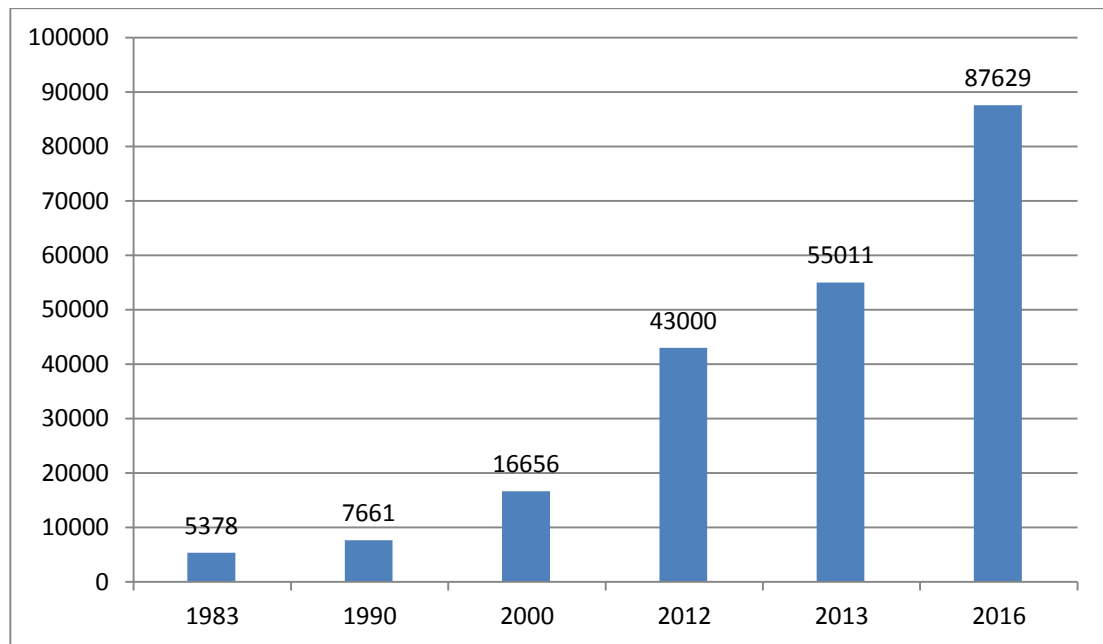


Figure 8 Recent change in the number of international students in Turkey
Source: [Çetinsaya, 2014; YÖK, 2017].

For a better understanding of the continuous increase in the number of international students in Turkey, the ratio of international students to the total number of university students in Turkey in the last three decades is provided in Figure 9.

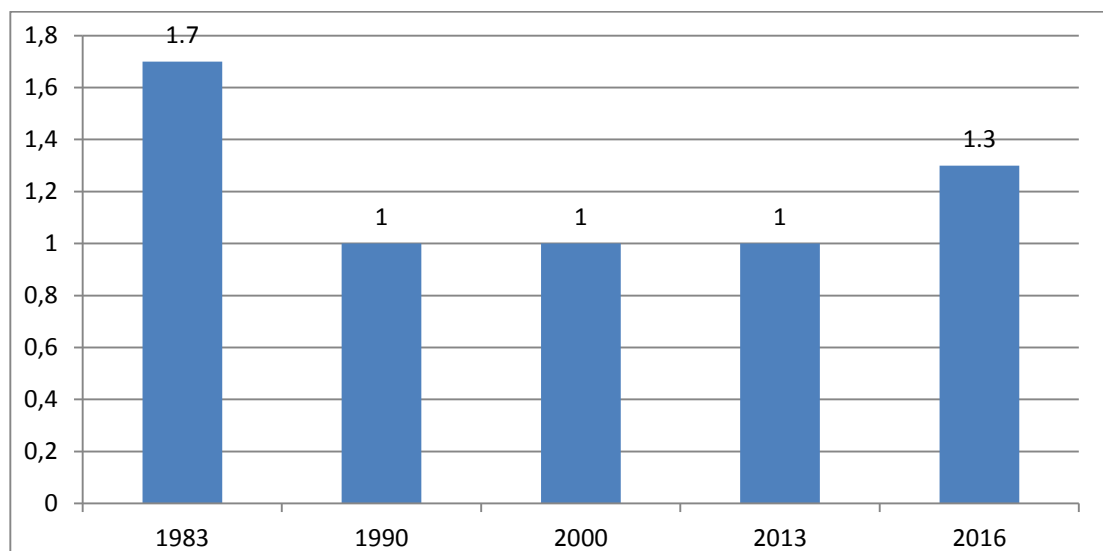


Figure 9 Recent change in the ratio of international students in Turkey
Source: [Çetinsaya, 2014; YÖK, 2017].

Figure 9 shows that the ratio of international students in Turkey to the total number university students went down from 1.7% to 1.3% between 1983 and 2016.

According to Çetinsaya (2014), the reason for this decline in the ratio is the significant increase in the number of local students in the higher education system in Turkey.

Another description of international students in Turkey could be made by the distribution of female and male international students in Turkey provided in Figure 10.

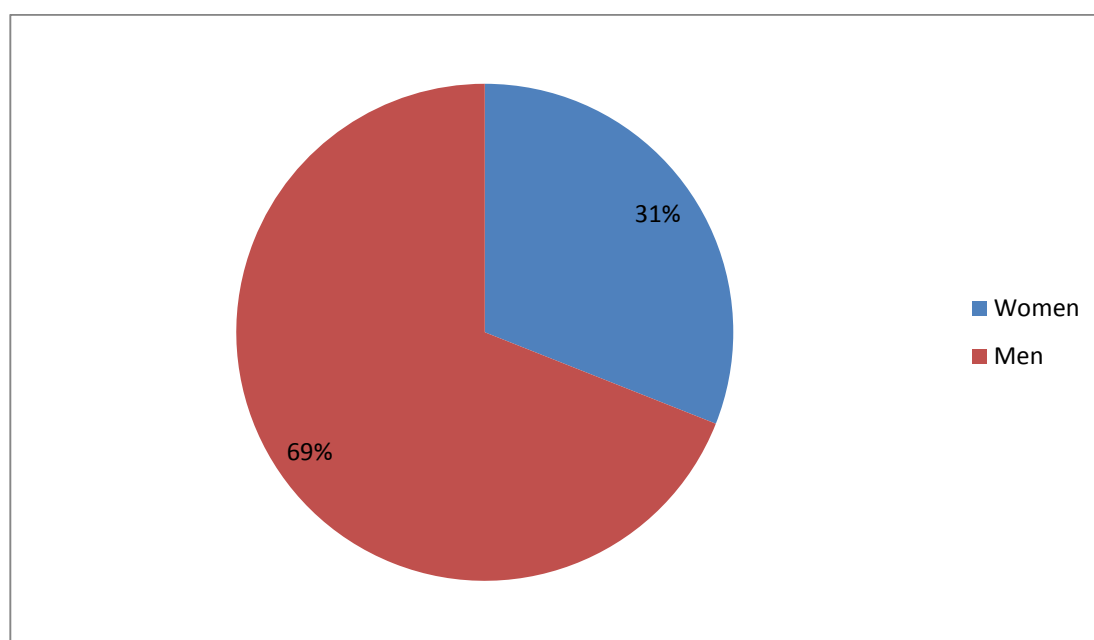


Figure 10 Ratio of female and male international students in Turkey
Source: [OECD, 2016].

Figure 10 shows that 31% of international students in Turkey is female and 69% of them is male. It means that one in every three international students in Turkey is female. Compared to the ratios of female international students in the European countries and the USA, Turkey hosts less female international students as the ratio of

international students is 59% in Italy, 51% in the UK and 45% in the USA (OECD, 2016).

87629 international students that Turkey hosts today comes from 204 places of origins. Top places of origins of international students in Turkey are provided in Table 15.

Table 15. Top Places of Origins of International Students in Turkey

Country	Number of International Students	Country	Number of International Students
Azerbaijan	12504	Libya	1668
Turkmenistan	9903	Pakistan	1438
Syria	9689	Nigeria	1392
Iran	5661	Somali	1383
Iraq	4414	Kosovo	1339
Afghanistan	4338	China	1297
Kirghizstan	1994	Palestine	1238
Greece	1993	Russia	1175
Kazakhstan	1986	TRNC	1087

Source: [YÖK, 2017].

Table 15 shows that the leading countries of origin of the international students in Turkey are Azerbaijan, Turkmenistan and Syria. Accordingly, 12504 international students from Azerbaijan study in Turkey. This is followed by Turkmenistan with 9903 and Syria with 9689. The table reveals that Turkey attracts students from neighbouring countries and others that have common religious or cultural aspects with Turkey (Çetinsaya, 2014).

The overview of the international students above reveals that Turkey is becoming a more popular destination for international students. That is, the number of international students that she hosts increases per year. In addition to international students, Turkey hosts international academics as well.

2.1.8.3. International academics in Turkey

Turkey hosts 3144 international academics today. The change in the number of these academics in the last three decades is shown in Figure 11.

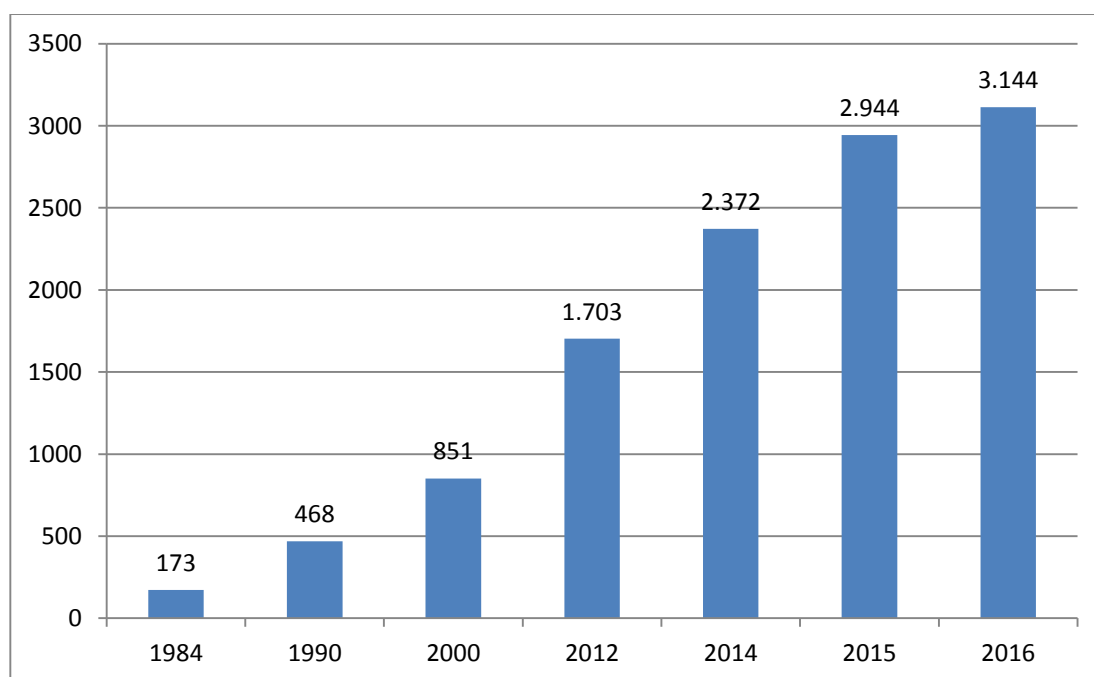


Figure 11 Recent change in the number of international academics in Turkey
Source: [Çetinsaya 2014; YÖK, 2017].

Figure 11 shows that the number of international academics in Turkey continuously increased between 1984 and 2016. While the number was 173 in 1984, it reached at 3144 in 2016. For a better understanding of what it means in the higher education

system in Turkey, the ratio of international academics to the total number of academics in Turkey is provided in Figure 12.

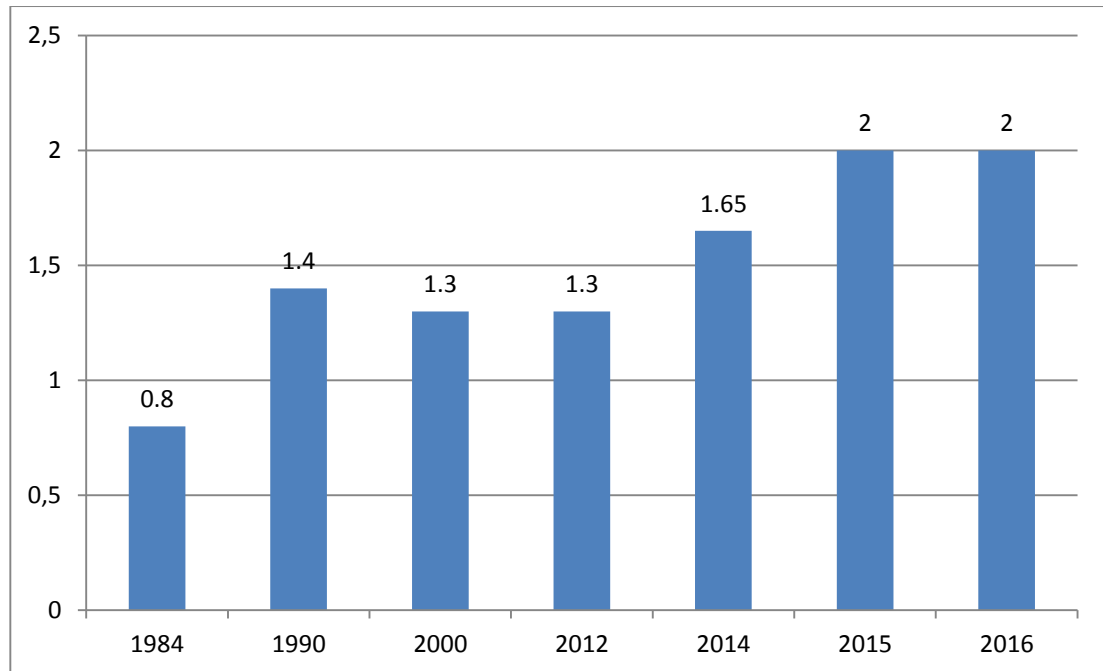


Figure 12 Recent change in the ratio of international academics in Turkey
Source: [Çetinsaya 2014; YÖK, 2017].

Figure 12 shows that the ratio of international academics to the total number of academics in the Turkish higher education system increased from 0.8% to 2% between 1984 and 2016. Although the number of international academics in Turkey increased during this period, the ratio of international academics to the total number of academics in the Turkish higher education system appears not to be in a significant increase. This might be because the system underwent a quantitative growth at the same time and the number of local academics in the Turkish universities increased as well. As Turkey has the agenda of internationalizing whole the higher education system, not only international academics should not be ignored and policies should be made to increase their numbers.

Another description about international academics in Turkey can be made mentioning the ratio of female and male international academics in Turkey. This distribution is provided in Figure 13 below.

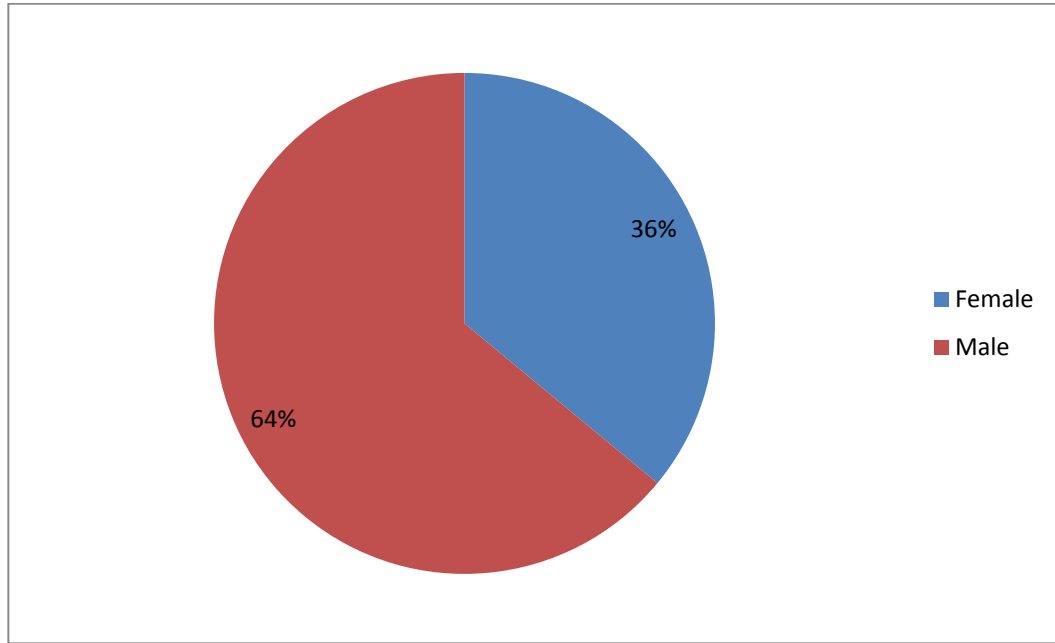


Figure 13 Ratio of female and male international academics in Turkey
Source: [Çetinsaya 2014; YÖK, 2017].

Figure 13 shows that 36% of international academics in Turkey is female and 64% is male. It means that one in every three international academics in Turkey is female.

In addition to the demographic description of international academics in Turkey, academic description should be made. For this reason, international academics in Turkey should be mentioned by their academic titles. So that, to what extent Turkey can attract international academics with doctoral degrees can be revealed. For this, the distribution of international academics in Turkey by academic titles is provided in Figure 14. The figure includes the titles of professor, associate professor and assistant professor. Other academic positions without doctoral degrees

including instructors, research assistants and specialists are provided in the group of other.

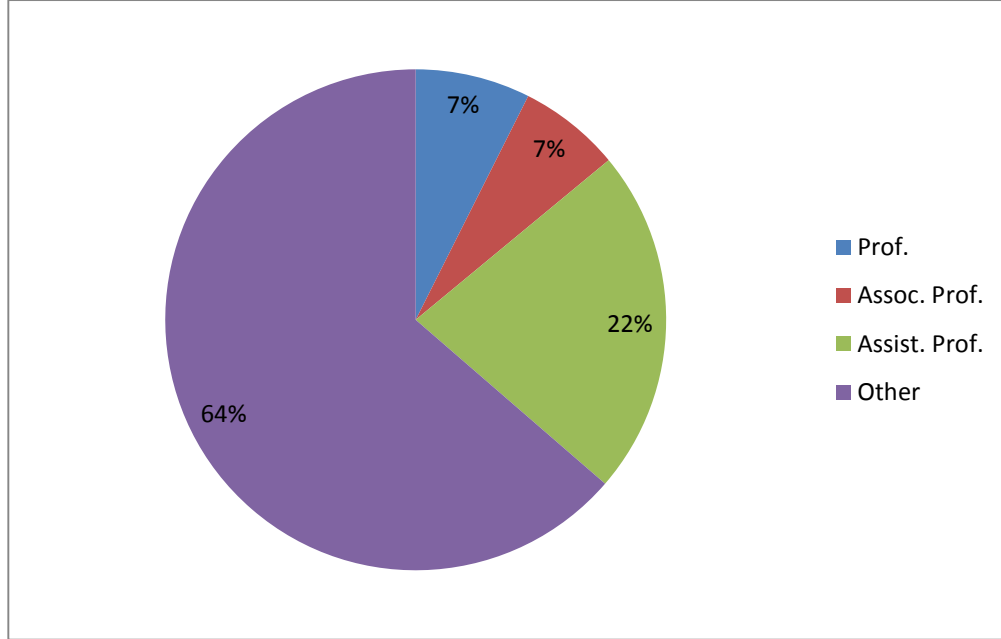


Figure 14 Distribution of international academics in Turkey by academic titles
Source: [YÖK, 2017].

Figure 14 shows that of 3144 international academics in Turkey, 7% is professor, 7% is associate professor and 22% is assistant professor. A vast majority of international academics in Turkey, 64%, work in other academic positions including instructor, specialist and research assistant. When the distribution of the academic positions in the group of other is examined closely, it is seen that the highest number of them are foreign language instructors. Accordingly, 807 international academics teach a second language in Turkey as language instructors at the Turkish universities (Çetinsaya, 2014; YÖK, 2017). It would not be wrong to conclude from the distribution of international academics in Turkey by academic titles that Turkey has attracted lower number of international academics than with doctoral degrees than those who do not hold doctoral degrees.

Turkey attracts international academics from a variety of countries. Nevertheless, a vast majority of international academics in Turkey come from a few countries. Top ten places of origins of international academics in Turkey are shown in Table 16.

Table 16. Top Ten Places of Origins of International Academics in Turkey

Country	Number
USA	489
Syria	331
Azerbaijan	273
UK	247
Iran	162
TRNC	104
Germany	97
Greece	85
Egypt	83
Canada	75

Source: [YÖK, 2017].

Table 16 shows that the top ten places of origins of international academics in Turkey include the countries from America such as the USA and Canada, neighbouring countries such as Syria, Azerbaijan, Iran and Greece, the European countries such as the UK and Germany and others such as the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC) and Egypt. Among this top ten countries, the leading one is the USA with 489. The USA is followed by Syria with 331 and Azerbaijan with 273. With 75, Canada has the lowest number of academics in Turkey among the top ten.

The discussion on international academics in Turkey reveals that the number of international academics continuously increases every year. Nevertheless, almost two in three international academics in Turkey do not hold doctoral degrees. It shows that Turkey can attract very few international academics who hold doctoral degrees. In addition to international students and academics, the Turkish higher education internationalizes by international branch campuses.

2.1.8.4. Turkey-related international branch campuses

Turkey hosts an international branch campus founded by a university in another country. In addition, a Turkish university has founded international branch campuses abroad. Information about the international branch campus in Turkey is provided in Table 17.

Table 17. International Branch Campus Hosted by Turkey

Campus	Host Country	Home Country
VAKKO ESMOD Fashion Academy	Turkey	France

Source: [C-BERT, 2017].

Table 17 shows that there is only one international branch campus in Turkey named as VAKKO ESMOD Fashion Academy. The campus was founded by a higher education institution in France. It offers programs related to fashion including fashion design, photography and style consulting (VAKKO ESMOD Fashion Academy, 2017). Considering that China hosts 39 international branch campuses and the UAE hosts 34 (C-BERT, 2017), it would not be wrong to conclude that Turkey has still not been an education hub for international branch campuses.

Beside hosting an international branch campus, a university in Turkey has founded international branch campuses in other countries. Information about these campuses is provided in Table 18.

Table 18. International Branch Campuses Founded by Turkey

Campus	Host Country	Home Country
BAU International University Washington, D.C.	USA	Turkey
BAU International Berlin – University of Applied Sciences	Germany	Turkey

Source: [C-BERT, 2017].

Table 18 shows that a university in Turkey has founded two international branch campuses in the USA and Germany. Both of the campuses were founded by Bahçeşehir University (BAU) in Istanbul. BAU International University Washington, D.C. was founded in 2013 in the USA. It offers master of business administration (MBA) programs in international law and economics, global affairs and entrepreneurship. BAU International Berlin-University of Applied Sciences was founded in 2012 in Germany. It offers bachelor of arts (BA) programs in business administration, product design, graphic design and visual communication (BAU, 2016).

Beside internationalization via the mobility of academics and students, founding international branch campuses in other countries is preferred by higher education policy makers. Nevertheless, considering that the USA has founded 84 international branch campuses, which is followed by the UK with 41 and France with 30 (C-BERT, 2017), it would not be wrong to come up with the idea that Turkey

took very few steps to internationalize by founding international branch campuses in other countries.

2.1.9 Summary of the section

The detailed conceptual and statistical discussion on internationalization of higher education reveals that internationalization of higher education is conceptualized and practised in a variety of ways. Accordingly, it is defined, rationalized, approached and mis/understood differently by administrators of higher education institutions and policy makers of higher education.

In practice, physical mobility of international students and academics and founding international branch campuses in other countries have long been employed as a means for internationalization. The present statistical data show that the USA and Europe host the highest number of international students and academics. They have founded the highest number of international branch campuses as well.

Turkey has put internationalization on its agenda. The number of international students and academics in Turkey increases every year. Nevertheless, Turkey seems not to be able to attract many international students from North America and Europe. Beside this, it hosts very few international academics who hold doctoral degrees. Last, although several countries have founded tens of international branch campuses, universities in Turkey have founded only two international branch campuses. This reveals that Turkey needs to develop new strategies for attracting international students from various parts of the world and international academics who hold doctoral degrees and founding more international branch campuses.

Next, use of distance learning, which transforms internationalization of higher education in several ways, is worth discussing.

2.2 Distance learning

This section provides a detailed discussion about distance learning. Initially, the conceptual framework of distance learning and misconceptions of it are included. Next, theoretical foundations of the concept are discussed in detail. This is followed by the history of distance learning and the role of distance learning in higher education. Lastly, the section is finalized with the history of distance learning in Turkey and the current situation in the use of distance learning in the Turkish higher education. Important to note is that this section includes a model proposal for university-distance learning relation which is originally developed by the author of this dissertation.

2.2.1 Defining distance learning

Learning can be defined as "an accumulation of pieces of knowledge and bits of skill" (Resnick & Klopfer, 1989, p. 2). Today, this accumulation does not necessarily occur in traditional classrooms including a teacher, students, hard copy books, desks and a blackboard. Rather, a computer screen at home can be enough for this. It can relieve teachers and students from the burden of moving to school and meeting in a classroom at a specific time and place. It is conceptually known as distance learning. A detailed theoretical discussion of distance learning will start with early definitions of the concept, the definitions in the twenty first century and common components of these definitions.

2.2.1.1 Early definitions of distance learning

Scholarly discussions for defining the concept of distance learning date back to almost half a century ago. It has been defined from several points of view.

In an early definition, the existence of an institution in distance learning is underlined. Accordingly, self-learning is planned and implemented by an institution. In addition, learning occurs through media and no face-to-face contact between the teacher and students exists (Keegan, 1990). Accordingly, distance learning is defined as :

systematically organised form of self-study in which student counselling, the presentation of learning material and the securing and supervising of student' success is carried out by a team of teachers, each of whom has responsibilities. It is made possible at a distance by means of media which can cover long distances. The opposite of distance education is 'direct education' or 'face-to-face' education' a type of education that takes a place with direct contact between lectures and students. (Dohmen, 1967, p. 9)

Similar to this, another perspective towards the concept reminds the use of media to contact students at a distance in distance learning. However, different from the former one, this definition describes distance learning as industrialised (Keegan, 1990). Accordingly, distance learning is:

a method of imparting knowledge, skills and attitudes which is rationalised by the application of division of labour and organizational principles as well as by the extensive use of technical media, especially for the purpose of reproducing high quality teaching material which makes it possible to instruct the great numbers of students at the same time wherever they live. It is an industrialised form of teaching and learning. (Peters, 1973, p. 206)

In another conceptual approach to distance learning, two aspects are underscored.

One is the idea that teacher and students should be in separate places. The other is that learning process should be planned and implemented by an educational institution.

the various form of study at all level which are not under the continuous, immediate supervision of tutors present with their students in lecture rooms or on the same premises, but which, nevertheless, benefit from the planning, guidance and tuition of a tutorial organization. (Holmberg, 1977, p. 9)

The conceptual evolution of distance learning has continued in the twenty first century as well.

2.2.1.2 Definitions of distance learning in the twenty first century

Conceptual discussions on distance learning in the twenty first century have dealt with it from different perspectives. In a view, use of media and separation of teacher and students are underlined. Accordingly, distance learning is defined as:

the application of telecommunications and electronic devices which enable students and learners to receive instruction originates from some distant location. (US Department of Education's Office of Educational Research and Improvement, 2006, p. 1)

This definition is similar to the former ones as it underlines two aspects of distance learning. One is the use of media through which teaching is provided. The second one is the fact that teacher and students should be in separate locations.

Different from the former ones, another perspective puts the main emphasis on the separation of students, teacher and materials by time and geography. It does not explicitly mention the use of media in distance learning processes. Besides, it underlines the existence of structured learning which implies that teaching-learning is organized by an institution. According to this perspective, distance learning is:

any type of learning in which the components of a structured learning activity (i.e., learners, instructor and learning resources) are separated by time and/or geography. (Rovai et al., 2008, p. 1)

Last, a recent approach to distance learning underlines several components of distance learning:

institution-based, formal education where the learning group is separated, and where interactive telecommunications systems are used to connect learners, resources, and instructors. (Simonson, 2009, p. 1)

One of the idea noted in this recent conceptualization is that distance learning is formally offered by an institution. Next, students learn at a distance. Last, the media used to connect teacher, learners, institution and materials is interactive, not one-way. Referring the up to datedness of this definition, Simonson et al. (2015) name it as "re-definition" of the concept (p. 6).

Long lasting conceptualization of distance learning brings several components of it forward. These components are worth mentioning to understand what aspects of distance learning are agreed by several perspectives.

2.2.1.3 Four components of definition of distance learning

The scholarly discussions for defining the concept of distance learning have provided us with a cumulative understanding about the conceptual framework of distance learning. As a result, it is possible to come up with four components of the definition of distance learning. These components are provided in Figure 15.

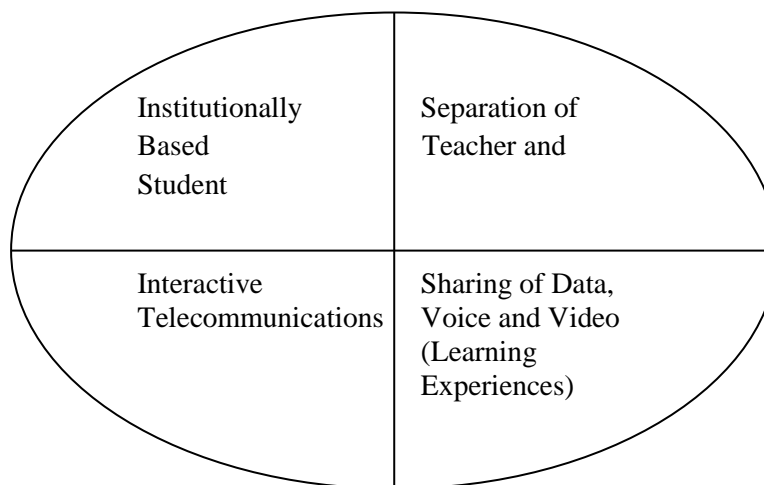


Figure 15 Four components of definition of distance learning
Source: [Simonson et al., 2015].

Figure 15 shows that the definition of distance learning has four main components.

First of the components is that distance learning is planned and implemented institutionally. It is a component "what differentiates distance education from self-study" (Simonson et al., 2015, p. 32). Institutions that organize distance learning can be traditional ones such as universities or non-traditional ones such as companies.

Second component is separation of teacher and students. This separation could be not

only geographical or time-related, but also intellectual. That is, teacher and students can meet via media when they are in different geographic locations and time zones. And intellectually, "teachers have an understanding of the concepts presented in a course that students do not possess" (p. 33). In other words, a teacher, who has more information about the course contents, teaches learners at a distance. Third component is interactive telecommunications. It refers to the idea that students should have the opportunity of interacting with both each other and their teacher. In other words, distance learning processes should not include passive or one-sided interaction. Last component is sharing of data, voice and video. It means that there should be materials in the distance learning processes. These materials should be resources that can be watched, listened and discussed by students and teacher (Simonson et al., 2015).

Conceptual discussions on distance learning have long been continuing. It leads to conceptualization of distance learning. However, it leads to misconceptions as well.

2.2.2 Misconceptions of distance learning

As it ensures flexibility of time and geography, use of distance learning in schools, universities or non-academic institutions such as companies becomes more widespread day by day. These different providers address to different learners, use diverse materials and media. This leads to the emergence of a variety of distance learning practices and concepts.

To eliminate the misconceptions about distance learning, Simonson et al. (2015) focus on defining the terms that are related to distance learning. In this

analysis, they include e-learning, virtual education/schooling, online learning and open learning.

2.2.2.1 E-learning

E-learning is defined as "the use of computer network technology, primarily over an intranet or through the internet, to deliver information and instruction to individuals" (Welsh, Wanberg, Brown & Simmering, 2003, p. 246). In other words, it is an internet based learning at a distance. It cannot be used interchangeably with distance learning. This is because they e-learning is a term related to distance learning programs provided by the private sector. Businesses or companies train their staff through e-learning. Therefore, e-learning is a type of learning which also is e-training (Simonson et al., 2015).

2.2.2.2 Virtual education/schooling

Another term is used interchangeably with distance learning is virtual education or schooling. It is considered to be originally from North America. It was first implemented in Canada in the mid 1990s and then became widespread in the USA (Barbour & Reeves, 2009).

Virtual schooling is defined as "a form of schooling that uses online computers to provide some or all of a student's education" (Russel, 2004, p. 2). This definition seems similar to that of distance learning. Nevertheless, Simonson et al. (2015) object to the use of them interchangeably with each other. They remind that virtual education/schooling is used for distance learning programs for K-12 students. This is why it addresses to a smaller target which makes it less broad than the term distance learning.

2.2.2.3 Online learning

Online learning is defined as "learning that takes place partially or entirely over the internet" (US Department of Education, 2009, p. 9). Online learning is a more specific term that is used for distance learning in higher education. Therefore, it should not substitute with distance learning which has a broader meaning (Simonson et al., 2015).

2.2.2.4 Open learning

Open learning is defined as "the idea of creating opportunities for study for those debarred from it for whatever reasons, be it lack of formal educational attainments or shortage of vacancies, poverty, remoteness, employment or domestic necessities" (MacKenzie, Postgate & Scupham, 1975, p. 15). It is regarded as a type of non-formal education for people who lack formal education. Due to its specific focus and address, it would not be possible to use it interchangeably with distance learning.

To conclude, the word distance differs from others as it is "the overall and inclusive term" (Simonson et al., 2015, p. 32). Therefore, rather than the misconceptions that address to specific groups of learners for specific purposes, distance learning as an umbrella term is used in this dissertation. Beside this conceptual discussion, a theoretical discussion on distance learning will be presented.

2.2.3 Theories of distance learning

Today, distance learning is offered by different institutional providers to different groups of learners for different purposes and by a variety of means of communication. While a transnational company trains its employees in different

parts of the world through e-training programs, a faculty member teaches his/her students who live in another country.

The widespread practice of distance learning has theoretical foundations that date back to decades ago. Theory for distance learning is requirement as:

Lack of accepted theory has weakened distance education: there has been a lack of identity, a sense of belonging to the periphery, and the lack of a touchstone against which decisions on methods, on media, on financing, on student support, when they have to be made, can be made with confidence (Keegan, 1983a, p. 63).

It is noted in the above discussion that theories are essential for distance learning.

They are like the identity of distance learning which forms the conceptual, methodological, media-related and financial frameworks of it.

In order to analyze the above mentioned identity of distance learning, several theories have been established by different researchers. This section respectively presents a discussion on the theories of andragogy, guided didactic conversation, independent study, industrialization of teaching, social equity and Perraton's theory.

2.2.3.1 Andragogy

University level distance learners are adults (Arnett, 2000; Erikson, 1950, 1959, 1964, 1968) who lack of formal educational attainments" (Mackenzie et al., 1975, p. 15). Therefore, a link between them and andragogy, a learning theory for adults, can be established.

Andragogy (Knowles, 1973) is an important milestone in understanding the discrimination between the ways adult and children learn. Before, pedagogy was the dominant theory of learning that for both children and adults. As adult education become more institutional following the WW2, adult educators inevitably experienced two main problems with pedagogy. One of these problems was the lack

of practicality of the pedagogical assumptions and teaching strategies with adults. Accordingly, the aim of achieving knowledge transmit and strategies such as memorizing, lectures and reading assignments did not work with adults. It was noticed that rather than transmitting knowledge and expecting memorization of it, adults should be "learning how to learn" (Knowles, 1980, p. 41). The other problem with pedagogy was that teachers' assumptions about the characteristics of child learners turned out to be not the same as those of adult learners. Young and adult learners appeared to differ from each other in terms of their experiences, expectations, physical and mental maturity and interests. Both of these problems experienced by adult educators necessitated the emergence of a learning theory for adults.

Knowles (1980) notes that the Greek words 'andr', which means 'adult', and 'agogus', which means 'leading', comprise the word 'andragogy'. He defines the concept as "the art and science of helping adults learn" (Knowles, 1980, p. 43). He (Knowles, 1996) states that six assumptions of andragogy reveal that adults learn more different than children. These assumptions are the need to know why to learn, self concept, adult learner experience, readiness to learn, orientation to learning and motivation to learn.

First assumption of andragogy is adult learners' need to know why to learn something. That is, before beginning to learn something, adult learners desire to know the potential risks and benefits learning it. Knowles (1996) notes that adult educators should be aware of this need first.

Second andragogical assumption is that adult learning processes are different from those of children as adults have autonomous self concept. That is, adults believe that they can control their lives and make their own decisions. In this sense, they

expect that people around them should notice and respect it. Self concept of adults is "a deep psychological need" (Knowles, Holton and Swanson, 2005, p. 65). This need should be noticed and appreciated in an adult learning environment (Knowles, 1996).

Third assumption of andragogy is that experiences of adults can affect adult learning processes. This is because "adults bring a wide range of experiences to the learning environment" (Rovai et al., 2008, p. 5) and this "affects how new information is interpreted and integrated into expanding knowledge structures" (Rovai et al., 2008, p. 5). Therefore, experiences of adult learners would have two impacts on adult learning processes (Knowles, 1996).

One of the effects of adult learning experiences on their learning processes is that experiences may create individual differences. That is, experiences of adults may enable them to have different ways of learning, planning and having needs and interests. Therefore, adult learning programs should be as individualized as possible (Knowles, 1996).

The other effect of adult learning experiences on their learning processes is that adult learners may gain rich information and abilities when they gain these experiences. For this reason, adult learning programs should include group discussions, case studies, problem solution exercises and laboratory activities that can reveal the information and abilities adult learners have (Knowles, 1996).

Fourth assumption of andragogy readiness to learn. It can be achieved by reaching a certain age. For example, a high school student may not be ready for an in-service training as s/he has not started a job. It can also be achieved by learning pre-requisite knowledge for the following step. For instance, an adult who wants to learn how to ride a motorcycle can start riding a tricycle for a while. At the end of this, s/he can be ready for a motorcycle (Knowles, 1996).

Fifth assumption of andragogy is orientation to learning. Accordingly, adults should be oriented to authentic activities and exercises. Otherwise, adults may resist to learning. For example, once the dropout ratio in literacy programs in the USA was very high. This is because adult learners were expected to learn grammatical and mathematical details in these programs. This made the learners unmotivated to learn as they considered what they learnt was not necessary for them. Therefore, a change was made and acquiring practical knowledge such as basic calculations for shopping was included in the newer program. This change decreased the dropout ratio in the literacy programs (Knowles, 1996).

Sixth assumption of andragogy is motivation to learn. It refers that what adult learners actually need is not external motivation, but internal. That is, rewards that may encourage children to learn may not affect adult learners. Therefore, it should be reminded that adults have individual understanding of professional and life-related satisfaction. If these individual perspectives are explored, it could be easier to motivate them to learn (Knowles, 1996).

To conclude, andragogy assumes that the way adults learn is different from the way children learn. These differences should be considered to understand adult learners and help them learn. Another theory of distance learning is guided didactic conversation.

2.2.3.2 Guided didactic conversation

In this theory, Holmberg (1983) attaches importance to the interaction between the educator and learners in a distance learning environment. Referring to the idea that learners think aloud when they elaborate a text (Chafe, 1979, 1980; Ericsson & Simon, 1980), he states that if a strong communication between the educator and

learners occurs in distance learning, this thinking aloud can be practiced between them.

Theory of guided didactic conversation is based upon seven principles. First, educator and learners should feel free to share their feelings about distance learning processes. Second, in this sharing, one part should not be dominant and the sharing should be through "two-way communication" (p. 116). Third, intellectual satisfaction can contribute to the achievement of learning goals. Fourth, relation between educators and learners can be positively influenced by the friendly atmosphere. Fifth, the content in this interaction should be clear. Sixth, this content should be transmitted through the appropriate use of media. Last, all these should be implemented with a previously made plan (Holmberg, 1983).

To conclude, in the theory of guided didactic conversation, it is assumed that distance learning environment should be as communicative as possible. So that, "intellectual pleasure and study motivation" (Holmberg, 1983, p. 116) could be enhanced. Another theory of distance learning is independent study.

2.2.3.3 Independent study

In his theory of independent study, Moore (1983) takes the perspective that distance learning environment should be student centred and learners should have the autonomy to study independently. He underlines several points of this independence. First, he reminds that learners should have the right of making decisions about sources, learning objectives and even assessment of the outcomes. Second, in distance learning programs, making a difference in the levels of theoretical and practical information of learners is considered as an objective. Next, as educators and learners are separated from each other in distance learning, he states that "the

interactions between them are conducted through print, mechanical or electronic devices" (Moore, 1983, p. 79).

In addition, in the theory of independent study, learner autonomy is drawn attention. Accordingly, learner autonomy is "the extent to which the learner in an educational programme is able to determine the selection of objectives, resources and procedures and the evaluation design" (Moore, 1983, p. 82). The autonomy levels of learners may differ from each other. A fully autonomous learner is "a person who identifies a learning need when he finds a problem to be solved, a skill to be acquired, or information he does not have" (Moore, 1983, p. 85).

To sum up, the theory of independent study assumes that learners should be active in distance learning processes and they should be a part of decision-making processes about contents and objectives of distance learning programs. Next theory of distance learning is industrialization of teaching.

2.2.3.4 Industrialization of teaching

In the theory of industrialization of teaching, an analogy between a business corporation and a higher education institution that provides distance learning is made. Accordingly, it is argued that both share fourteen components of industrialisation process (Peters, 1983).

First component of business which is shared by a distance learning provider is rationalisation. Every business or production process has a rationale. That is, raw materials are used in an economic way, the process and output is monitored carefully to obtain the most effective result. A distance learning program works in the same way. Contents are found, adapted to the target learners and the process and results are monitored (Peters, 1983).

Second component of business which is shared by a distance learning provider is division of labour. That is, tasks in distance learning are completed by a team. For example, a distance course's contents can be prepared by an academic, the course can be taught by another academic, supported by technical staff and feedback about the course is collected by an assessment team (Peters, 1983).

Third component of business which is shared by a distance learning provider is mechanization. In other words, as machines are used to make production in industry easier, they are used for the same purpose in distance learning. Computers, cameras, printing machines, microphones and scanners can be provided are examples of these machines used in distance learning (Peters, 1983).

Fourth component of business which is shared by a distance learning provider is assembly line. In other words, the employees do not move, but tasks move and come to them and they are expected to complete tasks in a limited time period. The same assembly line could be seen in a distance learning environment. For example, an academic is expected to prepare a course's contents on his/her computer, another academic edits it on his/her computer and a staff member checks its format on his/her computer (Peters, 1983).

Fifth component of business which is shared by a distance learning provider is mass production. Accordingly, industrial corporations produce a great deal of products for masses of consumers. Similarly, masses of people demand learning today. Nevertheless, traditional education cannot provide masses of people with face-to-face education as buildings, classrooms, teachers and other resources can be too few to help everybody learn. Nevertheless, distance learning can provide masses of learners with this opportunity by means of developed communication technology (Peters, 1983).

Sixth component of business which is shared by a distance learning provider is preparatory work. That is, before producing something, staff members meet to come up with the best possible way of production. In distance learning, staff members can contact each other and exchange their opinions about what to include in a course or how to offer it via technology (Peters, 1983).

Seventh component of business which is shared by a distance learning provider is planning. In other words, once preparatory work is completed, several alternatives are determined. A good plan is made to choose the best one. In distance learning, plans are made to choose the best educator, course hour, media and assessment type before offering a program (Peters, 1983).

Eighth component of business which is shared by a distance learning provider is organization. Just as a corporation organizes time, place and people during the production, distance learning providers organize students' access to services on time (Peters, 1983).

Ninth component of business which is shared by a distance learning provider is the use of scientific control methods. In industrial production, the efficiency of machines and techniques, quality of outputs and satisfaction of customers are monitored by scientific methods. Similarly, in distance learning processes, the efficiency of the media, satisfaction of staff and learners and statistical information about the exam scores are controlled by scientific methods including surveys, statistics and interviews (Peters, 1983).

Tenth component of business which is shared by a distance learning provider is formalisation. Accordingly, the interaction among staff members is written, document based, professional and based upon rules. This could be seen in a distance learning provider. For example, in a distance education faculty, staff members are

expected to write petitions to the dean's office for their requests. Similarly, the dean's office provides staff members with a written reply (Peters, 1983).

Eleventh component of business which is shared by a distance learning provider is standardization. Accordingly, both industrial corporations and distance learning providers have to work in a standardized way as they are expected to provide masses of people with the same product. For example, a distance education faculty provides its learners in various countries with an online final exam with a standardized duration and format (Peters, 1983).

Twelfth component of business which is shared by a distance learning provider is the change of staff's function with the industrialization. In industrialized corporations, employees are assigned with specific and limited roles. Similarly, academics in distance learning are assigned with specific and limited roles. For example, some academics can work as advisors for learners, while others can teach them (Peters, 1983).

Thirteenth component of business which is shared by a distance learning provider is objectification. That is industrial production is previously planned and mechanic which makes the involvement of subjectivity impossible. Similarly, course contents, instructors, syllabi, exam dates and course hours are planned and announced long before a distance learning program starts. Besides, exams of masses of learners can be assessed by optical readers. Therefore, distance learning processes are objectified, as industrial processes are (Peters, 1983).

Fourteenth component of business which is shared by a distance learning provider is concentration and centralisation. A business corporation addresses to masses of consumers in different markets while a distance learning provider addresses to masses of learners in various places. They are both managed from a

central administrative unit and this unit attempts to convey products to people in various places (Peters, 1983).

To conclude, the theory of industrialization of teaching assumes that industrial production processes and distance learning are similar to each other as they are planned and implemented in similar ways. Another theory of distance learning is social equity.

2.2.3.5 Social equity

It is a fact that not everybody can take the advantage of formal education. Even in the twenty first century, there is not enough vacancy at schools for everyone. In Turkey, less than half of the university candidates could have the chance of getting into a university in Turkey in 2016 (Assessment Selection and Placement Centre's [ÖSYM] Statistics, 2016). It reveals that formal higher education in Turkey is not in the reach of every candidate yet.

Considering the inadequacy of vacancy in formal schooling, distance learning could be an alternative for the ones who stay out of the formal education system. That is, people, who have missed out the chance of formal education, can make use of distance learning instead. This could be a second chance for them (Hakan et al., 2013; Mackenzie et al., 1975). Besides, providing these individuals with a second chance can create a fairer society as education can become more accessible. Thanks to the separation of time and geography in distance learning, people who are physically away from quality education, can be provided with it. For example, it may not be possible for everyone to study at Harvard University (HU), a world-class American university ranked as the top university in the world in 2016 (Academic Ranking of World Universities [ARWU], 2017). Nevertheless, thanks to distance

learning opportunities provided by HU, anybody in any regions in the world can access almost one thousand different courses taught at HU (Harvard University, 2017). Considering that some of these courses are for free, people from different economic backgrounds can reach these courses.

Due to its above mentioned function, distance learning can be used as a means for distributing education to whole the society. In this sense, distance learning ensures social equity which "the result of self-directed learning that permits every individual to choose a life trajectory by developing in personally meaningful ways" (Rovai et al., p. 13). This idea could mainly be grounded link between democracy and education raised by Dewey (1916) more than a century ago.

Social function of education. He notes that "the most notable distinction between living and inanimate things is that the former maintain themselves by renewal" (Dewey, 2011, p. 5). People's renewals happen in society via transmission of experiences and knowledge from generation to generation. For an efficient function of this renewal, it is expected to be continuous. This continuity can be attained by education. This is because "what nutrition and reproduction are to physiological life, education is to social life" (Dewey, 2011, p. 9). This nutrition can be provided at school which is defined as "the first office of the social organ" (Dewey, 2011, p. 15).

It is not possible to imagine a society without education as "society is one word, but many things" (Dewey, 2011, p. 47). People live together in society. This togetherness should be as democratic as possible for the sake of mutual sharing of experiences among individuals in society. In this sense, democracy of education is of vital importance as experiences are shared through education. Therefore, "the aim of education is to enable individuals to continue their education" (Dewey, 2011, p. 57).

So that, "class, race and national territory" (Dewey, 2011, p. 50) should not be a barrier for access to education. In this sense, distance learning "increases access to learning opportunities by persons who are unable to subscribe to the scheduling and location demands traditional instruction" (Rovai et al., 2008, p. 14).

To conclude, use of high developed technology in distance learning ensures independence of time and place and this independence ensures access to learning anywhere. Another theory of distance learning is Perraton's.

2.2.3.6 Perraton's Theory

In Perraton's theory (1983), the assumptions of expanding education via distance learning, increasing dialogue in distance learning and coming up with an effective method for distance learning are provided

First assumption is expanding education via distance learning. Accordingly, "distance teaching can reach audiences who would not be reached by orthodox means" (Perraton, 1983, p. 38). Therefore, any means of media should be used for this purpose. In distance learning, one teacher can teach a mass of learners at a distance. This makes it cheaper for learners as they do not need to travel to school (Perraton, 1983).

Second assumption is increasing dialogue in distance learning. From this point of view, interaction between teacher and learners and among learners should be strong in distance learning. The role of a teacher in distance learning is more than just broadcasting. A teacher in distance learning should be easy to reach, guarantee interaction among learners through group work and if possible, s/he should arrange a face-to-face meeting with his/her distance learners. To enrich dialogue in distance

courses, regional or local topics can be covered as a content for sharing views mutually (Perraton, 1983).

Third assumption is coming up with an effective method for distance learning. Accordingly, not just one type of media, but multimedia should be used in distance learning. Next, a systems approach should be adopted for a distance learning programme. That is, distance learning should be very well-planned to use the most effective media, content and assessment. Lastly, a distance learning program can be incomplete if feedbacks about it are not obtained. Therefore, feedbacks from teachers and learners should be obtained and carefully evaluated (Perraton, 1983).

Perraton's theory (1983) assumes that distance learning can be used as a means for expanding education to individuals from different social, cultural, economic and geographical backgrounds. Therefore, it should include interaction, correct use of media and feedback-based evaluation.

Consequently, an overview on the theoretical foundations of distance learning reveals that distance learning is considered as a means for income generation, expanding education and ensuring social equity. A historical overview of distance learning practices will reveal how these theoretical assumptions have appeared in practice.

2.2.4 History of distance learning

With the development of communication technology, distance learning has become a widely used way of learning in different levels of education. However, the development and spreading of today's widespread phenomenon did not occur overnight. Conversely, it took quite a long time. This can be clustered into the levels

of passive interaction (1880s-1960s), passive to moderately active interaction (1960s-1990s) and high interaction (1990s-21st century).

2.2.4.1 Passive interaction level (1880s-1960s)

It is stated that "distance learning is at least 160 years old" (Simonson et al., 2015, p. 36). This argument is based on an advertisement in a newspaper in 1833 in Sweden. Accordingly, the advertisement was about studying at a distance and entitled as "composition through the medium of post" (Simonson et al., 2015, p. 36). Yet, Battenberg (1971) reports that an advertisement of distance learning by post dates back to 1728 in which learning stenography by post was announced.

Researchers do not agree on the specific date of the first example of distance learning. However, the early examples can be considered as examples of correspondence study which can be defined as "a correct designation of that subgroup of the print-based areas of distance education in which student contact is not encouraged" (Keegan 1983b, p. 27). In other words, it is learning by post in which learners are mentored by a tutor at a distance.

The development of distance learning continued with the spread of correspondence study. In 1873, a society of correspondence study was founded in Boston to inspire people to study at home. In the next quarter century, over ten thousand individuals participated in this campaign. Next, in 1891, a newspaper called *the Mining Herald* in Pennsylvania provided miners with correspondence study to prevent any accidents in mines. On the other hand, correspondence study became widespread in Europe as well. In 1898, an organization called Hermod's was founded in Sweden and it offered courses of English as a second language. Lastly, in 1939 a correspondence study centre was founded in France. It functioned as a provider of

distance learning for both children and adults following the WW2 (Simonson et al., 2015).

2.2.4.2 Passive to moderately active interaction level (1960s-1990s)

The early efforts of spreading distance learning was mainly correspondence study-based. This made the learners passive as there was no interaction between the tutor and learners. However, this changed with the new developments in communication technology.

One of the developments in distance learning between the 1960s and 1990s was the emergence of satellite technology. People living in the Appalachian Region in North America were taught several courses including health, education and fire fighting. This satellite technology turned into a more systematic one in 1978 in the USA as regular courses were broadcast on public televisions in the masses of people (Chaloux & Miller, 2014).

The satellite technology led to another development in communication technology which is the development of audio-conference. This provided distance learning students and teachers with the chance of two-way interaction. Loud-speaker phones were used in it and students at different locations were taught at the same time and interacted among each other (Demiray & İşman, 2003).

Lastly, a noteworthy improvement in distance learning between the 1960s and 1990s was the production of personal computer (PC). As an information technology company headquartered in the USA, International Business Machines (IBM) announced that it produced the first PC (Buckland and Dye, 1991). This is a revolution in the history of distance learning as it would enable individuals to have computers at home.

2.2.4.3 High interaction level (1990s-21st Century)

The last period in the history of distance learning covers the 1990s and now on. In 1993, World Wide Web (WWW) was launched as the first browser of the internet. This could be considered as the beginning of the modern distance learning (Chaloux & Miller, 2014). It was followed by significant improvements in distance learning. In 1994, the organization called CALCampus began to offer online courses. Course and content management system called Blackboard, which is still used by millions of students in the world, was founded in 1997. In 2005, Youtube, a video sharing website, was launched and thousands of online courses in various disciplines became available on it. In 2012, an organization called Udacity started to broadcast Massive Online Open Courses (MOOCs). So that, thousands of learners in different parts of the world could enrol in the same online courses (Miller, 2014).

To conclude, beginning from the 1700s up until today, distance learning has undergone considerable improvements. Currently, smart phones enable people to connect a course taught by a tutor in another country. This historical changes have been practiced in higher education as well.

2.2.5 Distance learning in higher education

Today, universities are main providers of distance learning. While Indira Gandhi University of India teaches three and half million online learners, Anadolu University in Turkey has two millions distance students. However, the link between distance learning and universities is not new. Beginning from the evolution of distance learning up to the present, distance learning and higher education have tightly been related to each other. In this section, the historical overview of distance learning in higher education is provided at first. This is followed by an original

model for university and distance learning relation proposed by the author of this dissertation.

2.2.5.1 Historical overview of distance learning in higher education

The relation between higher education and distance learning started in the very beginning of the history of distance learning. First examples of distance learning at higher education-level were offered by the units of correspondence founded at Skerry's College in 1878 in Edinburgh and at University Correspondence College in 1887 in London. In the meantime, in the USA, the divisions of correspondence education at Illinois Wesleyan University started to provide correspondence courses in 1877 and which was followed by the University of Chicago in 1892. The distance learning department at Illinois Wesleyan University offered even doctoral programs which could be regarded as a vital academic progress in distance learning at that time. In the twentieth century, the university-distance learning relation continued. In 1929, the university of Nebraska started to offer correspondence courses even at high school level. This could be regarded as an extraordinary function of a university. And, one of the milestones in the history of distance learning was in 1962 when the University of South Africa turned into a distance education university. It was a sign for further institutional developments in the university-distance learning relation in the following years (Simonson et al., 2015).

In 1969, the foundation of the Open University (OU) in the UK (OU, 2016) could be regarded as a vital step for the institutionalization of universities that offer mostly or completely distance teaching. The OU used both written and visual materials for its distance learners. It collaborated with the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) and provided its learners with video programs. This

organizational efforts of the OU became so influential that it became a model provider of distance learning in the world. Course materials of the OU was adapted to the American education by the University of Maryland University College and then used by several other institutions in the USA (OU, 2016; Simonson et al., 2015).

Lastly, the first browser of the internet was released by the University of Illinois in 1993 (Chaloux & Miller, 2014). It provided universities with the use of the internet in distance learning. So that, universities can access masses of learners in different parts of the world at the same time today. The top five open universities which access the highest number of students are provided in Table 19.

Table 19. Top Five Open Universities with Largest Enrolments

Rank	Open University	Country	Number of Students (million)
1	Indira Gandhi	India	3.5
2	Anadolu	Turkey	2
3	Islamic Azad	Iran	1.7
4	Allama Iqbal	Pakistan	1.3
5	Payame Noor	Iran	1.1

Source: [Worldatlas, 2017].

Table 19 shows that Indira Gandhi University of India offers distance teaching for 3.5 million learners. It is followed by Anadolu University in Turkey which has two million students. Two Iranian universities, Islamic Azad and Payame Noor, are on

the list with respectively 1.7 and 1.1 million students, while Allama Iqbal University of Pakistan is the fourth largest open university between them with 1.3 million students.

To conclude, universities have an important role in the development of distance learning. Today, universities function as a provider of distance learning which teach masses of online learners. To discuss this relation within a theoretical framework, a model for university-distance learning will be proposed in the next section.

2.2.5.2 A Model Proposal for University-Distance Learning Relation

Universities have taken an active role in inventing new communication technology to be used in distance learning, Being the main providers of it, universities spread distance learning as well. Figure 16 shows a model of this link.

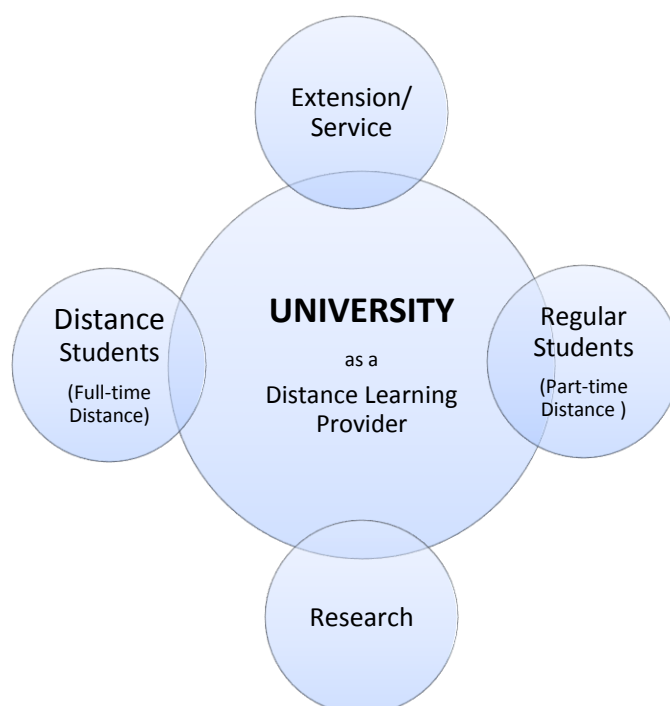


Figure 16 Model of university-distance learning relation

Figure 16 shows how a university offers distance learning through its different functions. First, a university offers distance learning through its function of teaching. In this function, it teaches both its regular students enrolled in a formal program or distance students enrolled in its unit of open education. For example, at Istanbul University, students enrolled formal education programs are offered online English Language courses. As they take only a few courses online, they can be considered as part-time distance learners. On the other hand, students enrolled open education faculty of the same university are offered all the courses online. These students can be considered as full-time distance learners. So that, a university can have both part and full time distance students.

Next, a university can employ distance learning in its research collaborations. For example, as the author of this dissertation, I work for a university in Turkey. In 2016, I and two friends of mine who were doctoral candidates in Italy and Germany decided to write an article on a topic of comparative adult learning. Nevertheless, we needed the support of a German professor who was an expert on the topic. As we were in three different countries, we did not have the chance of meeting in person. Therefore, we made use of distance learning. For a couple of weeks, the German professor taught us on Skype. And then, we could write the article. This suggests that distance learning can be used for international research collaboration.

Last, a university can offer distance learning through its extension or community service programs. For example, the Lifelong Learning Centre of Boğaziçi University in Turkey offers academic, social-cultural and vocational programs for any individuals interested in it. Adult learners, who cannot participate in regular face-to-face courses, are offered online English Language program. In this program, learners are expected to complete different levels of online modules

themselves and contact their mentor via e-mail, video-conferencing or in-person when they need help or guidance.

To sum up, universities have been main providers of distance learning today. They fulfil this through teaching, research and extension. As the current dissertation is conducted at an open education faculty in Turkey, a specific overview on the development of distance learning in Turkey and link between distance learning and the Turkish higher education will be presented in the next section.

2.2.6 Distance learning in Turkey

In this section, distance learning in Turkey is discussed. Initially, a historical overview of distance learning in Turkey is provided. It is followed by the current overview of distance learning in the Turkish higher education.

2.2.6.1 Historical overview of distance learning in Turkey

Early institutional efforts of distance learning in Turkey started in the 1950s although distance learning in the world dates back to earlier years. Khoshemehr (2013) attributes it to the lowness of the literacy level in the country at that time. He implies that the educational efforts concentrated initially on raising the literacy level in the country and this inevitably delayed the steps to be taken for distance learning.

One of the early institutional efforts of distance learning was in the second half of the 1950s. At that time, people working for banks in Turkey needed in-service training. As a practical way of teaching those bank workers, distance learning was used. Accordingly, Ankara University taught these bank workers via postal service (Aydın, 2011). Distance teaching of bank workers by a university is noteworthy as it could be regarded as an early example of a university's community service via

distance learning in Turkey. This was followed by the Turkish Ministry of National Education (MNE). The MNE took institutional steps to spread distance learning around the country. Accordingly, in 1960, it opened the Centre of Learning by Post at the ministry. This is followed by the foundation of the Institution of Informal Higher Education (YAYKUR) at the ministry (Demiray and Adıyaman, 2010; Ergin, 2015).

The efforts of the MNE enabled thousands of individuals to access to informal learning. Nevertheless, no institutional step could be as influential as the foundation of Anadolu University Open Education Faculty in 1982. The faculty started to offer several certificate and associate degree programs at first. And then, in 1993, it started to offer undergraduate degree programs (Anadolu University, 2017). Today, the university still teaches more than two million students which makes it one of the top universities by enrolment rate (Worldatlas, 2017).

2.2.6.2 Current overview of distance learning in the Turkish Higher Education

As noted before, distance learning has been used in Turkey since the 1950s. Today, masses of individuals in Turkey are provided higher education via distance learning. Figure 17 shows the number and ratio of university students in formal and distance education in Turkey.

Currently, there are 6689185 students in the Turkish higher education system. Figure 17 shows that 54% of this number, which equals to around 3.6 million, is provided formal education. And, the rest 46%, which equals to around 3.1 million, is provided distance education. This distribution reveals that almost one in every two university students in Turkey is a distance learner. In other words, distance learning is an important means for offering higher education in Turkey.

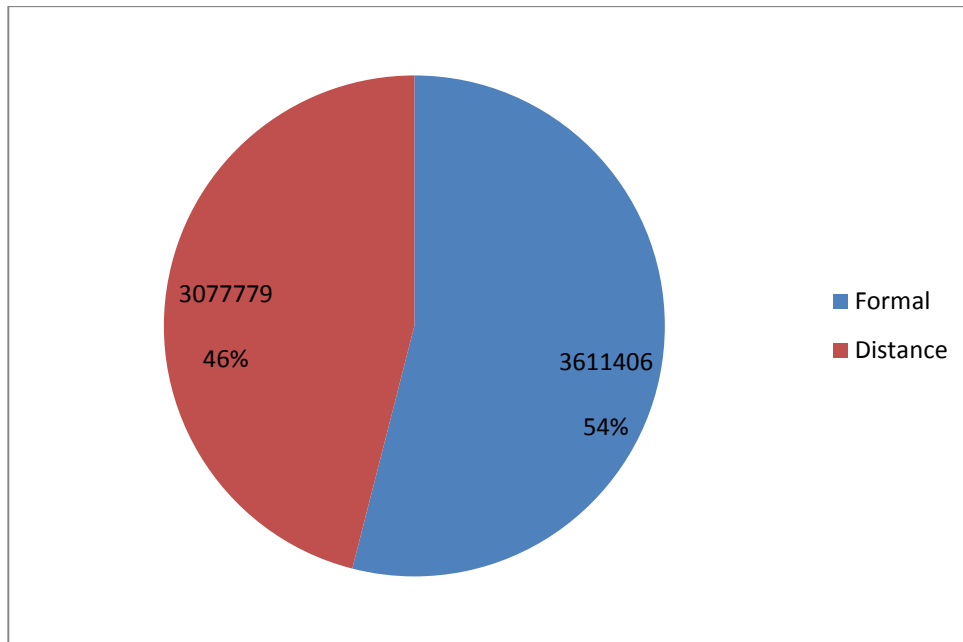


Figure 17 University students in Turkey by formal and distance education
Source: [YÖK, 2017].

The high ratio of distance learners in the Turkish higher education reveals that distance learning is popular in Turkey as an alternative to traditional higher education. Hakan et al. (2013) question the reasons for becoming a distance learner in higher education in Turkey. In their study, almost half a million distance university students are asked to state the primary reason why they preferred to distance learning. 34% of the participants state that they have the desire to compensate for the formal education opportunity they have missed out before. 32% of the participants indicate that they would like to learn academic knowledge in their area of interests or get a promotion in their jobs. These most frequently stated reasons are followed by other reasons including having a university diploma, suspending the military service and having not enough money for formal higher education. It reveals that distance learning in higher education is popular among people in Turkey for several reasons. These attract both women and men. Figure 18 shows the ratio of female and male distance university students in Turkey.

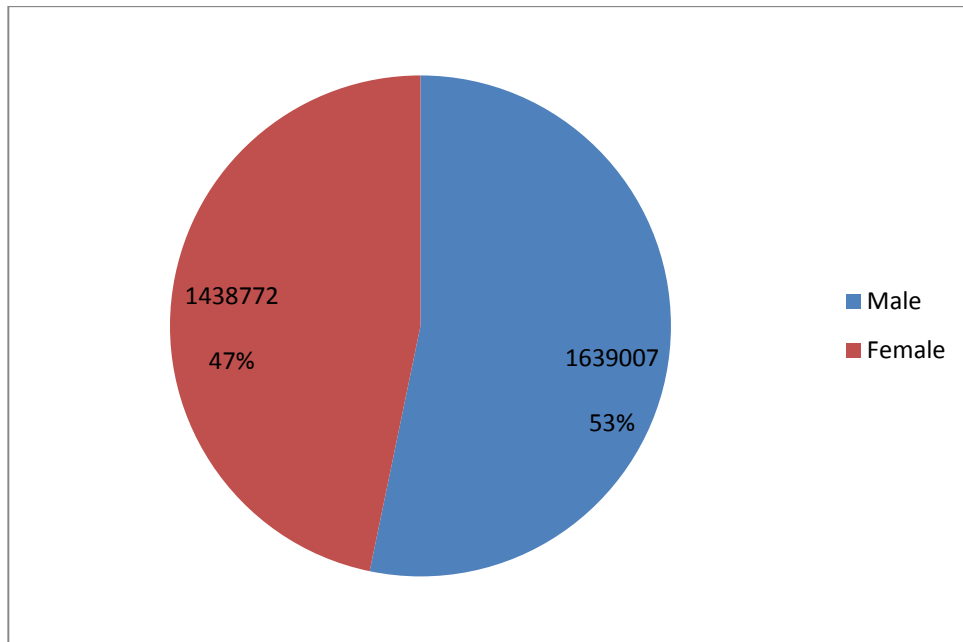


Figure 18 Ratio of female and male distance university students in Turkey
Source: [YÖK, 2017].

Figure 18 shows that 47% of distance university students in Turkey, which is equal to over 1.4 million, is female. And, 53% of distance university students in Turkey, which is equal to over 1.6 million, is male.

2.2.7 Summary of the section

The detailed discussion on distance learning reveals that it is a type of learning that dates back to two centuries ago. Several definitions of it refer that it provides learners and teacher with independence of time and place, it is offered by an institution, contents are conveyed via media and communication between teacher and learners is interactive. Different theoretical perspectives reveal that it is used as a means for expanding education, assuring social equity and generating income.

Distance learning and higher education have always been in a close relationship with each other. Universities have developed communication technology which has made distance learning more convenient. Distance learning has been used

in Turkey for more than half a century. Today, there are more than three million distance learners in Turkey.

The sections about internationalization of higher education and distance learning reveal that both take place on today's higher education agenda for several rationales. In this sense, exploring the link between the two is noteworthy as this exploration can enhance internationalization of higher education.

2.3 Link between internationalization of higher education and distance learning

Internationalization and distance learning are realities are two topics on . On the one hand, universities aim to become more international for academic, economic, social/cultural and political rationales (Knight, 2004, 2005, 2008). On the other hand, they keep up with swiftly developing communication technology and integrate it into their fundamental functions of teaching, research and community services (Chaloux & Miller, 2014; Simonson et al., 2015).

There is no theory specifically focusing on the link between internationalization of higher education and use of distance learning in higher education. Nevertheless, the institutional aim of becoming more international and integrating up-to-dated communicative technology into teaching is of vital importance. This is because these processes can significantly influence course contents, diversity of students/academics, mobility of students/academics/campuses, the way courses are taught and institutional policies and strategies. With this in mind, the question should be raised here is whether these two agendas of universities are connected to each other. In other words, if internationalization and use of distance learning are two desires of universities, can these two phenomena fuel each other? The answer of this question will be sought by discussing internationalization of

higher education at home and possible link between distance learning and rationales for internationalization of higher education.

2.3.1 Internationalization of higher education at home: An emerging stream

Internationalization of higher education dates back to thousands of years ago when sophists visited idea centres around the world and learnt from each other at that time (Hudzik, 2015). Since then, international academics and students have been visiting other modern universities around the world (Gürüz, 2011; Huang, 2014).

Internationalization of higher education has continued throughout thousands of years. However, important to note here is that the continuous process of internationalization of higher education is still considered to be physical mobility only. In other words, it is still analyzed through the physical movements of academics and students from a country to another. Even the most recent and regular global reports on internationalization of higher education evaluate the degree of internationalization through the comparative numbers of mobile international academics and students by countries (IIE, 2017; OECD, 2016; UNESCO Statistics, 2017). However, in the last 2500 years of time, communication and transportation technology has developed significantly. While communication and transportation technology has undergone an essential development, why does internationalization of higher education still have to depend on physical mobility today?

There is no one universally accepted theory that is able to answer the question raised above. However, internationalization at home can shed light on it. Although the concept has been discussed before (Crowther et al., 2001), not much has been written about the theoretical framework of it. What is more, it has still been conceptualized differently. While Knight (2008) names it as a stream or pillar of

internationalization of higher education, de Wit et al. (2015) name it as a pillar of strategy, a policy or a component of internationalization of higher education. It is defined as "any internationally related activity with the exception of outbound student and staff mobility" (Wachter, 2001, p. 6) in which physical movement is not included. Similarly, it is also defined as "a term developed to bring attention to those aspects of internationalization which would happen on a home campus" (Knight, 2008, p. 22).

Internationalization of higher education at home is considered as a "counteract" (Knight, 2008, p. 23) and "reaction to" (de Wit et al., 2015, p. 49) physical mobility-oriented understanding of internationalization of higher education. The idea is that physical mobility-oriented internationalization is not enough to expand internationalization of higher education. This is because only 4.3 million students study at a university in another country (UNESCO Statistics, 2017). It means that students, who cannot move to another country for study at a university, are still a vast majority. Similarly, ERASMUS+, intra-European academic mobility program, has been implemented with a budget of fifteen billion euro (European Commission, 2016). However, despite this budget, ratio of mobile university students to the total number of students in the EHEA is still 4.5% (UNICollaboration, 2014). It means that traditional understanding of internationalization of higher education is not sufficient for internationalizing all. In other words, the understanding of internationalization abroad does not enable every student to study abroad. For this reason, rather than internationalization abroad, internationalization at home could be used as a means for spreading internationalization. This could be attained by internationalizing the curriculum which is the core of internationalization of higher education at home.

Internationalization of higher education at home is "a comprehensive model for curricular and co-curricular learning that aims to ensure that all students have opportunities to engage in global, international, and intercultural learning in classrooms and across campuses" (Agnew & Kahn, 2015, p. 31). Accordingly, in internationalization of higher education at home, the curriculum is the main source of learning. Therefore, integrating global, multicultural and multinational aspects into the curriculum is of vital importance.

Internationalization of the curriculum is "the introduction of international and intercultural elements into the curriculum" (Nilsson, 2001, p. 21). It includes internationalization of "the learning outcomes, assessment tasks, teaching methods and support services of a program of study" (Leask, 2015, p. 9). How this could be succeeded is another issue that is worth discussing.

The curriculum can become more international if a second language program or regional topics are added, new multicultural topics are embedded and students who have returned from study-abroad are included in classes. In addition, these curricular improvements should be supported by extra-curricular ones including student societies and other multicultural social activities (Knight, 2008). In addition, experts should be invited as guests in the courses and the literature used in courses should be internationally comparative (Beelen and Jones, 2015). Next, faculty members should be included in the efforts of internationalizing the curriculum. Besides, as the experiences of students who have returned from abroad is of vital importance, they should be encouraged to actively participate in courses. Finally, all these processes should be implemented in a close contact with international accreditation organizations that have global criteria for internationalizing the curriculum (National Association of Foreign Student Advisers [NAFSA], 2017).

Several steps to take to make the curriculum more multicultural, multinational and global is provided above from various perspectives. It is argued here that these steps can be taken more easily with the help of distance learning. In other words, distance learning can catalyze internationalization of the curriculum for practical, economic and social reasons.

First of all, internationalization of the curriculum can become more practical by distance learning. As noted above, internationalization of the curriculum requires including guest lecture of international experts in the curriculum. However, bureaucracy such as working permit and visa regulations and time pressure may not make a guest lecture possible. This could be overcome with the flexibility of distance learning as it provides tutors and learners with the separation of time and geography (Simonson et al., 2015). Rather than a short guest lecture by an international expert, longer and more frequent lectures online can be provided.

Secondly, internationalizing the curriculum with the help of distance learning could be more economical. Travel expenses of guest international experts, cost of printed materials for each learner, physical equipments and capacity of classes can all limit internationalizing the curriculum. Nevertheless, in internationalization of the curriculum via distance learning, less would be spent on them as guest experts can teach online, more students can be taught at the same time and e-materials can be used.

Thirdly, distance learning can bring more social equity into internationalization of the curriculum. That is, internationalization of higher education at home is expected to internationalize more academics and students without forcing them to move from a country to another. It means that internationalization of higher education at home has a social mission of providing

more people with the access to the international curriculum. Rovai et al. (2008) note that distance learning has a mission of ensuring social equity as it enables people to compensate for higher education that they have missed out before. Similarly, internationalized content could be conveyed to academics and learners even by smart phones today. So that, more and more people could reach the internationalized curriculum.

To conclude, the flexibility of time and place in distance learning can make internationalization of the curriculum more practical, cheaper and accessible. This assumption will be discussed in relation to rationales for internationalization of higher education.

2.3.2 Distance learning and rationales for internationalization

Today, university administrators or other policymakers of higher education desire to internationalize their universities or higher education systems for academic, economic, social/cultural and political rationales (Knight, 2008). Traditionally, these rationales are discussed without linking them to distance learning. However, distance learning is a transformative process that could be embedded into internationalization of higher education at home and internationalizing the curriculum. In this sense, rationales for internationalization of higher education should be considered in relation with distance learning.

Internationalization of higher education and distance learning are interdependent to each other. So as to explore this interdependency, the rationales for internationalization of higher education and use of distance learning in higher education are discussed together with references to conceptual and theoretical frameworks of each.

2.3.2.1 Academic rationale and distance learning

One of the rationale for internationalization of higher education is academic (Knight, 2008). There is a common belief among students, parents and in society that an international university is a good one. In other words, the more international students study at a university, the better it is perceived. Similarly, the more international academics teach at a university, the better it is perceived. In other words, international universities are believed to offer quality education (Ergin, 2015). It is the perception of the general public towards internationalization of higher education. Nevertheless, university administrators and policy makers of higher education have two specific academic rationales for internationalization.

One factor that affects university administrators' perspective towards internationalization of higher education is global university rankings. Being world class, universities desire to prove that they meet international standards (Qiang, 2003; Teichler, 2009). The idea argued here is that distance learning can help a university to be in a global university ranking. To exemplify, THE lists universities in the world every year by five indicators including "teaching, research, citations, international outlook, industry income" (THE, 2017, para. 1). International outlook refers to the number of international academics, students and collaborations. The more international academics, students and collaborations means the better performance in the ranking. At this point, distance learning can have an active role. This is because distance learning can provide the users of it with the flexibility of time and place (Rovai et al., 2008; Simonson et al., 2015). This can save international academics and students the burden of physical mobility. So that, more international students can enrol in an academic program and more international academics can teach in these programs as they do not have to leave their home

countries. This positively affects the international outlook of universities and can help universities achieve better performances in the global university rankings.

Second academic reason for becoming international is to obtain international collaboration for common knowledge production (Egrou-Polak and Hudson, 2010) which enhances both institutional advancements and professional developments of academics (Svetlik & Lalic, 2016). The idea argued here is that international collaboration of universities can be enriched with the use of distance learning. Unlike the common belief, distance learning is an interactive practice of learning. As Perraton (1983) notes in his theory of distance learning, distance learning can be interactive and dialogue friendly. In this interactive environment, adults can share their experiences that make them unique (Knowles, 1980). For example, a professor in a university in Turkey can weekly teach an online qualitative research methods course to a group of master's students including the ones in the home university and others on the three branch campuses of the university in the USA, China and Australia. The international diversity in the class may not be limited to those countries as students from other countries neighbouring to the branch campuses attends classes as well. The class meets on an online platform every week. At the end of the semester, the professor and students can agree to publish the students' essays as an e-book. This international collaboration can be achieved thanks to distance learning. Otherwise, in a face-to-face course, the same diversity and pace of collaboration might not be obtained.

To conclude, international universities are believed offer quality teaching. On the other hand, universities desire to increase the number of their international students and collaborations. As distance learning could be a practical way of

achieving this. Next section presents a discussion on the economic rationale for internationalization of higher education and distance learning.

2.3.2.2 Economic rationale and distance learning

Internationalization of higher education is considered as a source of income for universities (Knight, 2008). This is mainly because international students are usually charged higher tuition fees than local students (Kalkınma Bakanlığı, 2015).

The argument here is that if a university internationalizes via distance learning, it can generate more income. The number of international students in face-to-face learning is usually limited as physical conditions of classrooms require a quota and expenses of travel from a country to another and living there is a burden on international students' shoulders. As distance learning removes all of these, more international students can be attracted by a university, and as a result, more income can be generated from their tuition fees.

To sum up, universities seek for ways of generating income today. Use of distance learning can help them enrol more international students and obtain more tuition fees. Beside this, the social/cultural rationale for internationalization of higher education and distance learning is worth discussion.

2.3.2.3 Social/Cultural rationale and distance learning

Nations and universities desire internationalization of higher education not only for its academic and economic benefits but also for its social and cultural mission. Accordingly, internationalization of higher education enables administrators, academics, students and other staff members at a university to interact with administrators, academics, students and other staff members at universities in other

countries. It develops mutual understanding among them (Knight, 1997; 2008). So that, they can acquire intercultural skills. In addition, in this international contact, they can introduce their cultural and historical values to each other.

Distance learning is not a mechanic way of learning that ignores social/cultural aspects. It enables people to access quality education that they have missed out before. Therefore, with the help of communication technology, distance learning is expected to be as expansive as possible to reach learners from different social, cultural, economic and national backgrounds at various locations.

In physical mobility-oriented internationalization of higher education, contact among learners from different countries might be limited due to the burden of the mobility such as travelling. However, in internationalization of higher education via distance learning, students from different countries work in online groups, exchange their ideas during online courses and experience learning together. Thanks to the flexibility of geography and time in distance learning, online courses can include more international students. So that, local students can have the chance of having classmates from diverse countries.

In conclusion, distance learning provides academics and students with online intercultural exchange. So that, they can learn from other cultures and introduce their own cultural values.

2.4 Summary of the chapter

The comprehensive survey of literature above reveals that internationalization of higher education has been a transformative phenomenon that is desired for several rationales by universities. Beside this, with its flexibility of separating time and geography, distance learning has widely been used in higher education. It can be

assumed that if internationalization of higher education is planned and implemented via distance learning, academic, economic and social/cultural outcomes of it can be enhanced. The next chapter will present methodological details of the study.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

"Persons should not do research because they have to but because they want to".
(Corbin & Strauss, 2015, p. 14)

This chapter presents detailed information about the research methodology, research questions, data collection instruments, research setting, participants, pilot study, data collection procedures, credibility of the data, data analysis, sensitivity, ethical assurances and position of the researcher.

3.1 Research methodology

This section provides background information about use of the qualitative approach and grounded theory in this study.

3.1.1 Qualitative approach

The reason for employing the qualitative research in this study is the research topic and research questions of the study. This study focuses on internationalization of higher education which forces universities to become "international, intercultural or global" (Knight, 2003; p.2). Although it dates back to more than two thousand years ago (Gürüz, 2011), the common understanding of internationalization of higher education has still been mobility-oriented (de Wit et al., 2015). Even regular academic publications on internationalization of higher education by supra-national organizations (OECD, 2016; UNESCO, 2017) focus mainly on the mobility and explain this historical and transformative phenomenon by the numbers and statistics of mobile academics and students. However, internationalization of higher education

is more than this. Although it is globally influential on universities, there is still no one universally accepted definition, description and strategy of internationalization of higher education (Knight, 2015). This inevitably results in a "great diversity in how institutions individually approach" (Hudzik, 2015, p. 133) internationalization of higher education. In this sense, exploring the processes of internationalization of higher education in an institution with the qualitative approach would be contributing to the related literature as it would help me understand how an institutional internationalization via distance learning is planned and implemented "in a natural setting" (Creswell, 2007, p. 15).

3.1.2 Grounded theory

There are several techniques of qualitative approach (Seggie & Bayyurt, 2015). In the current study, I adopted grounded theory as it "allows for an analysis without committing to a theory *a priori*" (Lowry, 2017, p.63).

There is no one universal approach to internationalization of higher education (Hudzik, 2015; Knight, 2015). In other words, every higher education institution can have unique understanding and approach to internationalization. Higher education administrators plan and practise it considering their institutional priorities, human resources, physical conditions, funds and organization culture. For this reason, I aimed at exploring internationalization of an open education faculty via distance learning without having an already made theory. Therefore, I employed grounded theory as it provides "systematic, yet flexible guidelines for collecting data and analyzing qualitative data to construct theories from the data themselves" (Charmaz, 2014, p. 1). So that, both an institutional approach to internationalization and theoretical model about it would be obtained.

Grounded theory dates back to the 1960s (Birgili, 2015). Since then, several perspectives towards use of literature, sampling type, comparison of concepts and themes with each other and organization of a dissertation have been provided (Charmaz, 2005; Corbin & Strauss, 2015; Dey, 1999; Glaser, 1978; Glaser and Strauss, 1967). In this study, the perspective by Corbin and Strauss (2015) has been taken for two reasons.

First of all, Corbin and Strauss (2015) are not strict about the literature review. In other words, they do not limit reviewing the literature at the very beginning of the research process. This attracted me as I would work on a topic about which I knew little. At the time when I was thinking about the design of the current research, I met an international professor and asked her opinion about this. She advised me to read nothing in the literature and start the research with data collection. I thought on it a lot; however, it did not sound plausible to me. This is because I was completely new to the topic. I was aware that the literature would be shaped during data collection and analysis. I would not start the data analysis with previously determined concepts and categories. Yet, I needed literature to generate my research questions and hold a view on the topic even if I would not be able to have full knowledge of it. With this in mind, I started to read Corbin and Strauss (2015). I learnt about their view on the literature in a grounded theory study. Accordingly, they state that "familiarity with relevant literature can enhance sensitivity to subtle nuances in data" (p. 50). They encourage the review of the literature while they discourage "to enter the field with an entire list of concepts" (p. 50). It was the balance I needed.

Secondly, the organization for a grounded theory based dissertation suggested by Corbin and Strauss (2015) was clear to me. Accordingly, they suggest

reading other dissertations based upon grounded theory, having an idea about the topic through review of the literature, determining the research questions and changing them when needed during data collection and analysis and revisiting the reviewed literature or reviewing more literature during the analysis of data. These suggestions helped me see ahead. This is of vital importance for a qualitative researcher as "guidelines for writing quantitative dissertations are clear since most follow a standard format. However, guidelines for writing qualitative dissertations are less clear" (Corbin and Strauss, 2015, p. 320). So that, these guidelines made me clearer about what to and how to do next.

3.1.3 Summary of the section

This study examines an open education faculty's policy and practices of internationalization via distance learning. As there is not only one approach to internationalization, new institutional explorations about internationalization via distance learning have been expected to reveal in this study. Therefore, this study has been conducted with the qualitative approach. As the researcher has lacked a prior theory, grounded theory has been used to come up with a theoretical framework in the end.

3.2 Research questions

This study aims to seek for the answers of the questions below:

1. How does a faculty with an agenda of internationalization via distance learning operate?
2. What affects the faculty administration's decision making about internationalization via distance learning?

3. What motivates faculty administrators, faculty members and international distance students to take part in international distance programs?
4. What are the institutional and individual advantages of internationalization via distance learning?
5. What are the institutional and individual challenges of internationalization via distance learning?
6. How does internationalization via distance learning transform a faculty, faculty members and international distance students?

The first question is asked to understand how the open education faculty, the research setting in this study, operates. Several aspects of the faculty including physical appearance, division of labour, mechanization and formalization are expected to be revealed in participant observations there. So that, understanding the operation of the faculty is expected to enhance understanding the mass production of distance teaching there.

The second question is asked to reveal the processes of policy making about internationalization via distance learning. Faculty, university, national and supranational levels of documents have been analyzed to understand how and why the faculty's agenda of internationalization via distance learning is influenced by the university administration, YÖK, OECD and THE.

The other questions are asked to reveal how the institutional policy of internationalization via distance learning has been implemented. What reasons have required this implementation, how this policy has been enhanced and challenged in practice and how it has transformed faculty and individuals are explored from the perspectives of the faculty administrators, faculty members and international distance students in semi-structured interviews.

3.3 Data collection instruments

In this study, three data collection instruments are used. These instruments are shown in Figure 19.

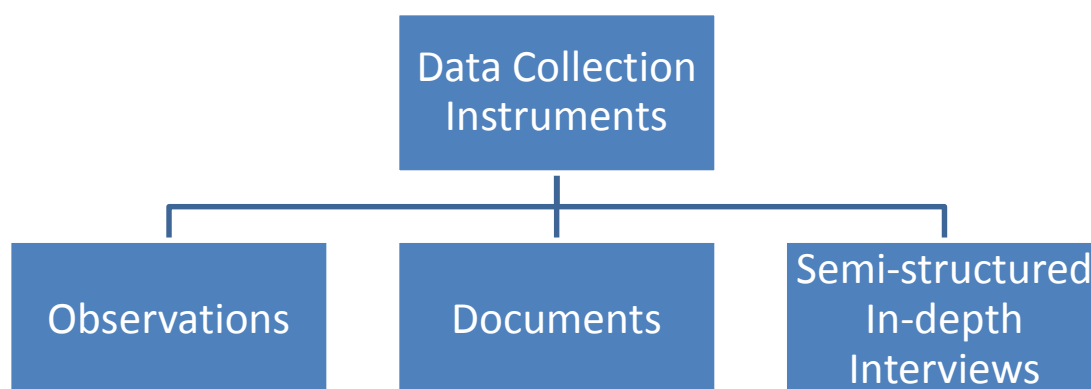


Figure 19 Overview of data collection instruments

As Figure 19 shows observations, documents and semi-structured in-depth interviews are employed in this study. Use of each instrument will be explained in detail.

3.3.1 Observations

In our everyday lives, we make observations and these observations can shape our thoughts about the environment (Sart, 2015). Observations are of vital importance for a qualitative researchers as they cannot ignore the environment surrounding them when they collect data or understand a phenomenon. In this study, I started data collection with participant observations in order to understand the operation of the research setting which was an open education faculty in Turkey.

Participant observation is "a qualitative method with roots in traditional ethnographic research, whose objective is to help researchers learn the perspectives held by study populations" (Mack, Woodsong, MacQueen, Guest, & Namey, 2005; p. 13). A researcher observes things, people, how people relate to each other, rules and daily activities in its natural setting as a participant observer. Important to note is that "the researcher engaged in participant observation tries to learn what life is like for an 'insider' while remaining, inevitably, an 'outsider'" (Mack et al., 2005; p. 13). It means that the researcher does not hide his/her identity from the people in the observed setting. As I needed to make observations systematically (Sart, 2015), I used the guidelines for participant observations (Mack et al., 2005). Accordingly, I made the observations according in the categories of appearance, verbal behaviours and interactions, physical behaviours and gestures, personal space, human traffic and people who stand out.

3.3.2 Documents

Another source of data in the current study is documents. A document is "an original or official paper relied on as the basis, proof, or support of something" (Merriam Webster, 2016b). As research is a procedure which is limited by time, money and personal strength, every document is not worth analyzing for a qualitative researcher. For this reason, documents should be selected considering several criteria. These criteria can include determining the primary and secondary documents and working on the relevant ones. Therefore, education researchers can analyze electronic publications, institutional achieves, personal achieves, blogs, course materials and even school yearbooks in their research. Document analysis can be used not only as a main source of data, but also additional source of data when other sources of data

collection such as semi-structured interviews are already used as a main source of data collection (Ulutaş, 2015). In this sense, I analyzed several documents as an additional source of data in this study. For a more systematic way of analyzing documents in this study, I utilised a very recent model of multilevel antecedents of internationalization (Seebe, Cattaneo, Huisman, & Paleari, 2016). This model is originally used to analyze the rationales for internationalization of higher education. The adapted version is provided in Table 20.

Table 20. Model for Analyzing Documents about Internationalization of Higher Education

M A C R O	Global Context National Context	Global/Country Variations
M E S O	HEI* Level	HEI Goals Profit Research Teaching
M I C R O	Intra HEIs	Internal Actors Students Academics Middle Manager Leadership

Source: Adapted from [Seeber et al., 2016, p. 691]. * Higher Education Institution.

Table 20 shows that documents to be analyzed in this study are divided into the groups of micro, meso and macro. Accordingly, micro level documents include documents produced by the faculty. Meso level documents include documents produced by the university. Last, macro level documents include documents produced at the national level such as the YÖK and supranational level such as the OECD. This multilevel categorization has made the hierarchy among the documents clearer.

3.3.3 Semi-structured in-depth interviews

Lastly, the main data collection instrument in this study is semi-structured in-depth interviews. Interviewing is "a basic mode of inquiry" (Seidman, 2013, p. 80). I have decided to adopt interviews in this research for two reasons. First, I had the experience of interviewing. In my previous studies, I interviewed a diverse group of individuals including female and male inmates in two high security prisons, academics, migrants and the African international students in Turkey (Ergin, 2012, 2013, 2015, 2016). Secondly, I decided to use in-depth interviewing as "at the root of in-depth interviewing is an interest in understanding the lived experience of other people and the meaning they make of that experience" (Seidman, 2013, p. 9). In other words, "at the heart of interviewing research is an interest in other individuals' stories because they are of worth" (Seidman, 2013, p. 9). An institutional story of internationalization of higher education was there and I needed to explore this story contacting persons in the story and learning what was going on there directly from them.

Interviews can be categorized as unstructured, semi-structured and structured. Each type can be used in a grounded theory study. However, structured ones might

narrow the topics mentioned in an interview and it could negatively influence the variety of concepts to be determined, and as a result, theory building (Corbin and Strauss, 2015). Unstructured ones, on the other hand, may not suit researchers who plan to reach more than one participant (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2005). For this reason, I decided to employ semi-structured in-depth interviewing. With this, there would be consistency of the concepts throughout the interviews (Corbin and Strauss, 2015). However, in order to save the flexibility of a grounded theory study, I added probing questions and revisited the questions during data collection and included open-ended questions (Camino, Zeldin, & Payne-Jackson, 1995; Seggie, 2011).

As semi-structured in-depth interviewing includes set of previously planned questions, it required a preparation phase (Akmehmet-Şekerler, 2015). The first thing I needed to do was reviewing the literature. So that I would enhance my knowledge about internationalization of higher education via distance learning and become familiar with the conceptual framework, historical background, current situation, practices and future of it (Corbin and Strauss, 2015). At the end of this review process, I prepared a set of questions for each group of participants including the faculty administrators, faculty members and international distance students. In order to finalize the first draft of the interview protocols, I received the advice of three qualitative research experts including my thesis advisor and two other professors. Besides, I two colleagues of mine to proofread them.

The final version of the interview protocol for the faculty administrators starts with a set of short-answer questions to learn their field of expertise and duration of working at the faculty. It is followed by nine questions to explore their understandings, concerns and decision-making processes in internationalization of the faculty (see Appendix A). Next, the interview protocol for the faculty members

starts with a set of short-answer questions to learn their field of expertise and duration of teaching at the faculty. It is followed by eight questions to explore their experiences of teaching international distance students (see Appendix B). Last, the interview protocol for the international distance students starts with a set of short-answer questions to learn their department, GPA, percentage of attendance to the distance classes, home country, age and employment status. It is followed by nine questions to explore their experiences as international distance students (see Appendix C).

Having completed the steps of the preparation phase for the interview protocols, I was ready for applying to the ethics committee which is detailed in the section of ethical assurances.

3.4 Research setting

The research setting in this study is an open education faculty of a public university in Turkey. I conducted the study at this faculty for three reasons.

First, I had a gatekeeper in the research setting who helped me to collect data there. The gatekeeper was the dean of the faculty. He was very pleased with my study there and he allowed me to make observations and access the documents and participants (Seidman, 2013).

Secondly, the faculty had an agenda of internationalization via distance learning. An office of internationalization was opened in the faculty to make policies about internationalization of the faculty via distance learning and implement them. This would help me access rich sources of documents.

Third reason for choosing the faculty was its proximity to me. That is, I lived in the city where the faculty was. I did know that proximity is not a determining

factor in choosing the research setting in a qualitative research. However, as access to the participants might take a lot of time due to bureaucratic, economic or personal reasons, I considered the proximity could help me visit the research setting frequently (Seidman, 2013).

3.5 Participants

This study includes three group of participants. They are shown in Figure 20.

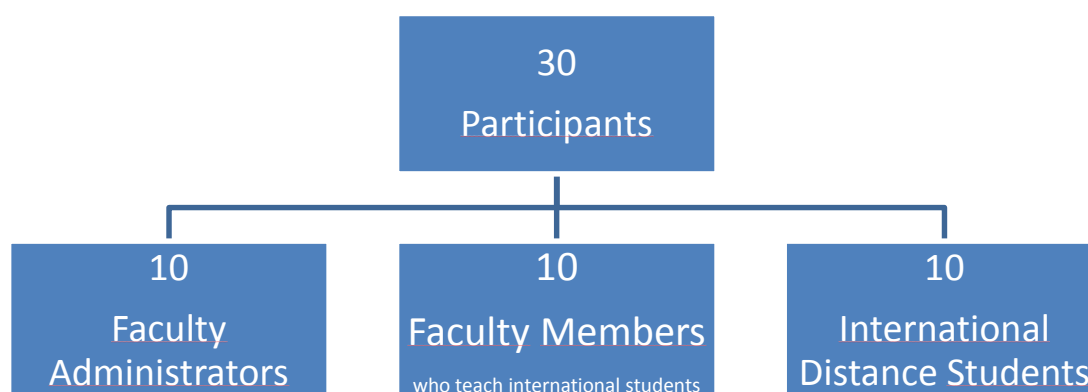


Figure 20 General overview of participants

Figure 20 shows that thirty participants in this study include ten faculty administrators, ten faculty members who teach international distance students and ten international distance students officially enrolled in a program in the faculty.

3.5.1 Faculty administrators

In this study, ten faculty administrators are included as the first group of participants. Information about their sex, administrative positions, duration of administrative positions in the faculty and fields of expertise are shown in Table 21.

Table 21. Overview of Faculty Administrators

Participant ID	Sex	Administrative Position	Duration of Administrative Position	Field of Expertise
FA1	Male	Dean	5	Medicine, PhD
FA2	Male	Vice Dean	2	Social Sciences, PhD
FA3	Male	Vice Dean	2	Sciences, PhD
FA4	Male	Vice Dean	5	Social Sciences, PhD
FA5	Female	Administrative Board Member	3	Social Sciences, PhD
FA6	Male	Administrative Board Member	2	Engineering, PhD
FA7	Male	Administrative Board Member	4	Social Sciences, PhD
FA8	Male	Administrative Board Member	6	Sciences, PhD
FA9	Female	Administrative Board Member	2	Social Sciences, PhD
FA10	Male	Director of Internationalization Office	5	Social Sciences, BA

Table 21 shows that two of the faculty administrators are female and eight are male. Next, the duration of the faculty administrators' experiences in the research setting varies between two and six years. Except the director of the internationalization office, all hold a PhD. Six faculty administrators have degrees in social sciences while two have degrees in science and two have degrees in medicine or engineering.

3.5.2 Faculty members

Second group of participants includes ten faculty members who teach international distance students. My criteria were having a minimum five years experience of teaching international distance students and living in the city where the faculty was. So that, I would obtain rich experiences and contact them easily as I lived in that city as well. An overview of the faculty members are presented in Table 22:

Table 22. Overview of Faculty Members

Participant ID	Sex	Field of Expertise	Duration of Teaching
FM1	Female	Social	5
FM2	Male	Social	6
FM3	Female	Social	6
FM4	Male	Social	5
FM5	Female	Social	5
FM6	Male	Social	6
FM7	Female	Health	6
FM8	Male	Health	6
FM9	Male	Engineering	6
FM10	Male	Engineering	6

Table 22 shows that six male and four female faculty members are included in the study. Two faculty members are academics in health sciences, two are in engineering and six are in social sciences. Last, seven of them have six years experience of teaching international distance students while three have five years experience of teaching them.

3.5.3 International distance students

Third group of participants in the study includes international distance students. I employed purposeful selection to include them out of 300 international students in the faculty. I included the ones who completed at least first year in their distance learning programs, regularly participated in online classes and never failed in any of their classes due to absence. In addition, I revisited the geographical distribution of the international distance students' home countries. As there were students from four continents, I included students from all the continents to keep the diversity. Table 23 shows an overview of the international distance students who participated in the study.

Table 23 shows that ten international distance students are included in the group of participants in this study. Five of them are from Asia, two are from America, two are from Europe and one is from Africa. Six of these students are female and four are male. The participants had a minimum 80% attendance to their distance courses. The range of their ages varies between twenty and twenty-nine. Seven of them are enrolled in a social science program while two are in health sciences and one is in engineering. Last, five of them are employed, four are unemployed and one is part-time employed.

Table 23. Overview of International Distance Students

ID	Region	Home Country	Sex	Department	Year	Attendance (%)	Age	Working Status
1	Africa	Sudan	M	Economics	4	90	25	Yes
2	America	Bolivia	F	Communication	2	80	22	No
3		Cuba	F	Communication	2	95	29	Yes
4	Asia	Azerbaijan	M	Industrial Engineering	3	90	22	Yes
5		China	F	Labour Economics	4	95	20	No
6		Russia	F	Business	2	100	22	No
7		Syria	M	Communication	2	80	23	Yes
8		Syria	M	Business	3	80	24	No
9	Europe	Germany	F	Child Development	2	95	21	Part-time
10		Ukraine	F	Occupational Health and Safety	2	85	26	Yes

To conclude, the participants of the study included the groups of faculty administrators, faculty members and international distance students. All of them were parts of the faculty's internationalization via distance learning. Therefore, this diversity in the participants would help me understand internationalization of the faculty from different perspectives.

3.6 Pilot study

Before collecting data, I needed to conduct a pilot study to foresee and plan the actual data collection procedure. For this, I made interviews with one faculty administrator, two faculty members and three international distance students.

First, the pilot interview with a faculty administrator was very useful for me as it helped me develop a strategy for productive interviews with the faculty administrators. Initially, the interviewee did not want me to record his voice during the interview. Therefore, I decided to have paper and pen with me for the interviews. Second, the faculty administrator I met was very busy. Therefore, I came up with the idea that I should always make an appointment before I visit the faculty administrators. Third, I planned to have one hour of interview. However, it lasted one hour and fifteen minutes. I decided to inform the interviewees about a possible extension.

Secondly, the interviews with faculty members were helpful for me in two ways. First, one of the interviewee offered me to change the place of meeting and the other offered me to change the meeting time. I decided to spare more time before the interviews considering possible changes in time and place. Second, I recorded the first interview in the cafe. However, when I checked it at home, I noticed that the voice was not clear enough to understand as the cafe was too noisy. Therefore, I decided to take notes even if I record the voice in the interviews and I also decided to buy an extra microphone for my tape recorder.

Last, different from the previous ones, I made online interviews with three international students. It was beneficial for me in several ways. First of all, even if I met them online and I had the chance of recording it easily, I could not do it as the international distance students did not allow me to do. So, I decided to have paper

and pen with me in the online interviews as well. Next, I could not meet one of the international students on Skype as there was a misunderstanding due to the differences in the local time zones. I came up with a decision that I would need to be more clear about the meeting time considering any differences of local time. Last, one of the international distance students did not reply me back although I e-mailed him twice. I realized that I should consider possible delays when I schedule online interviews with international distance students.

3.7 Data collection procedures

The current study is based on the multiple sources of data collection including observations, documents and semi-structured interviews. Each procedure will be detailed respectively.

3.7.1 Observations

Observation was one of the data collection procedures I employed in the study. Before I started observations, I reviewed the literature about why and how observations should be made in a qualitative study (Corbin and Strauss, 2015; Sart, 2015). This helped me understand the value of my observations. Accordingly, observations would help me see my participants in their daily working lives. So that, I would understand them better when they complained about something at work, shared their plans about work or got exhausted because of long working hours. Beside this, the combination of observations with semi-structured interviews provide a qualitative researcher with more productive interviews (Corbin and Strauss, 2015). This is because the research setting and daily working lives of the interviewees could

be known for the qualitative researcher and this familiarity could make answers of interviewees in a semi-structured interview more understandable.

With this in mind, in my each visit to the research setting, I wore the participant observer's hat. That is, every staff member knew that I was a researcher there. At first, they found my existence odd as I noticed that they were staring at me and thinking about who I was and why I was there. However, as time passed by, they embraced me as a part of their working lives. They did their best to answer my questions about the operation of the faculty. Undoubtedly, the fact that the dean of the faculty was my gatekeeper made my observations and access to different divisions of the faculty easier. For instance, when I visited the office of internationalization, I learnt about the way the office worked. Similarly, when I got into the students' affairs office, I observed how international distance students academic records were archived. Without my gatekeeper's help, I would not have had the chance of getting into these divisions.

As I had the chance of observing all the faculty, I always had paper and pen when I was there. However, as I observed there as a researcher, I thought that I should make the observations efficiently (Sart, 2015). This is why I had the guidelines for participant observations named *What to Observe During Participant Observation* (Mack et al., 2005, p. 20). These guidelines enabled me to organize my observations into six categories of appearance, verbal behaviour and interactions, physical behaviour and gestures, personal space, human traffic and people who stand out. Accordingly, I always had paper and pen to write what I observed for each category. I made short notes next to each category when I was in the research setting. When I left the research setting and returned home, I typed my notes on the computer.

3.7.2 Documents

The second supplementary source of data in this study was the official documents about the faculty's policy of internationalization via distance learning. As I reviewed the literature, made observations and interviews, I considered about which documents could help me more in the study (Corbin and Strauss, 2015). This is because there were many documents but I needed to use the ones that were up-to-date, reliable and relevant to the policy and practices of internationalization of higher education via distance learning at the research setting (Ulutaş, 2015).

The interviews I made shaped my opinions about determining what documents to include and how to use them in the study. Before I started the interviews, I thought that I should use any documents about internationalization of the faculty at the institutional level. Nevertheless, as I made the interviews and read the transcriptions of them, I realized that the documents I would include in this study should be at the multiple levels including institutional, national and supranational. This is because the interviews revealed that institutional policy and practices were not independent from the policy and practises of the university, YÖK and supra-national organizations such as the OECD. With this in mind, I selected the documents which are revealed in the interviews as significant policy documents about internationalization of the faculty. Accordingly, at the faculty level, I included the *Standards for Services Offered to International Students* and the *Handbook for the Administrative Systems of the Faculty*. At the university level, I included the *Vision and Mission of the International Relations Office* and the *Vision and Mission of the University*. At the national level, I included the *Growth, Quality and Internationalization: A Route Map for the Turkish Higher Education* by the YÖK. Lastly, at the supra-national level, I included the report named as *Education At A*

Glance 2016 by the OECD and *2016-17 Methodology of World University Rankings* by THE. I believed that the hierarchical relation among the documents would provide me with a holistic understanding of internationalization of the research setting via distance learning.

3.7.3 Semi-structured in-depth interviews

The main source of data in this study was semi-structured in-depth interviews with faculty administrators, faculty members and international distance students. The procedures for interviewing each group of participants will be detailed.

Initially, the access to the faculty administrators was quite convenient for me. As I had made observations in the faculty, the faculty administrators were familiar with me. When I asked them for an appointment, they did not decline it. There were twelve faculty administrators including the dean, three vice deans and seven members of the faculty administrative board and the director of internationalization office. I included one of the administrators in the pilot study. I could not get a reply from one of the members of the faculty administrative board. Therefore, I interviewed ten faculty administrators in the study. Before each interview, I asked them for an appointment via e-mail. I interviewed them in the faculty building as they all had offices there. The interviews took about one hour. Similar to the ones in the pilot study, nine faculty administrators did not accept voice recording. Therefore, I took notes in the interviews.

Next, I made interviews with the faculty members. I had a short list of fifteen faculty members who met the criteria for being participants. To access the faculty members, I wrote each of them an e-mail including information about me and the study. I attached the consent form to each e-mail. One faculty member denied to

participate in the study stating that she was too busy at that time and four did not reply me back. Therefore, I could schedule interviews with ten faculty members. I interviewed eight faculty members in their offices, one in a cafe and one in a classroom right after his class finished. The interviews took between fifty minutes and one and half an hour. None of the faculty members accepted voice recording. Therefore, I took notes during the interviews.

Lastly, I interviewed the international distance students online. I had a shortlist of international distance students from different countries of origin. I decided to write them e-mails explaining my study. However, in order to increase the response rate, I visited the secretary of the dean and asked her to help me contact them as well. She wrote an official e-mail to the international distance students on my shortlist and informed them about the study.

I tried to keep diversity of countries of origins and genders as much as I could. In this sense, as there were just two international distance students from Africa, I wanted to interview both but one did not reply my e-mail. Similarly, I could not get an answer from one of the three students from America. In addition, I purposefully planned to include Syrian participants to explore post-war internationalization of them via distance learning. Therefore, I included the first two Syrians who replied me first in the study. Besides, I included two students who replied my e-mails first from Europe and three students who replied my e-mails first from Asia.

I scheduled online interviews with these international distance students on Skype. As I had sent them details of the study and the consent form before, they knew the aim of the study and who I was. Four of them allowed me to record their

voice. Each interview took about one hour. As three students spoke Turkish they preferred to speak in Turkish while seven preferred English.

3.8 Credibility of the data

While collecting data, I attached special importance to the credibility of the data. Therefore, I asked the participants to check if I collected the data correctly. For this, I asked them whether what I observed is really as I observed and I understood the statements in the documents clearly enough. In addition, I sent the transcriptions of the interviews to each interviewee in the evenings of the interview days and asked them to let me know if they had anything to correct or add. So that, I could crosschecked the data with the help of the participants (Seggie, 2011).

3.9 Data analysis

The procedures for the evaluation of the observation notes, document analysis and the analysis of the semi-structured interview transcriptions will be detailed in this section.

3.9.1 Observation notes

At the end of the observations, I had notes about the operation of the faculty. First, I read the notes twice and divided them into six categories of appearance, verbal behaviour and interactions, physical behaviour and gestures, personal space, human traffic and people who stand out (Mack et al., 2005). Next, I read the notes in each category twice to come up with key words about the category. To determine the keywords, I used the suggestions of Schensul, Schensul and Le Compte (1999). Accordingly, I focused on the numbers, dates and orders in my notes. For example, the number of the staff members in suits was meaningful for me to come up with an

idea about the dress code in the faculty. In this sense, I brought these keywords together to have an understanding of each category. Then, I brought the keywords of six category to have a holistic understanding of the operation of the faculty.

3.9.2 Document analysis

To analyze each document, I employed the content analysis technique. Accordingly, I scanned each document to come up with codes that are directly or indirectly related to internationalization of higher education. Then, I scanned the documents again and compared the codes to come up with units of meaning. Then I compared each document's unit of meaning to each other to come up with a hierarchical and holistic understanding of the documents (Moustakas, 1994; Hycner, 1999; Lichtman, 2006).

3.9.3 Analysis of semi-structured interview transcriptions

Lastly, as I made the interviews, I transcribed them on the computer and after getting the confirmations from the participants, I worked on the credible data. However, I did not consider that the early concepts I obtained were unchangeable. Rather, I "was open to serendipity" of meeting emerging concepts. (Corbin and Strauss, 2015, p. 9).

The other issue I considered was the fact that concepts I came up with in the interview transcriptions differed in their "levels of abstraction" (Corbin and Strauss, 2015, p. 76). What I needed to do was to process constant comparisons, compare the lower level concepts to each other and come up with upper-level categories which would eventually help me come up with theory building. For this purpose, I took several steps.

First of all, I scanned the interview transcription for twice to come up with incidents. Next, I constantly compared the incidents to assign them to concept. So

that, I coded each incident for a concept. Then, I constantly compared the concepts to each other to assign them to sub-categories. Then, as I regarded each research question as a category, I assigned each sub-category to a category. Important to note here is that I started the analysis with the raw data. So that, I was "never too far removed from the data, thereby grounding the theory" (Corbin and Strauss, 2015, p. 76). As I climbed over more abstract pieces of data, I obtained "greater explanatory power" (Corbin and Strauss, 2015, p. 77). The sequential constant comparison of codes, concepts, and sub-categories in each category helped me to gain a theoretical insight into the categories. With this in mind, I could arrive at the building of the theory where I integrated categories around a core category (Corbin and Strauss, 2015; Seggie, 2011).

Building a theory was not instantaneous. I continued making constant comparisons among categories up until I made sure that I could build a theory (Seggie, 2011) which was the 'aha moment' (Corbin and Strauss, 2015). This could only be possible analyzing quite a lot of memos to relate the concepts and situate categories in contexts. When I felt the in-depth of the data using my subjectivity and reflexivity, I came up with a core category "that is abstract and broad enough to be representative of all participants in the study" (Corbin and Strauss, 2015, p. 188). To make sure that I could reach a core category, I asked myself the questions of "Have I established strong theoretical links between categories?" and "How have I increased understanding of the studied phenomenon?" (Charmaz, 2006, pp. 155-6). Lastly, theories can be built on different levels. While a theory, which is built at the end of a single study, is considered as substantive theory, re-use of it in another study is considered as a middle-range theory and re-use of middle-range theory cross-

nationally is considered as a formal theory (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). In this sense, mine would be an example of substantive theoretical model.

3.10 Sensitivity vs. objectivity

It is known that quantitative researchers are expected to have objectivity in their studies. However, as qualitative researchers reflect their subjectivity and reflexivity on their studies, they are not expected to be objective. Rather, they are expected to be sensitive towards their data which is "having insight as well as being tuned in to and being able to pick up on relevant issues, events and, happenings during collection and analysis of the data" (Corbin and Strauss, 2015, p. 78). This ability can be acquired in several ways.

One of the ways of acquiring sensitivity is having knowledge about the topic of research. If a researcher has enough academic knowledge about the topic of the study, s/he can be more careful when she collect data from participants and work on pieces of data to integrate each other. Before I started collecting and analyzing data in this study, I reviewed the literature on internationalization of higher education, distance learning and the link between the two. This made me ready to understand what I observed in the research setting, read on the documents and heard from the participants (Corbin and Strauss, 2015).

Second way of developing sensitivity towards data is being experienced in conducting qualitative studies. Before the current study, I had conducted qualitative studies including participants who were inmates in high security prisons, African and local university students and academics in Turkey. So that, I had already made constant comparisons among the pieces a whole. This made me feel more confident when I worked on the data in this study. So that, I could determine different levels of

concepts and integrate them with each other to reach a core category. Without my experience, it would be harder for me to manage this process (Corbin and Strauss, 2015).

Lastly, sensitivity can develop during the analysis. In other words, as a researcher work on data to determine concepts and integrate them to each other, s/he can get more familiar with the data. So that, s/he could decide what pieces of data is important to focus on, what pieces should be integrated to each other and how a core category should be reached. This cannot be acquired overnight. Rather, it takes extensive period of time to manage data. With this in mind, I did not hurry up to analyze the data in this study. On the contrary, I extended the analysis over a period of time. So that, I could make sure about how to integrate the emerging concepts to the current ones and when to integrate categories around a core category (Corbin and Strauss, 2015).

3.11 Ethical assurances

In the current study, I had ethical concerns before, during and after the study. I will respectively discuss each of them.

3.11.1 Ethical assurances before the study

Before I started the study, I spent more than five months of time to plant the study. During this time period, I had ethical considerations in three ways.

First, before I started to conduct this study, I took a qualitative course at the doctoral level with a special focus on ethics in the qualitative approach. In this class, I read articles and participated in discussions about what ethics is, the role of ethics in a qualitative study and guidelines for assuring ethics in research.

Secondly, I applied to the Institutional Ethical Review Board of Human Subject Research (INAREK) for an institutional evaluation of the research plan. The INAREK comprises of five academics from different disciplines and asks applicants to provide them with detailed information about the aims, literature review, selection of the participants, data collection, analysis and dissemination of the results. I provided them with this information in a written form. They asked me to ask probe questions in the interviews, write the expected duration of each interview on consent forms and provide international students with English version of the consent form. I made all these corrections and received the ethical approval from the INAREK (see Appendix D).

Thirdly, I had a gatekeeper who was the dean of the research setting. However, my gatekeeper said that he should discuss the processes and potential risks of the study in the meeting of the faculty administrative board. Therefore, I applied to the secretary of the faculty administrative board with a petition attached to the interview protocols. The members of the administrative board discussed on my study and they provided me with a written permission to conduct the study there (see Appendix E).

3.11.2 Ethical assurances during the study

I had ethical considerations during the study as well. I achieved it in two ways. First, I provided the participants with consent forms before each interview. So that, they had written information about the aim of the study, duration of the interview, their rights and contact information of my dissertation advisor and the INAREK in case they needed it. I started the interviews when they read and confirmed that they accepted to participate in the study signing it.

Secondly, I interviewed the participants when they were alone. That is, I interviewed the faculty administrators and faculty members in their offices. There were not anybody else in the offices when I interviewed them. So that, they felt comfortable and could easily talk about the policies and practices of internationalization in their faculty. As I interviewed international distance students online, they were in different places during the interviews including home, library, workplace and cafe. I asked them to be alone and use a headphone. So that, I tried to help them speak comfortably as well.

3.11.3 Ethical assurances during the study

Last, my ethical consideration continued even after I collected data. I wrote observation notes, memos and interview transcriptions on my lap top computer. Then I destroyed the handwritten notes by a paper shredder. I saved the digital copies on my computer in a folder. I encrypted the folder with AxCrypt encryption program. Just I knew the password of the folder and nobody else could see the documents in it. After my dissertation defence, I will permanently destroy the folder with a program called Eraser 6.0.10. As a final remark, I am planning to publish articles and make academic presentations in international conferences using extracts of this study. I will keep the confidentiality of the participants in further publications.

3.12 Position of the researcher

This study touches upon the topics of internationalization of higher education and distance learning. As the researcher in this study, I had dealt with both topics before. These inevitably influenced my perspective towards the topics. As the study is a qualitative one and my interaction with the data includes intensive subjectivity and

reflexivity, my position as a researcher is worth mentioning (Aratemur-Çimen, 2015; Arellano, 2017; Seggie, 2011).

First of all, I experienced being an international student. That is, I started my master's in Turkey. However, I went to the USA as an international student in the second year of my master's program. There, I took graduate classes and had an American professor as my informal thesis advisor. Although I had my bachelor's degree in English language teaching department in Turkey, which included international students and academics, I experienced that living in another country, studying at a university there, adapting to the climate, people and education system there was not easy. Overcoming these challenges made me feel stronger. Since then, I have believed in myself and my self-confidence more.

Next, I had dealt with distance learning before I conducted this study. First, I wrote an article about distance learning two years ago (Ergin, 2015). The review of the literature in the preparation phase of that article provided me with valuable information about the theoretical foundations and modern practices of distance learning. Next, I took an online class in the USA and Turkey. As a user of it, I like it and think that it is a practical way of teaching people in different locations at the same time. I believe that integration of distance learning technology in education can enable us to save resources including money, time and personal strength.

To conclude, I experienced being an international students before. In addition to this, I took online courses both as a local student in Turkey and as an international student in the USA. I have positive attitudes towards both as I believe that being an international student taught me overcome challenges in another country. On the other hand, I believe that distance learning provided me with practical way of accessing

information. Therefore, I have the idea that the link between the two is worth examining.

3.13 Summary of the chapter

This chapter included detailed information about the methodology of the study including the qualitative approach, grounded theory, research questions, research setting, participants, pilot study, data collection procedures, credibility of the data, data analysis, sensitivity, ethical assurances and position of the researcher. The next chapter presents findings of the study.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

"When a woman goes into a store to buy a dress or pants, she usually doesn't buy the first... She tries on several times, comparing them for fit and price... It just comes naturally... Analysis requires a similar thinking process". (Corbin & Strauss, 2015, p. 86)

This chapter presents the findings of the study gathered from the observations, documents and semi-structured interviews. First, observation notes are presented within the observation framework by Mack et al. (2005, p. 20). This includes the categorical evaluation of the notes by appearance, verbal behaviour and interactions, physical behaviour and gestures, personal space, human traffic and people who stand out.

Secondly, a multi-level analysis of the official documents concerning the policies and practices of internationalization of the research setting is provided. This respectively includes the analysis of the documents at the faculty, university, nation and supra-national levels.

Thirdly, a comprehensive analysis of the semi-structured interviews is provided. These findings are presented within four categories of rationales for international distance programs, advantages of international distance programs, challenges of international distance programs and transformative influences of international distance programs.

4.1 Observation notes

The data collection in this study started with observations. The observation notes are organized under the categories of appearance, verbal behaviour and interactions,

physical behaviour and gestures, personal space, human traffic and people who stand out.

4.1.1 Appearance

The open education faculty, which is the research setting in this study, has a building on the campus of a state university in Turkey. The building includes the offices of the dean, vice deans, faculty administrative board members, students' affairs, internationalization, materials development, proofreading, testing and faculty secretary downstairs.

The staff members start work at 8:30 in the mornings, have an hour of lunch break but they work even at nights. Once I stayed there in the evening and most of the staff members were working to prepare course materials for the following semester. About three hundred administrative staff members work at the faculty and almost half of them are female. Beside the administrative staff, eleven academics including the dean, three vice deans and seven members of the administrative board are usually there in their offices. As academics teach at a distance, they do not have offices in the faculty building.

4.1.2 Verbal behaviour and interactions

The second category of the observations in the research setting is verbal behaviour and interactions among the individuals there. The faculty administrators and administrative staff members work in a close interaction with each other. The staff members, who are responsible for the academic calendar, technical arrangements, student affairs and the registration system, frequently visit the faculty administrators. Administrative staff members, on the other hand, contact each other as they work in

groups. For example, three staff members share parts of an online book and work on the book collaboratively.

Important to note is that the interaction among the staff members is processed with the help of high technology. That is, as all the staff members work on a computer faculty administrators sometimes meet them on Skype.

4.1.3 Physical behaviour and gestures

Next, physical behaviour and gestures of the staff members are worth mentioning as well. Hierarchy is observable in staff members interactions among each other. That is, when administrative staff members talk to the dean or vice deans, they seem serious and formal. Nevertheless, when they work with their team members in their offices, they seem more relaxed. This refers the role of hierarchy in their relations to each other at work.

4.1.4 Personal space

The research setting is a faculty at a state university in Turkey. The staff members work in teams in small offices. Each office includes three to five staff members. Although the staff members work in small offices, their attitudes towards each other seem formal. Accordingly, they address each other formally using bey or hanım which means Mr. or Mrs.

4.1.5 Human traffic

Next category of observation is the human traffic in the research setting. There seems to always be intensive human traffic in the research setting. As the staff members work under the pressure of strict deadlines for tasks including preparation of digital course materials, uploading them on the internet and online registering students, they

seem to work quickly as they sometimes run to each other's offices with paper in their hands.

4.1.6 People who stand out

Last category of observation is people who stand out in the research setting. The dean and vice deans are absolutely the people who stand out in the faculty.

Sometimes, more than ten people wait in front of the doors of their offices to meet them. They regularly meet students, academics, administrative staff members and staff members from the rector's office to organize the works of the faculty.

The dean and vice deans are the people whom the staff members contact in case of an emergency as well. In other words, the dean and vice deans are also expected to solve unexpected problems. For example, once the co-ordinator of the proofreading team contacted the vice dean and let him know that the proofreading of the online exams could not be completed as they did not have enough number of team members to do it. The vice dean informed the dean and the dean contacted the faculty of letters and asked them for help. Just an hour later, five research assistants from the faculty of letters came in and helped the proofreading team. So that they could finish it on time.

4.2 Multi-level findings of documents

This section presents the findings of the document analysis. It respectively includes the findings of the micro-level documents at the faculty level, meso-level documents at the university level and macro-level documents at the national and supra-national level. So that, the findings of the document analysis are presented in a multi-level way.

4.2.1 Micro level findings

Micro level findings include the analysis of the documents named as *Handbook for the Administrative Systems of the Faculty* and the *Standards for Services Offered to International Students* and produced by the faculty.

4.2.1.1 Handbook for the administrative systems of the faculty

This handbook presents the principles and values, aims and quality policies of the faculty administration. The emphasis on internationalization of higher education in different parts of the document will be discussed with the keywords referring to internationalization of higher education.

Two codes in the 14 statements of principles and values of the faculty administration are related to internationalization of higher education. One is the independence of time and place. Accordingly, it is stated that the faculty operates anytime and anywhere. The second code is being an international brand. Concerning this, it is added that the faculty attaches importance to be an international model for other distance learning providers in the world.

Next, one code in the seven institutional aims of the faculty is being an education hub. It is added that the faculty aims to become a centre for learning which provides the most practical and highest quality learning.

In addition, two codes about internationalization of higher education are determined in the seven statements of institutional quality of the faculty. One is universal information. It is explained that the faculty attaches importance to produce information which is universal. The other code is world university rankings. It is stated that the faculty should continuously contribute to the position of the university in the global university rankings.

4.2.1.2 Standards for services offered to international students

This document presents the minimum standards to comply when providing international students with services. Four codes concerning internationalization of higher education are determined in these standards.

First code is providing borderless services. That is, the university guarantees that it provides students with academic and administrative services wherever the students are. Second code is digital mobility. Accordingly, it is explained that the faculty can reach everybody online. Third code is quality. It is added that the faculty will provide its students with the same quality of face-to-face courses. Last code is international curriculum. It is added that the faculty promises to provide its students with updated, digital and global course contents.

4.2.2. Meso level findings

Meso-level findings include the analysis of the documents named as the *mission and vision of the international relations office* and *the mission and vision of the university*.

4.2.2.1 Mission and vision of the international relations office

The mission of the international relations office comprises of one sentence. In this sentence, the code of internationalization for quality is determined. Accordingly, the office promises to make the university internationally connected to world in order to increase the university's teaching and research quality.

The vision of the international relations office comprises of one sentence as well. In this sentence, the code of world class is determined. It is added that the

office aims to achieve maximum internationalization to help the university participate in world class universities.

4.2.2.2 Mission and vision of the university

The mission of the university comprises of one sentence. In this sentence, the code of combining the East and the West is determined. It is referred that the university is a meeting place for anyone from any countries.

The vision of the university comprises of one sentence as well. In this sentence, the code of being a world class university is determined. It is added that the university aims to become a leading university in the world.

4.2.3 Macro level findings

Macro level findings include the findings of the national and supranational level documents. The national level includes the analysis of the documents named as *Growth, Quality and Internationalization: A Route Map for the Turkish Higher Education* by the former chief of the YÖK. The supranational level includes the analysis of the documents named as *Education At A Glance 2016* by the OECD and the *2016-17 Methodology of World University Rankings* by THE.

4.2.3.1 National level findings

Growth, Quality and Internationalization: A Route Map for the Turkish Higher Education evaluates the current situation of the Turkish higher education and provides recommendations to make the system more efficient. The unit of meaning inferred from this document is promoting internationalization of the Turkish Higher

Education. This unit of meaning comprises of three codes concerning internationalization of higher education.

One of the codes is internationalization on national and institutional agendas. Accordingly, it is stated that internationalization of higher education is among the top three topics on the agenda of the YÖK. These topics are the growth, quality and internationalization of the Turkish higher education. Beside this, it is stated that internationalization of higher education should not only be a topic on the agenda of the YÖK but also a topic on the agenda of all universities in Turkey. It is underlined that internationalization should be the core of institutional strategies. The following codes reveal why internationalization of higher education is attached importance by the YÖK.

The second code is internationalization for quality. Accordingly, it is stated that the growth of the Turkish higher education should be quality oriented. This could be achieved by furthering the relationship between the universities in Turkey and the universities in the world, increasing the number of international academics and international students in Turkey.

The third code is internationalization for massification. The fact that the number of students has continuously been increasing in universities all over the world is reminded. In this sense, it is stated that despite this increase, the funds of universities do not increase on an equal basis. Therefore, it is implied that the tuition fees of international students are considered as a way of generating institutional income by universities. Beside this, the relation with knowledge economy and internationalization of higher education is highlighted as well. That is, referring to the statistical comparisons about internationalization of higher education by the OECD, it is reminded that the highest number of international students is hosted by

developed countries. In this respect, hosting more international students is referred as a means for development.

4.2.3.2 Supranational level findings

The supranational level findings include the analysis of the documents named *Education At A Glance 2016* by the OECD and the *2016-17 Methodology of World University Rankings* by THE.

Education At A Glance 2016 by the OECD is an annual report that presents and compares the educational indicators of countries to each other. One of these indicators is internationalization of higher education in these countries. The unit of meaning concerning internationalization of higher education is global context for internationalization higher education. That is, the document states that today's world forces countries to internationalize their higher education systems. This statement is based on two codes related to internationalization of higher education.

One of the codes is the interconnectedness of national economies. It is stated that national economies are not isolated from each other. Rather, there is a close relationship and competition among each other. This forces universities to attract international students and academics to increase quality of education. So that, they can produce information themselves and compete with other countries. Beside this long-term economic gain, they can generate income from "the fees and other living expenses that students pay" (OECD, 2016; p. 329).

The other code is global citizenship. It is referred that the mobility of international students among countries should not only be oriented to business relations but also to social/cultural relations. In other words, mobility is expected to enable international students to understand host countries' social and cultural values.

So that "the social and business networks with their home countries" (OECD, 2016; p. 329) could be enhanced.

The document puts emphasis on the business related and social/cultural rationales for internationalization of higher education. It compares the number of international students in several countries and assesses internationalization based on the statistical data about international students. However, it reminds that internationalization of higher educational appears "through a number of means, including distance education" (OECD, 2016, p. 328). Therefore, although the main emphasis is on the physical mobility, digital mobility is mentioned as well.

2016-17 Methodology of World University Rankings by THE explains the criteria for ranking top universities in the world. This document is analyzed as it is revealed in the interviews with the faculty administrators that being in this ranking is attached special importance by the faculty administrators. Internationalization contributes to a university's performance in this ranking as the rankings assesses the international outlook of universities.

International outlook is among the five criteria of the ranking by THE. Internationalization of a university is attached importance as "the ability of a university to attract undergraduates, postgraduates and faculty from all over the planet is key to its success on the world stage" (THE, 2017). Accordingly, internationalization comprises of 7.5% of total evaluation of universities. To assess this, international to domestic student ratio, international to domestic staff ratio and international collaboration is calculated for each university. Scores of universities are graded and ranked under this category. It means that higher number of international students , academics and collaborations contribute to international outlooks of universities in this ranking.

To sum up, there is a relation among each document in the way that internationalization of higher education is understood, rationalized and strategically targeted. This multilevel relation is shown in Figure 21.

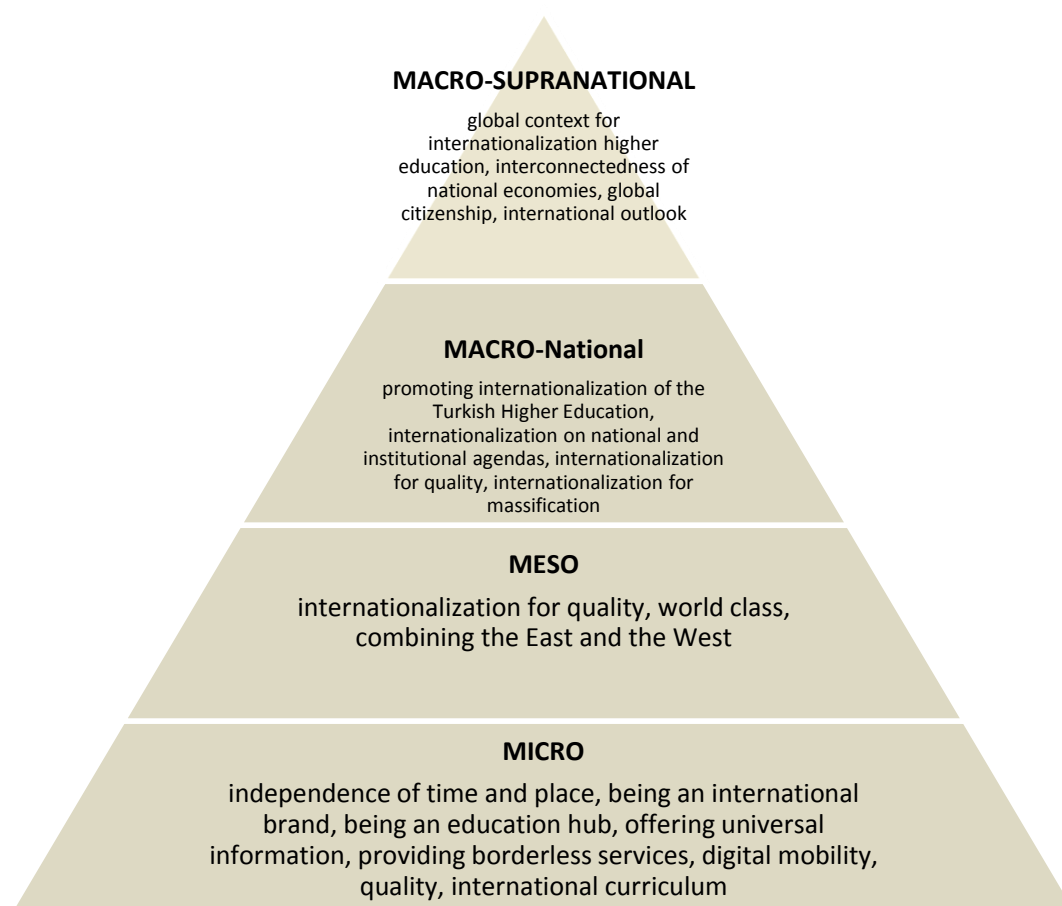


Figure 21 Multilevel flow of internationalization policy

Figure 21 shows that policy making of internationalization at faculty, university, national policy and supra-national levels comprise of a pyramid. Accordingly, in the macro level, the OECD and THE force nation states to enhance mobility to keep up with the global context of higher education which requires being competitive in business, producing knowledge and developing intercultural relations. This forces YÖK, the national policy maker in Turkey, to encourage the university to put internationalization on its agenda to achieve quality and massification. In the meso

level, the university puts internationalization on its agenda. It relates internationalization to world class dream and quality in teaching and research. Similarly, in the micro level, the university asks the faculty administration to put internationalization on its agenda and offer distance teaching to attract international students anywhere and anytime by digital mobility and international curriculum.

4.3 Semi-structured interview findings

This section includes semi-structured interviews findings. These findings are presented within four categories of rationales for international distance programs, advantages of international distance programs, challenges of international distance programs and transformative influences of international distance programs.

4.3.1 Category 1: Rationales for rationales for international distance programs

This category includes technological, economic, academic, political and social/cultural sub-categories. These sub-categories are shown in Table 24 below:

Table 24. Rationales for International Higher Education

Sub-categories by Rank of Frequency	Faculty Administrators (FA)	Faculty Members (FM)	International Distance Students (IDS)
	Technological	Technological	Technological
	Economic	Academic	Academic
	Academic	Social/Cultural	Social/Cultural
	Political	Economic	Economic
	Social/Cultural		Other

Table 24 shows that the most frequently stated sub-category of rationale for participation to international distance programs is technological. The ranks of economic, academic, political, social/cultural and other sub-categories vary among the groups of participants.

4.3.1.1 Sub-category 1: Technological rationale

All the participants state that use of technology is a reason for them to take part in international distance programs. This sub-category includes the concepts of being modern and keeping up with the speed of technology. All the participants associate the use of technology in international distance learning with being modern. FA1 explains it:

We are not classical or traditional; we are modern. This is because we are expert in using technology when we teach. Look at the computers, cameras, microphones and our digital materials. They all prove our modernity. We are the technological face of our university. We offer distance learning all the world because it suits with our technology-friendly perspective towards education. (see Appendix F, 1)

Similar to the faculty administrators, the faculty members agree that international distance learning is a modern way of teaching. FM3 clarifies it:

I believe that in the future, most of teaching in the world will be offered via distance learning. In the modern world, use of technology in your job is an obligation. I always envied of my colleagues who taught distance courses. They always seemed modern to me. I think this motivated me to teach distance courses. (see Appendix F, 2)

Taking a similar perspective, the international distance students have the idea that they are the members of a modern generation and their education should with it.

IDS4 makes it clear:

I am different from my father and grandfather. The era I live in is quite different from the era they lived in. They studied in traditional classes but I don't have to. I cannot understand why people get together in a classroom to learn. I think it is too old-fashioned. We have a better alternative with modern technology. (see Appendix F, 3)

The participants believe that international distance learning provides them with a modern way of learning. Beside this, seven faculty administrators state that the speed of technology motivates them to offer international distance teaching. FA3 explains it:

We are in the twenty first century. Everything is quick. Shopping, games and listening to music are all digital and quick. People don't like anything slow anymore. They expect quick learning environment. I get happier when I see that our faculty keeps up with this quickness. This is enough to offer distance learning. (see Appendix F, 4)

Taking individual perspectives, six faculty members state that they can keep up with the fast production of knowledge in international distance programs. FM7 explains it:

Look at the world! New knowledge is produced anywhere in the world every passing minute. If you move from your current place search for new knowledge, you cannot catch it. Knowledge is reproduced every second. You cannot keep up with it even by flying. The only way of keeping up with it is distance learning technology. I feel free when I can access students in different continents just in a couple of seconds. (see Appendix F, 5)

The speed of international distance learning is appreciated not only by the faculty administrators and faculty members, but also by nine international distance students.

IDS6 explains it as follows:

I don't go out to buy something to eat from the market. I just order it online and they bring it to me. Why should I move to another country to learn something? I can learn the same at home on the computer. I can both be an international student and stay at home. I love this quick access to learning. (see Appendix F, 6)

All the participants agree that use of technology in international distance learning provides them with modernity and speed. As they believe that international distance programs are modern and swift, they would like to participate in it.

In addition, each group of participants states that they would like to take part in international distance programs because of economic reasons. On the one hand, the faculty administrators and faculty members expect to generate income from tuition fees of international distance students. On the other hand, international

distance students expect to save money as they do not have to pay for travelling to another country and living there.

4.3.1.2 Sub-category 2: Economic rationale

All the participants state that there are economic reasons for them to take part in international distance learning programs. The economic sub-category includes the concepts of institutional income generation, individual income generation and cheapness. First, all the faculty administrators agree that the faculty has generated income thanks to international distance learning. FA9 explains it:

Frankly speaking, we need money. If we can enrol a lot of international students, we can generate a good deal of income from their tuition fees. The easiest way for this is enrolling international distance students in our distance learning programs. So that, we can generate income in a very short time period. (see Appendix F, 7)

Likewise the faculty administrators, three faculty members associate the rationale for international distance learning with institutional income. FM4 clarifies it:

You know faculties and universities in Turkey don't have very big funds. If we are not given funds by the state, we should generate our own funds. We have academics who can teach international classes and we have distance teaching technology as well. Why don't we teach people at a distance and earn money? Tuition fees of international students can be a good source of income for our. (see Appendix F, 8)

Beside institutional income generation, individual income generation is stated by the participants from each group as a reason for taking part in international distance programs. Five faculty administrators state that earning money motivates them to teach international distance courses. FA8 admits it:

As you see I am very busy here [referring to the faculty]. Dealing with curriculum and promoting the faculty internationally to attract more international students are the tasks that I need to do here. I get tired a lot. I have to attend meetings every day. I have to speak to many people and I have to deal with their problems. But, to be honest, I earn money here. In addition to my salary, I am paid extra for being an administrator here. But, you see this position is very tiring. I think I deserve it. (see Appendix F, 9)

Beside the faculty administrators, two faculty members admit that they earn more when they teach distance classes. FM5 clarifies it:

The additional course fee of distance courses is almost three times higher than that of traditional courses. It means that I can earn more when I teach distance courses. This a very good opportunity for academics. As you know our salaries are not that high. High additional course fee motivate us to teach distance courses. (see Appendix F, 10)

The statements above indicate that the participants have earned money for being an administrator or faculty member in international distance programs. In addition to this, the faculty administrators and international distance students state that the cheapness of international distance programs is another reason for them to participate in international distance programs. Accordingly, seven international distance students state that they save money thanks to international distance programs. IDS5 clarifies it:

I am a distance student and I am an international student. I am both of them and I don't pay a lot for it. I pay for the tuition fee but I pay nothing for travelling to and living Turkey. This attracted me to become an international distance student. I have friends who moved abroad to study there. They have paid a lot. I cannot afford it. (see Appendix F, 11)

Agreeing with this, IDS3 states that she preferred to become an international distance student to save the burden of bureaucratic expenses and to reach international materials cheaply:

Have you heard about the fees for visa? They are incredible. My friends have spent a lot on them. I don't want to spend the same for it. They paid a lot for their course books as well. Do you know the price of course books? They are very expensive as well. However, in my distance program, all the course materials are digital. I have a password. I log in and download the course materials. I don't pay extra for them. I download it on my mobile phone and read whenever I want. (see Appendix F, 12)

Beside the international distance students, seven faculty administrators underline that access to different parts of the world via distance courses is very cheap. FA2 makes it clear:

We need to increase the number of our international students. We cannot host thousands of international students here. Our classrooms, dormitories and libraries are not enough for it. However, we can enrol them in our distance courses and teach them at a distance. We just pay for technical infrastructure, nothing else. (see Appendix F, 13)

The statements above indicate that the faculty administrators, faculty members and international distance students prefer to take part in international distance programs to generate institutional and individual income. Besides, they underline that it is cheaper than traditional learning. In addition, they provide academic rationales for participating in international distance programs.

4.3.1.3 Sub-category 3: Academic rationale

All the participants state that there are academic reasons for them to take part in international distance learning programs. This academic sub-category includes the concepts of quality assurance, relevance of the curriculum and the awarding and notifications of qualifications.

Accordingly, all the participants establish a link between the rationale for international distance learning and quality education. Nevertheless, each group takes different perspectives towards the issue as administrators, tutors and learners. The faculty administrators underline that the institutional quality of the faculty increases via internationalization. Accordingly, international distance programs help them to increase the number of international students and recognition. In other words, it helps the faculty become a world class. FA1 makes it clear:

Today, the world is globalized. You cannot do a job on your own. You cannot ignore the people who do the same job you do in other parts of the world. You have to follow them and keep up with their standards. The only way of keeping up international standards is international education. Today, the international standard for being a good university is world university rankings. If we have more international students, we can earn more scores in global university rankings. The most practical way of reaching international students is distance learning. (see Appendix F, 14)

Faculty members agree that the increase in the quality of teaching is a rationale for international distance learning. However, they refer to in-class quality. FM7 explains it:

Whether the classes are offered traditionally or at a distance, internationalization makes them higher quality. Quality does not mean the quality of tutor only, it means the contribution of international students to the courses. If more international students take a distance class, more international comments, examples or questions can be included in the class. (see Appendix F, 15)

The international distance students take the similar perspective. Accordingly, they have the idea that diversity of countries of origin make classes higher quality. IDS6 explains it:

I had already participated in traditional classes. There were students like me in these classes. All the classes were comprised of students from the same region. I didn't like this idea. I desired to learn from my classmates' experiences as well. I thought that an international distance program would help me meet international classmates and professors. So that the quality would be higher. That is why I participated in this distance program. (see Appendix F, 16)

The participants state that internationalization brings quality to their faculty, teaching and learning processes. Another reason for them to participate in international distance program is to obtain international curriculum. Six faculty administrators state that they internationalize the curriculum as they have international students.

FA7 makes it clear:

To become a world-wide faculty, we need to offer international curriculum. However, it does not happen overnight. Rather, it requires time. As we have more international students and academics, we will adapt our programs according to them. So that, internationalization of the curriculum could be achieved. (see Appendix F, 17)

Eight faculty members agree that the presence of international students help them to internationalize their course contents. FM9 explains it:

Teaching international classes force academics to prepare international course contents. Academics have to integrate contents, examples, articles and statistical information from different countries into their course materials.

This makes the course content better. Therefore, the more international students from various countries of origin an academic has, the more international curriculum can s/he feel obliged to prepare. (see Appendix F, 18)

Similar to the faculty administrators and faculty members, seven international distance students indicate that they expect to come up with international curriculum when they participate in distance classes. IDS2 explains it:

There are universities in my hometown. I did not prefer them not only because local academics teach there but also because their course contents are local. I would like to read articles in my classes that mention what is going on in my field on a global scale. (see Appendix F, 19)

It is obvious that the faculty administrators, faculty members and international distance students expect to come up with international curriculum in international distance programs. In addition to this, the participants provide academic rationales for international distance programs concerning the awarding and notifications of qualifications. Accordingly, five faculty administrators state that offering international degrees attract motivates them to offer international distance programs. FA4 makes it clear:

I have always admired the universities which offer degrees to students anywhere in the world. This makes a great recognition for universities. For example, everybody knows Open University in the world. This is because it has a lot of students in many countries. It awards people in many countries with certificates or degrees. In this sense, reaching more international students and awarding them with degrees lets us promote our faculty everywhere in the world. (see Appendix F, 20)

Similarly, four faculty members underline the significance of international recognition of degrees provided by the faculty. FM8 clarifies it:

When I was offered to teach distance courses in this program, a faculty administrator told me that the faculty was planning to provide students in different countries with our university's diploma which would contribute to the recognition of our qualifications. Teaching students overseas and awarding them with our diploma is an exciting idea. The more my students' diplomas are recognized, the more my prestige increases. So that, I feel more confident. This is because the recognition of your diploma means the recognition of your teaching. (see Appendix F, 21)

The international distance students take a similar perspective towards having an international degree. Seven international distance students desire to be awarded with an international degree. IDS7 explains it:

One of the main reasons for me to participate in this program is to have an international degree. If you have a local degree, it means you are local. However, if you have an international degree, it means you are international. The extent of your diploma's recognition is positively related to the extent of the recognition of your skills and knowledge. (see Appendix F, 22)

In addition to academic rationale, the participants state that they would like to participate in international distance programs social/cultural reasons.

4.3.1.4 Sub-category 4: Social/cultural rationale

This social/cultural sub-category includes the concepts of promoting own culture, learning about other cultures and making international friends. First, the participants consider that international distance programs are a means for promoting their own culture. FA8 clarifies it:

Today, not the armies but cultures compete each other. Look at the street [points out the window] there are shops which sell the American food. What about us? We cannot promote our Turkish coffee, history and traditions. But, we should. International distance higher education is a good means for this. We can start with teaching the Turkish history to people in different parts of the world. (see Appendix F, 23)

Five faculty members agree with the idea that international distance higher education is a means for promoting the Turkish culture. FM9 complains that there are people abroad who have little knowledge about Turkey and suggests that international distance programs help them learn about Turkey:

Turkey is a big country. But, we cannot promote our cultural values. When I meet people from other countries, I notice that they do not know us very well. This is certainly because we cannot introduce them our culture and history. The best way to do is to access the youth abroad and tell them about our history and culture. We can integrate topics about our history, culture and traditions into the curriculum in our distance program. (see Appendix F, 24)

Similar to the faculty administrators and faculty members, three international distance students state that international distance program is a chance for them to introduce their culture to others. IDS5 explains it:

Before I started the classes in this program, I did not want to be a passive learner. I wanted to actively participate in the classes as much as I could. This is because people in the world know very little about the Chinese culture. For this reason, I wanted to tell about our culture in the classes and answer any questions about my culture. (see Appendix F, 25)

The promotion of the Turkish culture as a rationale for international distance higher education is reciprocal between the local and international participants. On the one hand, the faculty administrators and faculty members believe that international distance higher education enables them to introduce the Turkish culture to their international distance students. On the other hand, the international distance students believe that participating in international distance classes enables them to introduce their culture to their classmates and instructors.

In addition to promoting their own culture, the participants state that international distance higher education is a means for learning about other cultures. Four faculty members state that they learn about their students' cultures. FM7 clarifies it:

Before I started teaching distance classes, I heard from my colleagues, who had taught international distance students, that they learnt a lot about their students' cultures. One of my colleagues taught a distance class of anthropology which included several international students. She became interested in the culture of traditional African tribes thanks to her African distance students. This was always on my mind when I started to teach distance courses. I believed that I would not only teach but also learn about other people and their lives in these classes. This motivated me to teach international students. (see Appendix F, 26)

Similar to the faculty members, six international distance students believe that international distance courses will provide them with the chance of learning about other cultures. IDS3 explains it:

I know that the world is not a good place. There are wars everywhere. We cannot share such a big world. I think the problem is that we do not understand each other. If we did, the world would be better now. Yet, I am not completely hopeless about it. I believe in the youth. If young people get to know each other, they can develop empathy towards each other. So, international higher education is a great chance for this. People from different countries should study in the same class and get to know each other. So that, they like each other and respect their cultures. (see Appendix F, 27)

Beside learning about other cultures, the participants state that making international friends motivates them to participate in international distance courses. Three faculty members state that these classes help them make international friends. FM2 clarifies it:

To be honest, I didn't have any international friends. I didn't stay abroad for a long time. So, I thought that I could meet international students in distance courses. I believed that it would help me practice my English and stay in touch with them on social media as well. (see Appendix F, 28)

Likewise, four international distance students state that the idea of making international friends motivated them to take international distance courses. IDS5 explains it:

When you study in a local university, you can have very few friends. But, if you study in an international environment, you can make friends from different cultures and countries. You can visit them in their countries. They can visit you in your country. I think this is very nice. (see Appendix F, 29)

The idea of making international friends in international distance classes seem to motivate the faculty members and international distance students to participate in international distance classes. In addition to this, the faculty administrators have political rationales for offering international distance programs.

4.3.1.5 Sub-category 5: Political rationale

The faculty administrators state that they offer international distance programs to contribute the foreign policy of Turkey. This political sub-category includes the concepts of global diplomatic investment and regional leadership in the Middle East.

Concerning the global diplomatic investment, three faculty administrators state that their international distance students can become future diplomats in their home countries which can help the future Turkish diplomacy. FA6 clarifies it:

More international students mean having more political power. If our students become ministers in their countries, I am sure they will help our reciprocal diplomatic relations develop. This is because they learn Turkey and they like us. Therefore, our aim is not only to teach but also to invest diplomatically (see Appendix F, 30)

Agreeing with the idea that international distance programs help countries improve their diplomacy, two faculty administrators take a more specific perspective.

Accordingly, they argue that international distance programs help Turkey become the leading country in the Middle East. FA10 makes it clear:

We see what is going on in the Middle East. We [Turkey] must be more powerful to become the leader there. We have enough military power but we don't have enough regional higher education policies to educate people there. Therefore, we should offer distance teaching in the Middle East to raise the number of people who like us. (see Appendix F, 31)

The participants believe that international distance programs help Turkey develop diplomatic relations with other countries and have regional political power. Lastly, the international distance students express that other reasons motivate them to participate in international distance programs.

4.3.1.6 Sub-category 6: Other rationale

The sub-category of other rationale for international distance programs includes the concepts of psychological empowerment and family pressure. Two Syrian distance students state that participating in international distance programs empower psychology. IDS7 explains it:

I am from Syria but I have been here in Turkey for four years. When the things started to get worse in my town there [referring to the Syrian conflict], I and my family moved here. I was a very hardworking student in Syria. I quit the university there. Therefore, I was very disappointed when I

came here. I felt lonely and weak. Then a friend of mine told me about this program and I started it. I thought that this program would let me forget my sorrow. (see Appendix F, 32)

IDS7 considers that the international distance program will help him feel stronger in Turkey. Similarly, IDS8, who still lived in Syria at the time of the interview, considered the same:

Right now, in my town in Aleppo, the things are not as tough as the things in other places in Syria. I had to quit the school a few years ago because of the political problems here. I was going crazy as I did nothing to do. Some of my relatives moved to Turkey. Maybe, I and my family will have to move there too if the war does not come to an end. I just wanted to enrol in this distance program to have a diploma from Turkey. I don't know if I move there or not. But, even if it is a distance program, I am happy as I have a school. (see Appendix F, 33)

Last, two international distance students state that their family had an active role in their decision to participate in international distance programs. IDS4 explains it:

Frankly, I wasn't very eager to participate in this program in the very beginning. My dad received his bachelor's degree in Russia. He has always advised me and my sister to get an international degree. I didn't want to leave my hometown. He insisted on me to participate in this program. I am pleased to be a distance student in this program. Yet, if my dad hadn't insisted so much, I wouldn't have started it. (see Appendix F, 34)

To conclude, the participants have multiple reasons for participating in international distance programs. The exploration of advantages they experience would reveal to what extent they could meet their expectations of international distance programs.

4.3.2 Category 2: Advantages of international distance programs

It has been explored that the participants start international distance programs with several expectations. They consider that these programs are a modern and cheap way of learning assisted with high technology. In this sense, exploring their practices is noteworthy to understand if these programs meet their expectations. The advantages stated by the participants are shown in Table 25 below:

Table 25. Advantages of International Distance Programs

Sub-categories by Rank of Frequency	Faculty Administrators	Faculty Members	International Distance Students
	Flexibility	Flexibility	Flexibility
	Economic	Quality	Economic
	International Recognition	International Recognition Economic	Other

Table 25 shows that the most frequently stated sub-category of advantage is flexibility of international distance programs. Beside this, the faculty administrators state that they have economic and recognition-related benefits, the faculty members state to that they have quality-related, recognition-related and economic advantages and the international distance students state that they have economic, bureaucratic and psychological advantages.

4.3.2.1 Sub-category 1: Flexibility

The prior advantage of international distance programs stated by all the participants is flexibility. This sub-category includes the concepts of independence of time and place and unlimited use of course materials. Accordingly, all the participants state that technology assisted learning provides them with flexibility . FA4 explains it as follows:

Our faculty is here, it doesn't move to anywhere, but we can contact people in different countries at the same time. I love this aspect of internationalization via distance learning. Now, we are planning to collaborate with other distance education providers abroad. We will not go

there and they will not come here. We will do it by distance learning technology. (see Appendix F, 35)

Similarly, all the faculty members agree that independence of time and place is the main advantage of international distance programs. FM3 clarifies it:

I teach distance courses this semester. I have international students in different countries. Can you imagine the convenience of it? A student is in Germany, another is in Turkmenistan and I am in Turkey. But we meet online and I teach them from the far end of the world. I wouldn't do it without the internet. This freedom of time and geography in a class makes it very easy. (see Appendix F, 36)

Likewise, the international distance students express that the independence of time and place makes their learning quite easier. IDS2 explains it:

I am from Bolivia. Even going to school here in my town was really difficult for me. I don't like wasting time on the way to school. I am always online. I play games, make translations and chat with my friends. I am good at being online. I am a professional internet user [smiling]. Rather than going to Turkey, I can learn the same information on my computer in distance classes. (see Appendix F, 37)

In addition to independence of time and place, what the faculty administrators, faculty members and international distance students agree is that international distance learning provides them with the chance of offering and using digital course materials. Eight faculty administrators express that they make use of digital materials to provide their international distance students with academic and supportive information. FA10 explains it:

We have 300 international distance students. They have lots of problems, questions and they always need help. I solve these problem by videoconferencing them. Or I can make use of audio/visual materials. Let me give you an example. At the beginning of the semester, tens of international distance students called me and said that they had problems in registering for the courses. We uploaded a video that teaches how to register for the courses, the problem was solved. It is easy. That is why I like it. (see Appendix F, 38)

The faculty administrators think that digital course materials are practical to meet the needs of international distance students quickly. Similarly, nine faculty

members express that digital course materials is a real convenience for them. FM1 clarifies it:

As the course materials including books, articles, book-chapters and videos are all digital, I can update, revisit, use and replace them when I want. Sometimes, when I read an article and like a part of it, I share it with my students in a voice-recording folder. They listen to it and some of them reply it recording their voices as well. This is fun and practical! (see Appendix F, 39)

In a similar manner, eight international distance students state that they enjoy unlimited digital course materials. IDS9 clarifies it:

One of the things I like most about international distance learning is using digital course materials. Sometimes, our teacher sends us an article before the lesson and I read it on my mobile phone. Sometimes, I record the classes and listen to my teacher again and again in my free time. So that, I can understand the class better. (see Appendix F, 40)

The participants seem to make use of the independence of time and place and digital course materials. In addition to this, they express that international distance programs have economic advantages.

4.3.2.2 Sub-category 2: Economic advantage

The secondary advantage of international distance programs stated by the faculty administrators, faculty members and international distance students is economic.

This economic sub-category includes the concepts of income generation and saving money. Accordingly, the faculty administrators and faculty members state that generating income is the basic economic advantage of international distance programs. Eight faculty administrators refer to the institutional income generation.

FA2 makes it clear:

We can generate our income ourselves. Look at here [pointing the computer]! We use the latest model computers here. Look at our advertisements, technical infrastructure and materials. We could all do these with the money we earned via distance learning. But, the more money means, the access to more people. So, we should access to any countries in the world to have more students. (see Appendix F, 41)

Three faculty members agree with the faculty administrators about the economic advantage of international distance programs. However, they underline individual income generation, rather than institutional. FM9 explains it:

You know the additional course fee of distance courses is good source of income for us. It is three times more than that of traditional courses. It means that I can teach less and earn more. So that, I could afford some of my expenses more easily. (see Appendix F, 42)

The faculty administrators and faculty members state that international distance programs are a means for institutional and individual income generation. In addition to this, they state that they save money thanks to these programs. Five faculty administrators state that their faculty have more students than other faculties but they spend less money for offering their students teaching. FA7 clarifies it:

You know distance teaching. How can I say? It is profitable [smiling]. You do not have to find a class, desks, building and board to teach students. The only thing you need is a computer with the internet. You can teach thousands of students at the same time. And, if you teach international students via distance learning, you earn more as their tuition fees are higher than the local students. (see Appendix F, 43)

Not only the faculty administrators think that they save money offering international distance teaching but also seven international distance students state that being an international distance student is cheaper than being a traditional student. IDS3 explains it:

To be honest, I cannot spend a lot of money on my education. Especially, moving to another country for education is impossible for me. I cannot afford the living expenses there. I am from Cuba. I want to stay here. Actually, I have to stay here. I don't earn a lot of money and I don't have rich parents. So, the best option for me was to enrol in a distance program to save from the burden of travelling to another country and living there. (see Appendix F, 44)

IDS3 compares international distance learning to traditional distance learning and states that the former is cheaper. Similarly, IDS10 underlines the cheapness of access to electronic course contents:

I am a nurse in Ukraine. I would like to be an expert on occupational health and safety. However, international materials about it are too expensive to afford for me. I like the materials of my faculty. They upload lots of materials including electronic books, chapters and articles. They help me improve my knowledge. I need it because there are very few experts on occupational health and safety who have international knowledge in Ukraine. If I can learn it very well and have the diploma, I will among the few people who have international knowledge about the field. (see Appendix F, 45)

Concerning the economic advantage of international distance programs, it could be noted that the faculty administrators state that they generate institutional income from tuition fees of international students, the faculty members generate individual income from additional distance course fees and the international distance students save money as they do not have to travel and live abroad and access digital course materials. In addition to these economic advantages, the participants state that their international recognition has risen thanks to international atmosphere in their distance classes.

4.3.2.3 Sub-category 3: International recognition

This sub-category includes the concepts of the institutional international recognition and individual international recognition. Accordingly, four faculty administrators state that offering international distance teaching helped their faculty become popular. FA3 explains it:

We have students in four continents. This means that our university and faculty are known in four continents. When we teach a student in Europe, s/he can talk about us [our faculty] with his/her friends. This happens thanks to international distance learning. Otherwise, how could we succeed it? (see Appendix F, 46)

Five faculty members agree with the faculty administrators that international distance programs increase international recognition. However, different from the faculty administrators, they refer to the increase in their individual international recognition. FM10 makes it clear.

I think teaching international distance students means having international contacts. So that, you can ask somebody in another country help you when you need help. For example, last month, I needed to contact a university in Berlin. I have a student in my class who studies at both that university in Berlin and in our distance program. Thanks to him, I established a contact with the university there. I hope we will collaborate for international projects. (see Appendix F, 47)

International atmosphere has increased the academic quality of the courses as well.

4.3.2.4 Sub-category 4: Quality

Next advantage of international atmosphere in distance programs stated by the faculty members is the increase in the academic quality. This sub-category includes the concepts of the quality of teaching and course materials. Accordingly, seven faculty members state that the level of their teaching quality has increased since they taught international distance classes. FM7 explains it:

I teach two distance courses about health sciences. I would like to provide my students with examples from the world. But, to be honest, I have not lived abroad for a long time and that is why I may not always provide comparative examples among countries. At this point, I ask my international students in my classes to compare a topic about Turkey to another in their countries. So that, they actively participate in the class and I and the local students learn about other countries. (see Appendix F, 48)

FM7 notes that active participation of international students in distance classes enriches the class atmosphere as international students tell compare a topic or practice in Turkey to that of in their countries. In addition to the increase in the quality of teaching, five faculty members state that the quality of their course materials has increased since they taught international distance classes. FM1 clarifies it:

I teach a distance class about trade. There are European students in the class. And, if I am not wrong, there are a few students from the neighbouring countries such as Iran and Azerbaijan. As there are international students in the class, I present them a content with examples of trade practices in different countries. I do not just focus on trade in Turkey. Because I am aware

that I need to create an international content. This makes my course contents higher quality. (see Appendix F, 49)

The participants establish a link between internationalization and the quality of the operation of the faculty, teaching and course materials. Beside this, they share other advantage of internationalization.

4.3.2.5 Sub-category 5: Other advantage

Lastly, the international distance students state that they benefit from other advantages of international distance learning. This sub-category includes the concepts of bureaucratic and psychological advantages. Accordingly, three international distance students state that they benefit from the opportunity of less bureaucracy in international distance learning. IDS6 explains it:

I have some friends who have gone to other countries to study there. I always speak to them. They had a lot of problems when they wanted to get a visa, residence permit, working permit and driving license. I don't want to face the same problems. That is why I preferred distance learning. I enrolled in it by post. That is all! No bureaucracy. (see Appendix F, 50)

In addition to the advantage of less bureaucracy, two international distance students state that international distance learning provides them with a psychological advantage. Specifically, they state that international distance learning suits their personality and this makes them feel happier. IDS1 explains it as follows:

To be honest, I am not a sociable person. I am a little shy. I feel better when I am in a distance class. I don't want to be in the same room with many people. I can compare both as I had already been in face-to-face classes before. Distance classes make me happier. (see Appendix F, 51)

Consequently, the participants benefit from the flexibility-related, economic, international recognition-related, quality-related and other advantages of international distance programs. Nevertheless, they state that they face with challenges as well.

4.3.3 Category 3: Challenges of international distance programs

Internationalization of higher education via distance learning is not free of problems. Accordingly, the participants state that they face several challenges in it. These challenges are shown in Table 26:

Table 26. Challenges of International Distance Programs

Sub-categories by Rank of Frequency	Faculty Administrators	Faculty Members	International Distance Students
	Institutional	Communicative	Technical
	Bureaucratic	Technical	Curricular
		Professional	Communicative

Table 26 shows that the faculty administrators face institutional and bureaucratic challenges, the faculty members face with communicative, technical and professional challenges and the international distance students face with technical, curricular and communicative challenges.

4.3.3.1 Sub-category 1: Institutional challenges

All the faculty administrators state that they face institutional challenges when they implement the institutional policy of internationalization via distance learning. This sub-category includes the concepts of lack of institutionalisation and lack of qualified human resources.

Seven faculty administrators state that they lack institutionalization. They mean that internationalization of higher education via distance learning has not been institutionalized yet and it makes their administrative processes challenging. FA2 makes it clear:

We offer distance teaching to students in four continents but do you think we are really institutionalized enough? If you ask me, we haven't yet. Compare Open University to us. They are more international than us because they are more institutionalized than us. For example, we don't have a division which is responsible for internationalization of the curriculum. Why don't we have? This makes our job more difficult. (see Appendix F, 52)

FA10 agrees with the lack of institutionalization in internationalization via distance learning. However, he deals with the issue not from an institution-wide perspective, but from a university-wide one:

When we opened the office of internationalization at our faculty, everybody was surprised. Somebody still thinks that it is unnecessary as there is already an office of international relations at the rectorate. However, they ignore a detail. The office of international relations focuses on physical mobility. They don't have an agenda of digital mobility that we have. This is our expertise and we should coordinate it from a separate office. (see Appendix F, 53)

Beside lack of institutionalization, six faculty administrators express that lack of qualified colleagues is a challenge for them. FA1 underlines that the qualification of their academics, who teach distance classes, challenges the faculty administration:

We decided to open the faculty and found the building and other equipments we needed. But, what we couldn't find was qualified academics who could teach at the international standards. Most academics can't speak English very well. What is more, they can't internationalize the curriculum. (see Appendix F, 54)

The faculty administrators' statements reveal that the inadequate qualification of the academics and lack of institutionalization prevent them from internationalizing the curriculum more and run internationalization of the faculty in a more professional manner. In line with this, FA3 states that they lack qualified supportive staff for the technical infrastructure as well:

To offer distance learning, you need to have a very good technical infrastructure including quick internet, web design, materials upload, online registration and online students' affairs office. It means that you need good engineers and technicians. It is not easy to find them. (see Appendix F, 55)

The faculty administrators appear to face both lack of institutionalization and qualified academic and supportive staff. In addition to this, they have bureaucratic problems.

4.3.3.2 Sub-category 2: Bureaucratic challenges

Eight faculty administrators state that they face bureaucratic challenges when they implement their policy of internationalization. These challenges include too much bureaucracy and improper regulations. Accordingly, five faculty administrators state that too much bureaucracy and paperwork slows down their tempo. FA6 clarifies it:

We offer distance teaching. It is not traditional teaching. We have to be as quick as possible. Yet, there is too much bureaucracy in Turkey and this makes us crazy! We get tired because of the paperwork and petitions we write to the rectorate and the YÖK. What is more, it takes too much time to solve our problems. We cannot reach the authorized people easily. We reach international distance students in four continents but sometimes we cannot reach our authorities when we need. (see Appendix F, 56)

The faculty administrators offer teaching around the world with distance learning technology. As they offer it quickly with the help of high technology, they expect that the bureaucracy should be swift as well.

Beside the slowness due to too much bureaucracy, the faculty administrators complain about the improper regulations about distance learning. Accordingly, three faculty administrators claim that the policy makers in the YÖK are not aware of the importance of internationalization via distance learning. Therefore, they criticize official regulations about distance learning. FA9 exemplifies it:

It is very weird that we have class size limitation in our classes. We cannot enrol above a limited number of students in our distance classes. Isn't it

weird? It is not a traditional class which has limited number of desks for students, it is online! Why do they limit it? We should include unlimited number of students in a class. So that, we can include masses of students from various countries in a class. (see Appendix F, 57)

Beside the institutional and bureaucratic problems, the participants state that they face communicative challenges as well.

4.3.3.3 Sub-category 3: Communicative challenges

The primary challenge faced by the faculty members and the third degree challenge faced by the international distance students is communicative. These challenges include the concepts of lack of face-to-face interaction and barrier of foreign language. Accordingly, eight faculty members state that the lack of face-to-face interaction with international distance students makes distance teaching more difficult than traditional teaching. FM4 explains it:

In a traditional class, I am in the same room with my students. I can see what they do. Sometimes I ask them to role play. However, it is not possible in a distance course. I see them just on the computer screen. It is not the same with meeting them in person. A couple of weeks ago, my Chinese student tried to tell me something, but I couldn't understand. If we were in face to face interaction, I could have understood it. (see Appendix F, 58)

The participants lack of face-to-face interaction during the classes are not only the faculty members but also the international distance students. IDS2 explains it with a very interesting anecdote:

I noticed that all my professors drank black tea in a glass cup when they taught us. I asked one of my professors why they all drank black tea in a glass cup when they taught us. He said that it is very common to drink black tea in Turkey and it is usually drunk in a glass cup. He also told me that if I had been there, he would have offered me tea in a glass cup. I didn't know this Turkish tradition. If I was in a traditional class with him, we could drink tea together. (see Appendix F, 59)

In addition to face-to-face interaction, the participants state that they miss a common language in their classes. Seven faculty members state that they can face

communicative problems when they speak to their students in English. FM6 explains it:

Unfortunately, my English is not very good. I try to improve it but you know it takes time. Some international students speak Turkish very well. For example, in a class of mine there are two international students. One is from Germany. He speaks Turkish very well. And the other is from Azerbaijan. He speaks Turkish as well. So, I teach that course in Turkish. However, some international students don't speak Turkish. Therefore, I have to teach them in English. But, to be honest, I have to switch into Turkish sometimes. I know I should improve my English. (see Appendix F, 60)

Similarly, five international distance students state that sometimes they may not communicate with the staff as they cannot speak English very well. IDS3 exemplifies it:

Once, I had a problem about my registration for the courses. I called the students' affairs office to ask for help. However, the woman on the phone did not speak English and she could not help me. Then I wrote an e-mail to one of my professors. He helped me solve my problem. (see Appendix F, 61)

Both the faculty members and international distance students appear face lack of interacting face-to-face and speaking to each other fluently in a common language. Beside these problems, they also face technical challenges.

4.3.3.4 Sub-category 4: Technical challenges

The faculty members and international distance students state that they face technical problems during distance class hours. This sub-category includes the concepts of the technical problems faced during class hours and technical problems faced out of class hours. Accordingly, six faculty members state that they face technical problems when they teach distance classes. FM9 explains it:

I always believe that working with technology is always risky. You can experience a technical problem any time. When teaching international distance classes, you have more risks. Even if your technical infrastructure is perfect, your international students' technical infrastructure may not be so. For example, I have students from Iran in a distance class. The speed of their internet was very slow. I gave the class an online exam last month.

However, these students could not complete the exam as they had problems with the internet. I had to prepare another exam and give them in the following week. (see Appendix F, 62)

Concordantly, FM5 faces technical problems and exemplifies it as follows:

We are lucky as when we teach distance classes, there are staff members in the faculty who is ready to help us when we need. I experienced some problems for a couple of times. I called them and they helped me. However, what makes me afraid is the technical problems experienced by international students. Once, I had an old international student. He was not good at technology. I had to give him some technical instructions during the classes and even after the classes. (see Appendix F, 63)

The faculty members state that they have to deal with not only their technical problems but also the international distance students' technical problems as well.

Similarly, all the international distance state that they face technical challenges during distance classes. IDS5 explains it:

Sometimes, I cannot open a file that my professor sends me. Sometimes, I cannot log into the online course system and I can be late for the class. This makes me really angry. I hope I will no more face technical problems. They are really annoying. (see Appendix F, 64)

The participants seem to face frequent technical problems during the classes. In addition, three faculty members state that they face technical challenges out of class hours as well. FM8 explains it as follows:

I send some written and audio/visual materials to my distance students a few days before a class or even on the same day before a class. However, I notice that not every international distance student can reach it. While one in Germany may open the file, another one in China may not. (see Appendix F, 65)

Faculty members state that they interact with their international distance students even after class hours. In these interactions, they face technical problems as well.

Similarly, the international distance students state that they face technical problems out of class hours. IDS6 exemplifies it:

Once, I tried to upload my assignments on the system but I couldn't succeed it although I tried for many times. I e-mailed our professor about it but she didn't reply back to me. I called the students' affairs office but I couldn't reach

anybody. I had to deal with this problem for two days and finally I could upload it. (see Appendix F, 66)

The participants appear to face technical problems in and out of class hours. In addition, the faculty members state that they face professional problems.

4.3.3.5 Sub-category 5: Professional challenges

The sub-category of professional challenges include the lack of professionalization of distance teaching and lack of in-service training. Accordingly, three faculty members state that the main professional challenge for them is the lack of professional identity. Accordingly, they believe that teaching international distance students is a very unique way of teaching and it requires a unique job description.

FM3 clarifies it:

I like teaching international distance classes. But you know, being a distance tutor does not only mean teaching online. You are expected to test international distance students online, prepare materials and upload them on the distance course system. So that, they can access them. I prepare original materials. But, I don't have a copyright. And, I am not paid extra money for these materials. I think this should be made to encourage us to develop original materials. (see Appendix F, 67)

The faculty members claim that teaching international distance students is time consuming and exhausting. They have the idea that each duty including preparing course materials, teaching and online testing should be paid. Beside this, the faculty members state that the lack of in-service training makes their teaching challenging. Accordingly, two faculty members state that they feel the lack of in-service training when they teach distance classes. FM7 explains it:

You know teaching international distance classes is very different from teaching traditional classes. You have to be good at using technology. You are expected to prepare international curriculum. You need to speak English very well. You are expected to advise students in different countries. All of these require an expertise. I remember the first international classes I taught, it was really difficult. If I had been given in-service training, I could have taught more easily. (see Appendix F, 68)

The faculty members appear to need support about use of technology, preparing international curriculum and teaching in a foreign language. In addition, the international distance students face curricular challenges.

4.3.3.6 Sub-category 6: Curricular challenges

The sub-category of curricular challenges includes timing related challenges and lack of internationalization of the curriculum. Accordingly, five international distance students complain the time schedule of uploading course materials is not regular.

IDS9 clarifies it:

I would like to access whole the course materials of a class at the very beginning of the semester. However, sometimes the course materials may not be ready on time. This makes me nervous. This is because I want to know what I will read beforehand. But, I don't like this delay. (see Appendix F, 69)

Beside the irregular timing of uploading the course materials, the international distance students state that the course materials are not international enough.

Accordingly, seven international distance students state that understanding the course materials and the classes can be challenging for them as they are too local. IDS6 explains it:

The problem I face with the course materials is that they are too much Turkey-oriented. I understand that there might be something about law, rules, policies and practices in Turkey. However, I am an international student and it is a distance program. I think more global contents can be added to the course materials. So that, we can learn about what is going on in the world about the field. Otherwise, I cannot understand the materials and courses when they include too many terms and names special to Turkey. (see Appendix F, 70)

To conclude, the participants benefit from the advantages of international distance programs while they face challenges of them as well. Although it is both advantageous and challenging, how internationalization via distance learning transforms the participants is worth exploring.

4.3.4 Category 4: Transformative influences of international distance programs

As the participants take part in international distance programs, benefit from its advantages and face challenges, they undergo transformation in several ways. An overview of these transformative influences stated by the participants is shown in Table 27:

Table 27. Transformative Influences of International Distance Programs

Sub-categories by Rank of Frequency	Faculty Administrators	Faculty Members	International Distance Students
	Economic	Academic	Social/Cultural
	Academic	Social/Cultural	Academic
			Psychological

Table 27 shows that there are economic and academic influences of international distance programs on the faculty administrators, there are academic and social/cultural influences of them on the faculty members and there are social/cultural, academic and psychological influences of these programs on the international distance students.

4.3.4.1 Sub-category 1: Economic influences

All the faculty administrators state that international distance programs influenced them economically. This sub-category of economic influences include the concepts of institutional income generation and institutional entrepreneurship.

First, all the faculty administrators agree that the faculty has gained economic benefits by international distance programs. FA7 makes it clear:

We earned money. I mean the faculty generated income from the international distance students. You know tuition fee for international students is more than that of the local students. So, the faculty earned money. It is the immediate effect of this internationalization via distance learning. (see Appendix F, 71)

FA9 agrees that the faculty has generated income from the tuition fee of international distance students but adds that this income is not a big one:

I agree that the most notable transformative influence of our internationalization via distance learning is the money we have made. However, we did not earn millions of dollars. We have just 300 international students. If we had more, we would make good money. But, I believe that we will have more international students and earn more. (see Appendix F, 72)

In addition to the institutional income that is generated from tuition fees of international distance students, the faculty administrators consider that the faculty has learnt institutional entrepreneurship. Accordingly, five faculty administrators state that the faculty has reached 300 international students in a short time period. They consider that this experience has taught the faculty how to establish international networks, advertise the faculty internationally and meet the needs of international distance students. FA10 explains it:

It is not that easy to reach international students. You have to make international advertisements and campaigns to attract them. You also have to travel abroad and collaborate with other universities. You should persuade people that you offer international and cheap programs. We have succeeded it in a very short period of time. This encourages us to do this again and reach more international students. (see Appendix F, 73)

The faculty administrators draw attention to attracting international distance students to participate in the faculty. They seem to be motivated to reach more international distance students in the future. In addition to these economic influences, the participants state that internationalization via distance learning has influenced them academically as well.

4.3.4.2 Sub-category 2: Academic influences

The sub-category of academic influences include the enhancement of academic atmosphere in the faculty, increase in the quality of teaching and internationalising the curriculum.

Five faculty administrators state that the academic atmosphere in the faculty has been positively influenced by internationalization. FA1 makes it clear:

I cannot say that we have just earned money by internationalization via distance learning. We also gained international academic atmosphere here. In our every meeting, internationalization is on our agenda. Beside this, I follow the standards of other distance education providers abroad especially the ones in Europe. We try to meet their standards. For example, likewise other open education faculties abroad, we have founded a call centre to solve any problems of our international students any time. (see Appendix F, 74)

FA10 agrees with the idea that teaching international distance students has changed the way the faculty operates:

We have just 300 hundred international distance students. Even this raised the standards of the faculty. For example, the course materials are prepared more carefully, students' affairs office is very eager to help international students when they need and internationalization office has become one of the most important divisions of the faculty. (see Appendix F, 75)

In addition to the increase in the quality of the way the faculty operates, the faculty members and international distance students state that the quality of teaching has increased with internationalization via distance learning.

Eight faculty members state that the presence of international distance students in their classes has positively affected the quality of their teaching. FM1 makes it clear:

I definitely support that there must be international students in every class. These students change the atmosphere of distance courses. This semester, I teach a distance class. There are a few international students. International students always participate in the classes. They ask questions, comment on what I teach and provide examples from their home countries. This encourages the local students. So that, the Turkish students actively participate in the classes as well. (see Appendix F, 76)

Six international distance students agree with the faculty members that international diversity in the classes helps them learn higher quality information. IDS1 explains it:

I have friends who study the same program in formal education here in Sudan. However, when I meet them, I notice that my academic and field-specific knowledge is better than them. They don't know even very basic terms of the field. I think this is because the university and tutors in my distance program are high quality. (see Appendix F, 77)

Beside considering that international distance classes offer high quality learning, six faculty members state that the presence of international students in the classes has forced them to internationalize the curriculum. FM8 explains it:

Teaching international students is really difficult. You have to be international to be able to address them. You need to offer them a global syllabus, not a local one. It takes my hours to add international contents in my course materials. But, this improves my course materials. (see Appendix F, 78)

Concordantly, five international distance students agree that the more international students in the classes means the more course materials become international. IDS 10 explains it as follows:

Most of our classes include international contents. Articles, statistics and examples are provided from different countries. I like it. Once, our professor taught the class from the USA. She was there for a conference and she taught us with her American colleague. It was a very nice experience. (see Appendix F, 79)

Beside these academic influences, there are social/cultural influences of international distance programs on the participants.

4.3.4.3 Sub-category 3: Social/cultural influences

The faculty members and international distance students state that they have been influenced by international distance programs socially and culturally. These social/cultural influences include international socialization and intercultural exchange.

Concerning socialization, seven faculty members state that since they started to teach international distance classes, they have kept in contact with their international distance students and spent time together online even out of class hours. FM10 explains it with an interesting anecdote:

Thanks to our distance programs, I taught many international distance students. I have contacted them out of out of class hours as well. Once, a student of mine from Iran called me and said that he found a job in Iran, told me about the job details and asked me if he should start that job. I was surprised and got pleased. He trusted me and asked my opinion although I was in another country. (see Appendix F, 80)

Similarly, nine international distance students state that they have made international friends in distance courses and spent online time together out of class hours. IDS2 explains it:

Before I started this distance learning program, I did not have friends from other countries. However, I have been a student in this distance program for two years and in two years of time I have made very good friends from Turkey and other countries. I like them! They are all on my list of friends on Facebook. I call them and chat with them for hours every week. I hope I will visit them and they will come to my hometown. (see Appendix F, 81)

It is apparent that even if the faculty members and international distance students meet in online classes, they contact each other out of class hours. Intercultural exchange in these contacts is worth mentioning to reveal the cultural aspect of these distance relations.

Six faculty members state that they introduce the Turkish culture to their international distance students and they learn international students' cultures. FM7 exemplifies it as follows:

Teaching international students in distance classes helped me understand not only develop understanding of other cultures but also telling them about my own culture. For example, once an international student asked me a question about traditional food in Turkey. I told her about it. I sent her photos and recipe of some food. It was very nice to talk about it with an international student. International students search the Turkish culture. They learn a lot of things about Turkey and they ask me if what they hear or read about Turkey is correct or not. (see Appendix F, 82)

Eight international distance students agree with the faculty members that they exchange their cultural values with each other. IDS6 explains it:

Before I enrolled in this program, I didn't have any Turkish friends. Right now, I have many. I didn't know anything about the Turkish culture and history. I learnt a lot about the Turkish history. I know the Turkish won victories in wars. I think I will read more about it. (see Appendix F, 83)

In addition to international socialization and intercultural exchange, the international distance students state that participation to international distance programs have positively influenced their mood.

4.3.4.4 Sub-category 4: Psychological influences

The international distance students state that the international distance programs have positively influenced their mood in two ways. First, the programs provided them with prestige in their families. Second, the international distance students have felt more hopeful about life since they started international distance programs.

Accordingly, three international distance students state that they have become more prestigious and respected in their family because they study in an international program. IDS1 explains it:

My grandfather and my father attaches importance to education. Since I started this program, they have boasted of me. They always appreciate me that I will have an international degree. They advise my cousins that they should study in an international program just as I do. I like being respected for this. (see Appendix F, 84)

In addition to being respected in the family, the international distance students state that participation to international distance programs contributes to their psychological well being. Two Syrian participants, whose home country has been undergoing a conflict for seven years, state that this international distance program helped them forget the conflict in Syria and feel more hopeful about the future. IDS7 explains it:

I started this program two years ago. I had escaped from the war in Syria with my family and started a new life here [in Turkey]. When I came here, I had to work to earn money. I was safe here but I was very upset as I quit my higher education in Syria. I wish I could have finished it. But I couldn't. I looked for a second chance for studying at a university. Some of my Syrian friends here started formal education in universities in Turkey but I have to work to help my father meet our expenses. Then, I heard about this program and started it. I learnt that I could apply for jobs with a degree from distance programs just as people who have degrees from formal programs. It is good. Being a student again is good. It helped me feel happier. I am no more desperate. As I learn new things, I feel better. (see Appendix F, 85)

To conclude, the participants seem to be pleased with being international student.

They like being respected in their family and feel hopeful about the future.

4.4 Summary of the chapter

This chapter presented the findings of the observations, multi-level documents and semi-structured interviews. The next chapter will present a summary of these findings and a discussion on the findings. In addition to this, a theoretical model will be grounded on the findings and an emerging concept will be defined.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

"Theory construction is exactly like being an explorer and it contains all the fun of adventure as well as the hard work". (Hage, 1972, p. 5)

This chapter includes five sections. In the first section, the findings of the study is summarized. In the second section, the findings are discussed. In the third section, a theoretical model of distance internationalization is grounded on the findings and proposed in this study for the first time. In the fourth section, distance internationalization of higher education as an emerging term is defined for the first time. In the last section, the chapter is summarized.

5.1 Summary of the findings

This study was examined to explore how an open education faculty in Turkey internationalized via distance learning. For this purpose, multiple data collection procedures including participant observations, document analysis and semi-structured interviews were employed.

First, the observations revealed how the faculty operated. Accordingly, the faculty was one of the faculties of a public university in Turkey. It was one of the three open education faculties in Turkey. It was managed by a dean, three vice-deans and an administrative board. The people who stood out in the faculty were the dean and vice deans. They met the administrative board members per week to make institutional decision making. The decisions were made by a majority of votes and presented to the rector for approval. The faculty offered distance teaching to 300 international students in four continents.

The academic and supportive staff members worked hard to stick to the deadlines including preparing course materials, teaching, assessing the students and overcoming any technical problems. To succeed these tasks on time, the staff members worked according to the labour division and made use of technology including digital course contents, software for distance teaching, online surveys and video conferencing.

Second analysis included the multilevel analysis of documents concerning the institutional internationalization policy of the faculty via distance learning. It was revealed that the faculty level strategies of internationalization via distance learning are under the influence of university level, national and supranational policies.

It was revealed that the supranational organizations, the OECD and THE, referred to interrelations between national economies and encouraged nation states to host more international students. In this sense, the YÖK encouraged universities to put internationalization on their agendas and internationalize to enrol more students and promote quality. The university stated the issues of internationalization and quality in its mission and vision documents. And, the faculty adopted the agenda of internationalization via distance learning by digital mobility, internationalization of the curriculum and technological infrastructure. This top to down flow of policy reveals that the faculty level agenda of internationalization via distance learning is under the influences of university level, national and supranational policy of internationalization of higher education.

Lastly, the interview findings explored the rationalization of internationalization of higher education via distance learning, advantages and challenges of distance international programs and transformative influences of internationalization of higher education via distance learning.

First, the faculty administrators, faculty members and international distance students all agreed that international distance programs were modern and technological way of internationalization. However, their prior rationales varied from each other. The faculty administrators had the idea that international distance programs are a good way of income generation and a practical way of accessing masses of international students. They also believed that internationalization via distance learning would enhance the quality of the operation and teaching in the faculty and help the Turkish diplomacy as soft power. On the other hand, the faculty members and international distance students agreed that internationalization via distance learning is a cheap way of international education. However, they primarily believed that international distance programs would help them meet in a high quality teaching-learning environment, make international friends and understand each other's cultural values.

In addition, all the participants considered that the flexibility of time and place was a primary advantage of international distance programs. Beside this, the faculty administrators and international distance students underlined the cheapness of these programs. On the other hand, the faculty members reminded that the quality of course contents increased with internationalization as international topics were embedded into the curriculum.

Next, internationalization via distance learning included challenges as well. Accordingly, the faculty administrators experienced institutional and bureaucratic challenges including lack of qualified staff, institutionalization and proper and quick policy making. The faculty members experienced communicative challenges including lack of face-to-face interaction and second language barrier, technical problems and professional challenges such as lack of professionalization of distance

teaching and in-service training. The international distance students agreed that they faced with communicative and technical challenges as the faculty members did. Beside this, they experienced lack of internationalization of the curriculum and expected global course contents.

In addition, internationalization via distance learning appeared to transform the participants in several ways. Accordingly, the faculty administrators stated that internationalization helped the faculty generate institutional income, develop international entrepreneurship and operate at higher standards. The faculty members stated that they internationalized the curriculum, made international collaborations and developed understanding of people from other cultures. And, the international distance students appeared to achieve intercultural exchange, access to international curriculum and gain prestige of being international student.

To conclude, the faculty operated in an organized way to offer international distance teaching to its students in four continents. It adopted the strategy of internationalization via distance learning under the influences of the university level, national and supranational policy makers. The participants rationalized this modern type of internationalization variously, experienced different advantages and challenges and obtained a variety of outcomes. These findings are discussed in the next section.

5.2 Discussion of the findings

This section presents a discussion on the findings under the sub-sections of operation of the faculty, global pressure on the faculty's agenda of internationalization, rationalization of internationalization via distance learning and transformation through internationalization via distance learning.

5.2.1 Operation of the faculty

As I made observations in the research setting, analyzed the official documents concerning the policies institutional internationalization and made interviews with the faculty administrators, I had an understanding of the factors influencing the decision making of the faculty administration, the institutional aims of the faculty and how and why the faculty aimed to prove itself to the world, not just to Turkey. This early understanding forced me to associate the operation of the faculty with the theoretical foundations of distance learning. So that, I could have a theoretical framework about the operation of the faculty.

As I revisited the data to come up with an understanding (Corbin and Strauss, 2015), I came up with the inference that the institutional policies and practices of the faculty about internationalization via distance learning was mostly economic-oriented. Therefore, I made a link between the theory of industrialization of teaching by Peters (1983) who dealt with distance learning within the scope of distance learning providers' economic concerns. The way the faculty was running was exactly complied with the components of his theory. However, when I completed the collection and analysis of the data and continued the review of the more recent literature, I have come up with the idea that this economic-oriented understanding of internationalization via distance learning also pointed out the massification of higher education. As a result of this, I dealt with the policy internationalization via distance learning within the theory of industrialization of teaching (Peters, 1983) and the massification of higher education (Altbach, 2007).

Distance learning "is remarkably consistent with the principles and tendencies of industrialisation" (Peters, 1983, p. 96). In this sense, the way a distance learning provider runs resembles that of an industrial corporation. One common aspect of

both an industrial corporation and distance learning provider is rationalisation. That is, both use their sources effectively. As I observed, the faculty tried to use the materials, time and human resources effectively. Next, both include division of labour. In these divisions, staff members are expected to complete specific tasks. In the faculty, this division was clearly made and each staff member was expected to contribute to the mass production of distance learning in various ways. One of them prepared a course content, another proofread it, another put it on the internet, another collected feedback about it and another evaluated these feedbacks. In addition, there is mechanisation in both an industrial corporation and distance learning provider. That is, machines are widely used for mass production. The faculty used computers, cameras, the internet, scanners and various software to reach more international distance students. Besides, both an industrial corporation and distance learning provider utilizes scientific control methods to evaluate mass production. Accordingly, the faculty made statistical assessments to check the increase in the number of its international students and the satisfaction of the current ones. Last, both an industrial corporation and distance learning provider aim at mass production. In other words, just as a company aims to produce and sell more, the faculty aimed to offer more distance learning programs and access more distance students around the world (Peters, 1983).

All these components shared by a business corporation and the research setting should also be discussed within the scope of the massification of higher education. Massification is "the process by which academic systems enroll large numbers - and higher proportions of the relevant age group - of students in a range of differentiated academic institutions" (Altbach, 2007, p. 3). This definition simply implies that the massification of higher education is increasing the number of

students in higher education systems. All the higher education systems are influenced by massification as "there is no country that is immune from the pressure for massification" (Altbach, 2007; p. 3).

What creates massification is a question whose answer intersect with internationalization of higher education via distance learning. Altbach (2007) seeks for the answers of the question to understand the logic of the massification of higher education. He provides several reasons for it including the increase in the university-aged population and the desire of the old people who would like to get into university to compensate for formal education they have missed out before. Furthermore, he adds that professions in today's knowledge economy force the youth to get a university degree. As a result, "higher education institutions and systems have had to accommodate more students with fewer financial resources" (Altbach, 2007, p. 7). At this point, distance learning has an important role.

Obligation to provide masses of students with higher education places a financial burden on universities. Building dormitories, classrooms and libraries for high number of students brings cost to universities. In this sense, to be saved from this financial burden, university administrators prefer massification via distance learning. It is favourable because "it can serve students in remote locations, permits rapid expansion, and is flexible in implementing rapid changes in curriculum" (Altbach, 2007, p. 12).

The interviews with the faculty administrators revealed that they desire to get a bigger share in the global market of international education. In this sense, they demand higher tuition fees from international students. In order to generate more income, they aim enrol more international students in the faculty (Kalkınma Bakanlığı, 2015; OECD; 2014; Universities UK, 2014).

The faculty administration takes internationalization via distance learning mostly from an economic-oriented perspective. They utilize distance learning to access more international students as they are aware that distance learning "is ideally suited to the international delivery of educational initiatives" (Altbach, 2007, p. 11), and as a result generate more income.

5.2.2 Global pressure on the faculty's agenda of internationalization

Being a world class university is the dream of universities around the world (David, 2016; Liu & Liu, 2016; Tilak, 2016). Even on the agenda of the vice-deans of the faculty, being a world class university was among the top institutional priorities. The spread of world class pressure even on a small unit of a university was amazing enough. As I continued to evaluate the observation notes, analyse the documents and interview transcriptions, I have come up with the inference that the world class pressure was not a coincidence. That is, this pressure descends from the higher education policies of supranational organizations, national organizations and universities to the faculty in a top-to-down manner. This inevitably influences institutional internationalization of the faculty via distance learning (Seeber, Cattaneo, Huisman, & Paleari, 2016).

Although joining the club of world class universities is a desired goal, "there is no well established definition or statement about what exactly a World-class universities is" (Liu & Liu, 2016, p.54). Nevertheless, being in the top university rankings is perceived as being a world class university (Shields, 2015; Tilak, 2016). For example, the top 100 universities in the world university rankings are considered as "universally acknowledged world-class university" in a study (Liu & Liu, 2016, p. 55). In this sense, global university rankings are "irresistible" (Liu & Liu, 2016, p.

54) for universities as "as rankings appear to strengthen or grant visibility" (Liu & Liu, 2016, p. 55). In other words, being in the world university rankings is considered as being a world class university. And, being a world class university is considered to prove to meet international standards (Ergin, 2015; Teichler, 2009).

Research indicates that university administrators "take rankings seriously for the purpose of accountability, evaluation and strategic planning" (Soh, 2016, p.79). This is because global university rankings are considered to be a platform for announcing that the universities they administer meet international standards of quality. In this study, the same effect of global university rankings on the faculty's policies of internationalization via distance learning is revealed. Accordingly, the mission and vision documents of the faculty explicitly state that it aims to help its university to become a world class.

With this in mind, I asked the question of how international distance higher education can contribute to a university's becoming a world class university. The answer lies on the methodology of the global university rankings shown in Table 28. The table shows the methodology of two world university rankings. The first one is by the Quacquarelli-Symonds World University Ranking (QS). It lists 500 universities every year according to the indicators of academic reputation, employer reputation, student to faculty ratio, citations per faculty and international outlook. Accordingly, it assesses the international outlook by the number of international academics and international students (QS, 2017).

The second ranking is by THE. THE lists almost 1000 top universities every year. Last year, it listed top 980 universities. The indicators of THE includes teaching, research, citations, industry income and international outlook. Accordingly,

it assesses the international outlook by the international to domestic student ratio, international to domestic staff ratio and international collaboration (THE, 2017).

Table 28. Methodology of Global University Rankings

Ranking	QS	THE
Indicators	Academic Reputation	Teaching
	Employer Reputation	Research
	Student to Faculty Ratio	Citations
	Citations per Faculty	Industry Income
	International Outlook	International Outlook

Source: [QS, 2017; THE, 2017).

The methodologies of two global university rankings reveal that the more international academics and students a university has, the higher it is scored in the rankings. Accessing international distance students can be a practical way of increasing the number of international students at a university. In this sense, the faculty administrators and faculty members can access more international distance students to help their university get a better in international outlook.

5.2.3 Rationalization of internationalization via distance learning

An important issue that deserves a special focus in the current study is the exploration that the participants prefer digital mobility, rather than physical mobility,

for multiple reasons. This should be discussed in terms of both the philosophical and practical aspects of internationalization of higher education.

Philosophically, almost all the participants stated that they preferred digital international mobility to enjoy the conveniences of it. This makes them exceptional international students even in today's digital world. Internationalization of higher education dates back to more than 2500 years ago when scholars visited sophisticated idea centres in China and Athens (Hudzik, 2015). These international scholars walked from a place to another for a long time to teach or learn from each other. However, although more than 25 centuries have passed since then, international academics, students and even international branch campuses physically move from a country to another. However, very few academics and students can mobilize and very few international branch campuses can be founded with this traditional internationalization of higher education. Specifically speaking, only about four million students are physically mobile today (UNESCO Statistics, 2017). It means that vast majority study in their home countries. Similarly, there are more than 16000 universities in the world while the number of international branch campuses could still not climb over 311 (C-BERT, 2017). Besides, even the most popular international mobility program ERASMUS+ enables only 5% of total university students in Europe to move to another country for academic purpose (de Wit et al., 2015). This unavoidably brings the mind the question if internationalization is just for the lucky ones who can get funds from a mobility program or for the rich who can afford the expenses of physical mobility.

The international distance students in this study stated that they could not cope with the challenges of the physical mobility including the expenses, travelling and time. Nevertheless, they did not want to be devoid of international education.

Therefore, they participated in international distance programs. This exploration confirms that international distance learning disseminates social equity worldwide as it "increases access to learning opportunities by persons who are unable to subscribe to the scheduling and location demands traditional instruction" (Rovai et al., 2008; p. 14). In other words, digital mobility worked as a second chance for the participants to receive international education (Hakan et al., 2013; Mackenzie et al., 1975).

Practically, the participants desire to be a part of digital mobility for multiple reasons.. Accordingly, the faculty administrators, faculty members and international distance students prefers internationalization via distance learning for academic, economic, social/cultural and political rationales (Knight, 2004, 2005, 2008), the priority of which varies among the groups of the faculty administrators, faculty members and international distance students.

What all groups of participants agree is that the prior rationale for them to be a part of international distance education is academic. They all believe that distance internationalization will bring them quality. That is, from the faculty administrators' perspectives, the faculty will meet international standards. From the faculty members' perspectives, their teaching quality will rise. And, from the international distance students' perspectives, they will be offered quality teaching and they will have an international diploma in the end. This all comply with the understanding of higher education administrators, faculty members and international students that internationalization means quality (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2010; Ergin, 2015; Svetlik & Lalic, 2016)..

Concerning the institution-wise rationales, it is revealed that the faculty administrators develop policies for international distance learning for social/cultural and political rationales as well. Accordingly, they have the idea that offering digital

mobility is a means of promoting national culture (Egron-Polak and Hudson, 2014) and helping the country to develop diplomatic relations with international distance students in the future. So that, international distance students who like Turkey can help Turkey diplomatically in the future (Büyükgöze, 2016; Ergin, 2016).

Individually, both the faculty members and international distance students are appeared to have social/cultural rationales for being international digital mobiles. Accordingly, they had the belief that they would introduce their culture and learn about new cultures in international distance classes (Egron-Polak and Hudson, 2014; Hudzik, 2015). Lastly, the faculty members appear to desire that their faculty has a bigger share in the global internationalization market. So that, their faculty compete with other faculties abroad and their working conditions including salary and equipments could be better (Akşam, 2016; Universities UK, 2014).

5.2.4 Transformation through internationalization via distance learning

Internationalization of higher education is transformative process in which different functions of higher education institutions including research, teaching and community service undergo global, international and multicultural transformation (Fielden, 2008; Goddard, 2006; Hudzik, 2011; 2015; Knight, 2004; Teichler, 2004; Van Damme, 2001). It is inevitable that this transformation has impacts on higher education institutions, academics and students. In this sense, the transformative influences of internationalization via distance learning are explored in this study.

First, it is revealed that the faculty administrators, faculty members and international distance students make use of the basic convenience of distance learning which is the independence of time and place (Rovai et al., 2008; Simonson, 2009; Simonson et al., 2015; US Department of Education's Office of Educational

Research and Improvement, 2006). On the one hand, the faculty administrators feel the joy of not needing buildings, libraries and classrooms although the number of their students increases (Altbach, 2007). On the other hand, the faculty members and international distance students enjoy teaching and learning anywhere even on their mobile phones (Kim, Ruecker, & Ki, 2017). So that, they are saved from the burden of travelling to and living in another country which is experienced by more than four million international students and academics today.

Institutionally, the observation notes and the findings of the interviews made with the faculty administrators bring to light that the faculty administration has fulfilled their short-term economic and academic expectations of internationalization via distance learning. Accordingly, the faculty administration has accessed 300 international students from four different continents in a short time period. This enabled them to generate income from their tuition fees as their tuition fees are almost three times more than those of the local ones (Akşam, 2016; Kalkınma Bakanlığı, 2015). And academically, the faculty administration could achieve to have prestige in the university. This is because it has become the faculty whose number of international students has increased most rapidly compared to other faculties. So that, the faculty contributed to its university's policy of increasing the number of international students most.

Individually, both the faculty members and international distance students have met their academic, social/cultural and psychological expectations as well. Academically, the faculty members have practised internationalizing the curriculum and teaching multicultural classes which led them to feel more confident about their professional skills. The international distance students, on the other hand, believe that they are offered high quality teaching by their international tutors.

Socially/culturally, the faculty members have had the chance of teaching their cultural values and learning about their students' cultural values. International distance students, on the other hand, learnt about the Turkish culture, made friends from international countries and had time with them out of class time especially on the social media (Büyükgöze, 2016; Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2010; Hudzik, 2015; Svetlik & Lalic, 2016).

Psychologically, it is explored that the international distance students from Syria, who have been exposed to the devastating conflict in their home countries, have been more hopeful about the future since they started the distance higher education program. As they could continue their higher education, they make plans to start life again with an international diploma they will get from a distance program (Ergin, 2016).

Important to note here is that internationalization of the participants via distance learning is not free of challenges. During the processes of internationalization via distance learning, the faculty administrators face with institutional and bureaucratic challenges. Accordingly, they cannot find enough number of qualified academic and technical staff members when they need. Beside the faculty administrators, the faculty members and international distance students face with technical problems with the internet, distance teaching software and other technological equipments such as the microphone. In addition, the international distance students are challenged by too much Turkey-oriented topics in the course materials. The faculty members attribute this problem to another stating that they lack in-service training about internationalizing the curriculum and do not know how to make the curriculum fully international enough (Byram, 2016; Furstenberg, 2016; Leone and Telles, 2016; Mackinnon, 2016; Rubin; 2016).

Last challenge that should be touched upon here is the online intercultural exchange in international distance classes. Both the faculty members and international distance students state that they have learnt about each other's culture during the classes, enriched the classes with cultural examples and asked each other about their cultures and traditions. Beside this, they interacted with each other on the social media, videoconferencing and mobile phone out of class hours. They have appeared to develop mutual understanding of each other online. However, if distance classes are practical and cheap for them, international distance students underline that they desire to visit their classmates in their home countries and interact with them in person as well. This brings the question of whether online intercultural exchange is an alternative to traditional intercultural exchange to the mind. It may not be a perfect alternative, but a chance for the majority who physically move to another country (de Wit, 2016).

5.3 Model of distance internationalization of higher education

In this study, I adopted grounded theory from the theoretical perspective of Corbin and Strauss (2015). This required me to work on the raw data for a long time by constant comparison (Seggie, 2011). Accordingly, I continually compared the statements in the raw data to come up with lower level concepts at first and then reach categories to look over the data from a higher level of abstraction. The findings are presented and discussed under these categories.

Constantly comparing the categories to each other, I came up with a core category "that is abstract and broad enough to be representative of all participants in the study" (Corbin and Strauss, 2015; p. 188). Coming up with a core category is the theory grounded on the data at the end of the study.

With this significance of the core category in the grounded theory building, I scanned the data again and again integrating the categories. What I needed was to come up with a combination of two or three words to name the core category. However, this combination would not include words that randomly come together. Rather, "it must be sufficiently abstract" to integrate the categories to each other. Besides, it "it must appear frequently in the data" in order to cover whole the findings. Last, "it must be logical and consistent with the data. There should be no forcing" (Strauss, 1987, p. 36). When I followed these guidelines to come up with an inclusive core category, the first I have found was distance internationalization. It was the aha moment for me (Corbin and Strauss, 2015). Although I intensively dealt with data, read all the memos for the concepts and tried to integrate the categories again, I could not come up with any others. In order not to force the data, I named the theoretical model as distance internationalization for several reasons.

Firstly, the current study deals with the topic of internationalization of higher education via distance learning. This means the topic of the study includes two sub-topics. Distance internationalization addresses to both sub-topics as the word distance refers to distance learning and the word internationalization refers to internationalization of higher education. Next, I came across these words in almost every statement in even the lower level concepts in the raw data. So that I was "never too far removed from the data, thereby grounding the theory" (Corbin and Strauss, 2015, p. 76). Lastly, I have come up with it naturally without forcing the categories as a result of my long-lasting exposure to the data which complies with the nature of grounded theory study.

The components of the theoretical model of distance internationalization is shown in Figure 22.

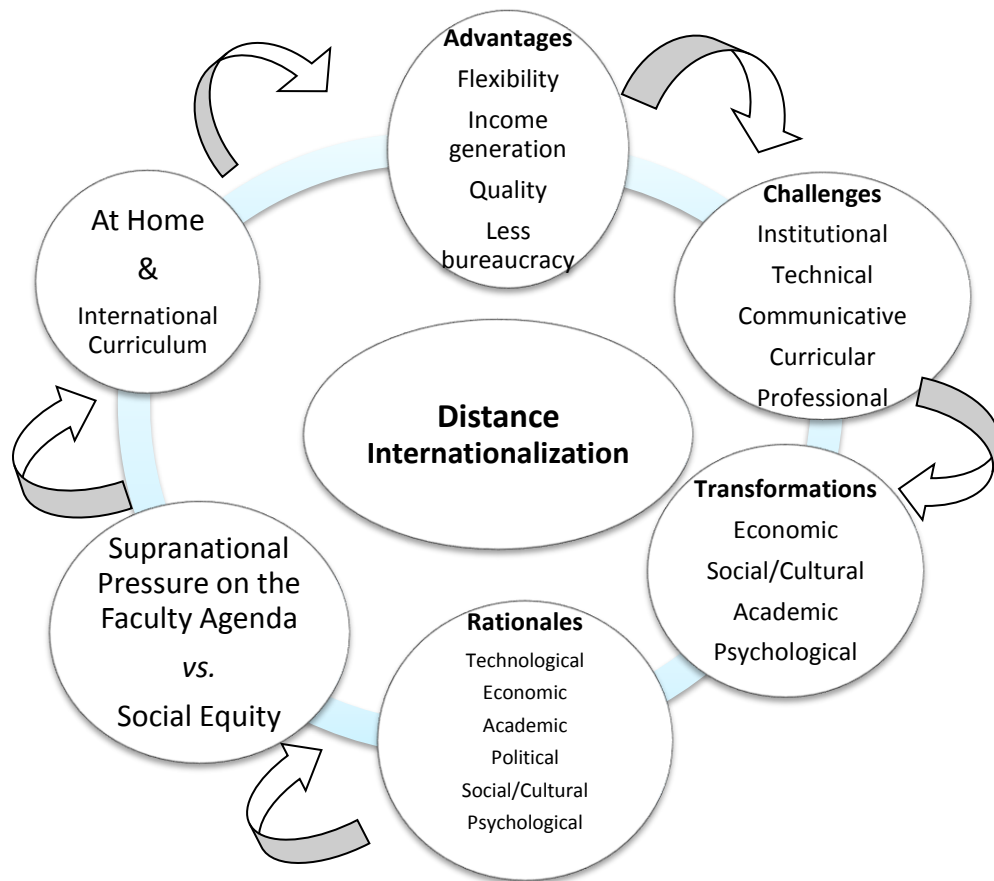


Figure 22 Model of distance internationalization

Model of distance internationalization is rationalized by the participants for technological and psychological reasons in addition to Knight's (2004, 2005, 2008) traditional economic, academic, political and social/cultural rationales. Beside this, the model has a paradoxical component. On the one hand, internationalization via distance learning is forced by supranational organizations' pressures on a higher education institution to join the club of world class universities and increase the number of students for income generation (Ergin, 2015; Liu and Liu, 2016). On the other hand, the international distance students in this study state that they had to prefer internationalization via distance learning as they could not afford the expenses of physical mobility for international education. In this sense, it would not be correct

to base the model merely on the economic pressures on the faculty. Rather, as it provides the students, who are not rich enough to pay for the expenses of physical mobility, with a chance of international learning, it is a means of ensuring social equity as well (Dewey, 2011; Rovai et al., 2008).

Next, the mobility in distance internationalization is not physical but digital. In other words, international students are provided with digital international curriculum and they do not have to move from their home countries to others for study. In addition, the model refers to both advantages and challenges in practice. While the flexibility of time and place, income generation, increasing the quality of teaching and less bureaucracy are the basic benefits; institutional, technical, communicative, curricular and professional deficiencies are the basic disadvantages of the theory in practice. Finally, undergoing internationalization via distance learning provides the stakeholders with economic, social/cultural, academic and psychological outcomes.

Important to note is that this theoretical model is a substantive one. It was grounded on the data of a long lasting single qualitative study that integrates the emerged categories around a core category. Only after the re-use of it in another study can make it a middle-range theory and only after the re-use of the middle-range theory cross-nationally can make it a formal theory (Glaser and Strauss, 1967).

5.4 Emerging definition

The focus on the link between internationalization of higher education and distance learning in the current study has led to the emergence of a concept of distance internationalization of higher education. This concept will be defined for the first time in this study.

5.4.1 Distance internationalization of higher education

The emerging concept of distance internationalization of higher education is defined here as:

Integrating multicultural or multinational dimension into the functions of higher education at a distance by digital mobility and international curriculum with the philosophy of internationalization for all, not for a minority.

The concept suggests that functions of higher education can undergo internationalization not necessarily by physical mobility. In other words, it suggests that intercultural and international exchange in functions of higher education can be achieved by digital mobility as well. So that, rather than few academics and students, more can be internationally mobile as it is cheaper and more practical.

5.5 Summary of the chapter

This chapter presented a summary of and discussion on the findings of the study.

These sections were followed by a substantive theoretical model of distance internationalization grounded on the findings and emerging conceptualization about internationalization of higher education via distance learning. The next chapter will present the conclusion and final remarks of the study.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION AND FINAL REMARKS

"Distance education is ideally suited to the international delivery of educational initiatives". (Altbach, 2007, p. 11).

This chapter presents conclusion, implications of the study, recommendations, limitations of the study, suggestions for further research and reflections of the researcher.

6.1 Conclusion

This qualitative study examined how an open education faculty in Turkey internationalized via distance learning. This exploration was made by multiple data collection and analysis procedures. First, participant observations were made to explore the operation of the faculty. Next, official documents about internationalization of higher education produced by the faculty, university, national and supranational organizations were analyzed to reveal how the hierarchical relations among policy makers influenced the faculty's internationalization practices. Last, semi-structured interviews were made with ten administrators of the faculty, ten faculty members and ten international distance students to explore the rationales for their participation in international distance programs, advantages and challenges they face in these programs and transformative influences of these programs on them.

It is inferred that the faculty's institutional policy of internationalization via distance learning is not a policy made simply by the research setting on its own. In other words, the decision making for institutional internationalization via distance learning is more than institution-wide. That is, the faculty administration is explored

to be under the pressure of massification of higher education (Altbach, 2007) and world university rankings (QS, 2017; THE, 2017) concerning their decisions about internationalization via distance learning.

One of the global phenomenon that influences internationalization of the faculty is massification of higher education. It simply means that universities are expected to offer teaching to more students due to the increase in the university-aged population and the need for more employees with a university degree in today's knowledge economy. However, the budgets of universities do not increase in direct proportion to the increase in the number of students. This forces universities to teach masses of students economically. In this sense, distance learning, in which learners in different parts of the world can be taught at the same time, is preferred as an efficient way of meeting the increased demand of higher education. Just after the faculty was founded, it has reached 300 international students in four continents. These students have been taught online. Without the convenience of separation of time and geography by distance learning, this might be impossible as it would be more time and money consuming for the faculty administration (Altbach, 2007, Simonson et al. 2015).

The second global phenomenon that influences internationalization of the faculty is world university rankings. These rankings assess several indicators of universities in the world. One of the indicators is international outlook of universities which comprises of 7.5% to 10% of the overall assessment. Accordingly, the more international students a university has, the better performance it can have in these rankings. Distance learning can contribute to this performance as it minimizes the bureaucracy, time and money for reaching international students. For this reason, it is

considered as a quick way of having international students by the faculty and university administration. (QS, 2017; THE, 2017).

As noted above, distance learning serves the international goals of a faculty and university. For individual scope of inferences, implications for faculty administrators, faculty members and international distance students are worth mentioning.

6.2 Implications of the study

This section includes the concerns for the faculty administrators, faculty members and international distance students that are implied in the findings.

6.2.1 Implications for faculty administrators

The findings imply that the faculty administrators in the study seem to feel intense pressure about reaching more international distance students. This pressure results from the university's global objectives as the university administration asks the faculty administrators to have more international students which would help the university's massification and performance in the world university rankings. This might be risky for two reasons.

First, as the faculty administrators feel the pressure of the university administration, they inevitably reflect this pressure on the academic and supportive staff in the faculty. This pressure might harm the atmosphere in the faculty. Long-term observations in the faculty have revealed that the staff work in harmony with each other although they have to work for long hours due to the lack of human resources. As they already work under the stress of strict deadlines of registration, teaching, testing, getting feedback and preparing digital course materials, they might

feel more stress in case they are continuously forced to reach more international distance students.

Secondly, the faculty members seem to be more outcome-oriented than process-oriented when they work to increase the number of international students. In other words, they just focus on increasing the class sizes of online classes without paying much attention to the quality of the courses. However, internationalization is a means for international quality (Hacıfazlıoğlu, 2006). It does not mean increasing the number of international students only (Ergin, 2015). The skills of academics, internationalization of the curriculum and technical infrastructure should be attached importance as well.

In addition to the faculty administrators, implications for faculty members are presented in the next section.

6.2.2 Implications for faculty members

The faculty members are the people who directly and regularly interact with international distance students in online classes. In this sense, presenting implications for them is noteworthy. The faculty members benefit from the institutional and individual advantages of internationalization via distance learning. Nevertheless, they appear to be anxious for two reasons.

First, the faculty members feel the pressure of making current international students pleased and accessing more international students. This makes them nervous as they might feel guilty when any international students drop out their classes. This anxiety, might negatively influence their teaching performance.

Secondly, the faculty members seem to be anxious because of the challenges they face when they offer distance teaching. Accordingly, they usually experience

technical problems when they teach distance classes. They not only struggle for overcoming their own technical problems but also help their students overcome their technical problems. Besides, they are expected to internationalize the course materials themselves rather than a support of a professional unit. It makes the faculty members worried as they are expected to satisfy the need of internationalization of the materials. The faculty members feel lonely and helpless about gaining technical and curricular proficiency.

The international distance students are the ones who are offered distance learning by the faculty and interacted with the faculty members regularly. In this sense, the implications for them are worth mentioning as well.

6.2.3 Implications for international distance students

The international distance students all agree that international distance learning is a practical and cheap way of learning for them. Nevertheless, they appear to be displeased due to curricular and communicative reasons.

Initially, the international distance students expect to be provided with international curriculum. That is, although the faculty is in Turkey, they do not prefer to have course materials that are too much Turkey-oriented. Rather, they expect written and audio/visual materials with a global perspective. Similarly, they expect that their instructors should take international perspectives towards the contents of the classes and provide students with examples and practices in various countries. This expectation is significant as international input of course materials and classes makes international distance learning attractive in the eyes of the international distance students. Their dissatisfaction might lead to the decrease in their motivation to continue international distance learning.

Next, the international distance students expect that they can communicate with people in the faculty when they need. However, when the staff members do not speak English, reply the international distance students back on time and help them solve their technical problems, the international distance students might be discouraged to continue international distance programs.

This section presented implications for each group of participants. In the light of the findings and these implications, recommendations for stakeholders of internationalization of higher education will be presented in the next section.

6.3 Recommendations

This section presents recommendations for national policy makers of higher education in Turkey, university administrators, faculty administrators, faculty members and international distance students.

6.3.1 Recommendations for national policy makers of higher education in Turkey

It has been revealed that the YÖK, which is the top policy maker of higher education in Turkey, forces higher education institutions to increase their number of international students immediately. Nevertheless, higher education institutions have various organizational structures, institutional cultures and experiences. Therefore, not every higher education institution can be ready for the same policy that expects all higher education institutions to increase their number of international students in a short time period. For this reason, rather than making a nation-wide institutional objectives, institution-wide objectives about increasing the number of international students should be determined. These objectives should not focus only on the physical mobility but also on the digital mobility.

6.3.2 Recommendations for university administrators

The faculty administrators seem to be nervous about accessing more international students. Lack of qualified human resources and other bureaucratic challenges lead the faculty administrators become more nervous. In this context, the university administrators should consider the institutional capacity of the faculty first and then they should make a policy of internationalization for it. Besides, in order to minimize the bureaucracy, the university administration should found a division in the office of international relations at the rectorate building. This office might be responsible for the bureaucratic planning of internationalization via distance learning at the university level. So that, bureaucracy could be minimized and the needs of the faculty could be satisfied more quickly.

6.3.3 Recommendations for faculty administrators

The faculty administrators struggle for achieving internationalization objective given by the university administration. Important to note is that the university administration's outcome-oriented understanding of internationalization might lessen the staff members' understanding of the importance of internationalization including the increase in the quality of teaching, research and services. Therefore, informative sessions about internationalization should be implemented to enhance the staff's understanding of internationalization of the faculty.

In addition, the international distance students face with several problems. One of the problems is lack of internationalization of the course materials. That is, the international students expect not Turkey-oriented course inputs but ones that include information from a global perspective. For this, professional division for internationalization of the curriculum and in-service trainings for the faculty

members can be immediate solutions. Beside this, the international students face communicative challenges such as not knowing whom to contact when they need help and not finding staff members who speak English. To overcome this challenge, virtual orientation programs for freshman international distance students can be arranged and staff members who speak English can be employed in the students' affairs office or in other technical departments.

6.3.4 Recommendations for faculty members

The faculty members are the face of the faculty and Turkey. This is because they are the people who interact with international distance students most. The international distance students seem to lack face-to-face interaction and need to solve their problems quickly. The faculty members can help the international distance students adapt to the classes better. For this purpose, the faculty members can arrange online office hours for international students. So that, the students can interact with their instructors more, let their instructors know about their challenges and find a common ground for overcoming these challenges.

6.3.5 Recommendations for international distance students

The expectations and experiences of the international distance students are significant to help the faculty administrators and faculty members to make distance teaching more efficient. However, very few feedbacks are obtained from the international distance students about distance classes. To help the faculty administrators and faculty members, the international students should let the faculty administrators and faculty members know about their challenges and expectations. A regular way of this is to fill the course evaluation forms in and return to the faculty.

6.4 Limitations of the study

This study focused on the internationalization of a faculty in Turkey. As organizational cultures, qualifications of staff members, short and long term objectives and approaches to internationalization vary from institution to institution, the findings of the current study might not completely suit every faculty.

6.5 Suggestions for further research

Three suggestions for further research can be provided. Firstly, this study came up with a theoretical model of distance internationalization in which the rationales, benefits, challenges and transformative influences of internationalization via distance learning are explored. In this sense, it can be a route map for higher education administrators as it includes practical guidelines for internationalization via distance learning. For this reason, another faculty with an agenda of internationalization via distance learning can be examined by action research. So that the theoretical model of distance internationalization can be revisited and new components can be added to it.

Secondly, there is no universal policy and implementation of internationalization of higher education that addresses all the higher education institutions in the world. For this reason, for an exploration of new policies and implementations, the same research design could be repeated within other faculties that have the agenda of internationalization via distance learning.

Thirdly, stakeholders of internationalization via distance learning are not limited to the faculty administrators, faculty members and international distance students. Rather, supra-national, national and university level policy makers, local students and administrative staff members are parts of internationalization of higher

education via distance learning. For this reason, exploring their understandings and experiences is noteworthy for a deeper understanding of internationalization of higher education via distance learning.

6.6 Reflections

Conducting this long lasting study has transformed me personally and intellectually. First, this study was not the first qualitative study I conducted. Therefore, I thought that I would not face any personal challenges during this study. Nevertheless, unlike I expected, it challenged me personally. For instance, although I had a gatekeeper to help me collect data in the research setting, I had to wait for a month to get a written permission from the faculty's administrative board. Next, as the faculty members were always busy, I had to re-schedule the interviews with them for several times. Beside this, although I had interviewed international students before, online interviewing was a new data collection procedure for me. I thought that videoconferencing would help me meet them. However, unexpected technical problems were a real challenge for me. I could not meet some of the international students due to the misunderstandings about local time zones. When I met them, they experienced technical problems with their internet connection or microphone and I had to wait on Skype for hours. This inevitably tried my patience and challenged me. Reading similar experiences of qualitative researchers (Seggie, 2011) helped me relieve my distress; however, what I learnt in the end was patience.

Secondly, this study challenged me intellectually as well. First, it included the topics of internationalization of higher education, distance learning and the relationship between them. This placed a burden on my shoulders that I had to make an extensive literature survey on these three broad topics. Similarly, I included three

groups of participants which are the faculty administrators, faculty members and international distance students. Understandings and experiences of each group were sometimes quite similar to each other while they differed in certain points. Dealing with this similarity and variety was a challenging and rich experience for me as it made me exhausted but helped me learn the same processes from different perspectives. Last, I collected data by multiple data collection techniques including observations, document analysis and semi-structured interviews. Each of these procedures required me to undergo a preparation, data collection and analysis procedures for each. This necessitated focus on each of them at the same time.

All in all, this study has challenged me personally and intellectually since I decided to conduct it. However, it helped me enhance my personal strength and intellectuality. So that, "I impacted the dissertation, the dissertation also affected me" (Seggie, 2007, p. 24).

APPENDIX A
INTERVIEW PROTOCOL FOR FACULTY ADMINISTRATORS

Bilgi Formu

Cinsiyet :

İdari Görevi :

İdari Görev Süresi :

Uzmanlık Alanı :

Interview Questions for Faculty Administrators

1. Yükseköğretimin uluslararasılaşması hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz?

[What do you think about internationalization of higher education?]

2. Fakültenizin uluslararasılaşması gerektiğine nasıl karar verdiniz? (Bu karar fakülte içinde nasıl süreçlendirildi? Fakülte dışından hangi kişi ya da kurumlar bu kararı etkiledi?)

[How did you decide to start internationalization of your faculty? (How did you process this decision making? Which persons or institutions affected your decision making?)]

3. Fakültenizin geleneksel uluslararasılaşması yerine, uzaktan öğrenme ile uluslararasılaşmasını nasıl değerlendiriyorsunuz? (Neden uzaktan öğrenme ile uluslararasılaşmayı benimsediniz? Kısa ve uzun vadeli beklentileriniz nelerdi?)

[What do you think about internationalization of your faculty via distance learning rather than traditional? (Why did you adopt internationalization via distance learning? What were your short and long-term internationalization objectives?)]

4. Uzaktan öğrenme ile uluslararasılaşmanın kolaylıkları nelerdir? (Örnek verebilir misiniz?)

[What are the advantages of internationalization via distance learning? (Can you exemplify it?)]

5. Uzaktan öğrenme ile uluslararasılaşmanın zorlukları nelerdir? (Örnek verebilir misiniz?)

[What are the challenges of internationalization via distance learning? (Can you exemplify it?)]

6. Fakültenizin daha uluslararası hale gelmesinin ne gibi sonuçları oldu? (Fakültenizin işleyişini değiştirdi mi? Nasıl?, Hangi beklentilerinizi karşıladı?)

[How has internationalization changed your faculty? (Has it changed the operation of the faculty? How? Which expectations of yours have been met?)]

7. Fakültenizin uzaktan öğrenme ile daha etkin bir şekilde uluslararasılaşması için neler yapılmalıdır? (Bu sorumlulukları kimler almalıdır? Neden?)

[What should be done for a more efficient internationalization of your faculty? (Who should take these responsibilities?)]

8. Eklemek ya da ayrıntılı olarak açıklamak istediğiniz bir konu var mı?

[Is there anything you want to add or elaborate?]

Consent Form for Faculty Administrators

Yükseköğretimin Uzaktan Öğrenme ile Uluslararasılaşması

Bu çalışmada, bir fakültenin uzaktan öğrenme ile uluslararasılaşma politikasının ve bu politikanın fakülte yöneticileri, öğretim elemanları ve uluslararası uzaktan öğrencilere olan dönüştürücü etkilerinin keşfedilmesi hedeflenmektedir. Bunun için, kurumsal olarak uluslararasılaşma hedefleri olan X Üniversitesi X Fakültesi araştırma sahası olarak seçilmiştir. Çalışma, bir (1) adet yaklaşık altmış (60) dakikalık yüz yüze görüşme ve ihtiyaç olması durumunda ve sizin de gönüllü olmanız halinde ikinci bir görüşme olasılığını içermektedir. Bu nitel süreçlerle toplanacak veriler Hakan Ergin tarafından analiz edilecektir. Siz, X Üniversitesi X Fakültesi'nin yöneticisi olarak bu çalışmaya seçilmiş bulunmaktasınız. İsmiğiniz ya da herhangi bir tanımlayıcı kişisel özelliğiniz veri toplama ve analiz etme süreçlerinde yer almayacaktır.

Bu çalışmaya katılım tamamen gönüllü olup, görüşmeler ve çalışmadan istediğiniz zaman ve herhangi bir ceza almaksızın ayrılabilirsiniz. Görüşme tamamlandıktan sonra size bir ücret ödenmeyecek ve hediye verilmeyecektir.

Verileri analiz ederken ve yazarken kimliğiniz tamamen gizli tutulacaktır. Rapor, sunum ya da yayımlarımda vereceğim bilgilerle isminiz hiçbir şekilde ilişkilendirilmeyecektir. Özel yaşamınız, kanunların izin verdiği en üst düzeyde korunacaktır. Görüşme sürecinde rahatsızlık hissederseniz, istediğiniz zaman ve hiçbir cezaya tabi tutulmaksızın bir soruyu cevaplamamayı ve/veya görüşmeye son vermeyi tercih edebilirsiniz.

Görüşme sırasında ses kayıt edici cihaz kullanılacaktır. Görüşmenin kaydedilmesini istemiyor iseniz, görüşmenin başında araştırmacıyı bilgilendiriniz. Kayıtlar, veri analizi sonrasında Eraser 6.0.10 bilgisayar programı ile geri döndürülemez şekilde yok edilecektir.

Bu çalışmayla ilgili herhangi bir sorunuz olursa, araştırmacı Hakan Ergin ile (hakan.ergin1@boun.edu.tr) ya da araştırmacının doktora tez danışmanı Doç. Dr. Fatma Nevra Seggie (nevra.seggie@boun.edu.tr) ile irtibata geçebilirsiniz. Ayrıca, katılımcı olarak, haklarınızla ilgili bir sorunuz ya da söyleyecekleriniz olursa ya da çalışmanın herhangi bir yerinden memnun kalmazsanız Boğaziçi Üniversitesi İnsan Araştırmaları Kurumsal Değerlendirme Kurulu (İNAREK) Başkanlığı ile irtibata geçebilirsiniz (Telefon: +90212 359 54 00).

Aşağıya atacağınız imzanız, bu çalışmaya katılmayı gönüllü olarak kabul ettiğinizi gösterir.

Katılımcının Adı

Katılımcının İmzası

Tarih

Ses Kaydını Kabul Ediyorum

APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL FOR FACULTY MEMBERS

Bilgi Formu

Cinsiyet :

Uzmanlık Alanı :

Uzaktan Öğretim Tecrübe Süresi :

Uzaktan Öğretimle Verilen Dersler :

Interview Questions for Faculty Members

1. Yükseköğretimin uluslararasılaşması hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz?

[What do you think about internationalization of higher education?]

2. Fakültenizin uzaktan öğrenme ile uluslararasılaşmayı resmi gündemine almasını nasıl değerlendiriyorsunuz? (Sizce buna neden gerek duyuldu? Sizce fakülte dışından hangi kişi ya da kurumlar bu kararı etkiledi?)

[Internationalization via distance learning has been on your faculty's agenda. What do you think of it? (Why do you think it was needed? Which persons or institutions do you think affected this decision?)]

3. Uluslararası uzaktan öğrencilere ders vermeye nasıl karar verdiniz? (Beklentileriniz nelerdi? Hangi gerekçeler size cazip geldi?)

[How did you decide teaching international distance students? (What were your expectations? What attracted you?)]

4. Uluslararası uzaktan öğrencilere ders vermenin kolaylıkları nelerdir? (Örnek verebilir misiniz?)

[What are the advantages of teaching international distance students? (Can you exemplify it?)]

5. Uluslararası uzaktan öğrencilere ders vermenin zorlukları nelerdir? (Örnek verebilir misiniz?)

[What are the challenges of teaching international distance students? (Can you exemplify it?)]

6. Fakültenizin uluslararası uzaktan öğrenci sayısının artmasının ne gibi sonuçları oldu? (Size olan kişisel etkileri nelerdir? Ders verme süreçlerinize nasıl etki etti? Sosyal/Kültürel olarak nasıl etkilendiniz?)

[What are the effects of the increase in the number of international distance students in your faculty? (What are the individual effects of it on you? How has it affected your teaching? How have you been affected socially and culturally?)]

7. Fakültenizin uzaktan öğrenme ile daha etkin bir şekilde uluslararasılaşması için neler yapılmalıdır? (Bu sorumlulukları kimler almalıdır? Neden?)

[What should be done for a more efficient internationalization of your faculty? (Who should take these responsibilities?)]

8. Eklemek ya da ayrıntılı olarak açıklamak istediğiniz bir konu var mı?

[Is there anything you want to add or elaborate?]

Consent Form for Faculty Members

Yükseköğretimin Uzaktan Öğrenme ile Uluslararasılaşması

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Verileri analiz ederken ve yazarken kimliğiniz tamamen gizli tutulacaktır. Rapor, sunum ya da yayımlarımda vereceğim bilgilerle isminiz hiçbir şekilde ilişkilendirilmeyecektir. Özel yaşamınız, kanunların izin verdiği en üst düzeyde korunacaktır. Görüşme sürecinde rahatsızlık hissederseniz, istediğiniz zaman ve hiçbir cezaya tabi tutulmaksızın bir soruyu cevaplamamayı ve/veya görüşmeye son vermeyi tercih edebilirsiniz.

Görüşme sırasında ses kayıt edici cihaz kullanılacaktır. Görüşmenin kaydedilmesini istemiyor iseniz, görüşmenin başında araştırmacıyı bilgilendiriniz. Kayıtlar, veri analizi sonrasında Eraser 6.0.10 bilgisayar programı ile geri döndürülemeyecek şekilde yok edilecektir.

Bu çalışmayla ilgili herhangi bir sorunuz olursa, araştırmacı Hakan Ergin ile (hakan.ergin1@boun.edu.tr) ya da araştırmacının doktora tez danışmanı Doç. Dr. Fatma Nevra Seggie (nevra.seggie@boun.edu.tr) ile irtibata geçebilirsiniz. Ayrıca, katılımcı olarak, haklarınızla ilgili bir sorunuz ya da söyleyecekleriniz olursa ya da çalışmanın herhangi bir yerinden memnun kalmazsanız Boğaziçi Üniversitesi İnsan Araştırmaları Kurumsal Değerlendirme Kurulu (İNAREK) Başkanlığı ile irtibata geçebilirsiniz (Telefon: +90212 359 54 00).

Aşağıya atacağınız imzanız, bu çalışmaya katılmayı gönüllü olarak kabul ettiğinizi gösterir.

Katılımcının Adı

Katılımcının İmzası

Tarih

Ses Kaydını Kabul Ediyorum

APPENDIX C

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL FOR INTERNATIONAL DISTANCE STUDENTS

Information Form

Sex :

Age :

Home country :

Department :

Year :

Working Status :

Interview Questions for International Distance Students

1. How did you decide to participate in an international distance program?

(Why? Can you let me know some specific reasons?)

2. How did you decide to participate in an international distance program offered by a university in Turkey?

(Why Turkey? Were there any other alternatives?)

3. What are the advantages of being an international distance student?

(What are the advantages about lessons, course materials, instructors, classmates, assessment, technical infrastructure, supportive staff members?)

4. What are the challenges of being an international distance student?

(What are the challenges about lessons, course materials, instructors, classmates, assessment, technical infrastructure, supportive staff members)

5. How has being an international distance student affected you? (What are the effects of it on your academic, professional and everyday lives?)

6. What should be done to make your international distance program better?

(Who should do it? How should these be done?)

7. Is there anything you want to add or elaborate?]

Consent Form for International Distance Students

Internationalization of Higher Education via Distance Learning

This study is designed to explore a faculty's policy of internationalization via distance learning and its transformative influences on the faculty administrators, faculty members and international distance students. For this, X Faculty at X University, which has the agenda of internationalization via distance learning, has been selected as the research setting.

The study involves 1 (one) face-to-face sixty (60) minute interview with a possibility of a second interview as a follow up should the researcher feel the need and you have time to do it. The data collected by these qualitative procedures will be conducted by Hakan Ergin. You have been chosen as a part of a sample international students who have been registered to a program at X Faculty at X University for at least one academic semester and is not a Turkish citizen. It is important to note that your name or any of your identifying personal characteristics will not be associated with any of your responses.

Participation in this study is entirely voluntary and you may withdraw from the interview and the study at any time with no penalty for doing so. After you complete the interview, you will be given no rewards or presents.

Your identity will remain confidential in the analysis of the data and dissemination of the findings. At no time will your name be connected with the data I will provide in any publications. Your privacy will be protected to the maximum extent allowable by law. It is possible that you may become uncomfortable during the interview process. You may, at any time without penalty, elect not to answer a question and/or discontinue the interview.

During the interview, audio recorder will be used. If you do not accept voice-recording, please inform me. I will destroy the data with Eraser 6.0.10 software after the analysis.

If you have any questions about the study, please feel free to contact the researcher (Hakan Ergin, hakan.ergin1@boun.edu.tr) or his advisor (Assoc. Prof. Dr. F. Nevra SEGGIE, nevra.seggie@boun.edu.tr). As a participant, if you have any questions or concerns regarding your rights or are dissatisfied at any time with any aspects of this study, you can also contact Institutional Ethical Review Board of Human Subject Research (INAREK) at Boğaziçi University (+90 212 440 20 12).

Your signature indicates your voluntary agreement to participate in this study.

Name of Participant

Signature of Participant

Date

I accept voice-recording

APPENDIX D

ETHICAL APPROVAL BY INAREK

BOĞAZİÇİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ
İnsan Araştırmaları Kurumsal Değerlendirme Kurulu (İNAREK) Toplantı Tutanağı
2015/02
EK

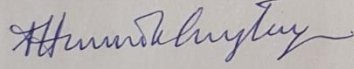
20.04.2015

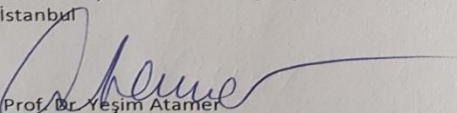
Hakan Ergin
Boğaziçi Üniversitesi, Eğitim Fakültesi, Yetişkin Eğitimi Bölümü 34342 - Bebek/ İstanbul
hakan.ergin1@yahoo.com / hakan.ergin1@boun.edu.tr

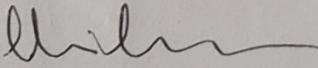
Sayın Araştırmacı,

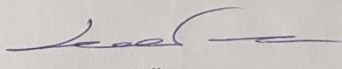
Yükseköğretimin Uzaktan Öğrenme ile Uluslararasılaşması
projeniz ile yaptığınız Boğaziçi Üniversitesi İnsan Araştırmaları Kurumsal Değerlendirme Kurulu (İNAREK)
2015/40 kayıt numaralı başvuru 20.04.2015 tarihli ve 2015/02 sayılı kurul toplantısında incelenerek etik
onay verilmesi uygun bulunmuştur.

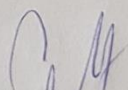
Saygılarımızla,


Prof. Dr. Hande Çağlayan (Başkan)
Moleküler Biyoloji ve Genetik Bölümü,
Fen-Edebiyat Fakültesi, Boğaziçi Üniversitesi,
İstanbul


Prof. Dr. Yeşim Atamer
İstanbul Bilgi Üniversitesi
Hukuk Fakültesi
İstanbul


Yrd. Doç. Dr. Ekin Eremsoy
Psikoloji Bölümü, Doğu Üniversitesi,
İstanbul


Yrd. Doç. Dr. Özgür Kocatürk
Biyo-Medikal Mühendisliği Enstitüsü
Boğaziçi Üniversitesi,
İstanbul


Doç. Dr. Özlem Hesapçı
İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi,
İşletme Bölümü, Boğaziçi Üniversitesi,
İstanbul

APPENDIX E

APPROVAL FOR DATA COLLECTION BY THE FACULTY

Tarih ve Sayı: 30/06/2015-203524



Sayı :14786339-302.14.01-
Konu :Tez çalışması hk.

Hakan ERGİN

"Yükseköğretimin Uzaktan Öğrenme Aracılığı ile Uluslararasılaşması: Türkiye'deki Bir Üniversite Örneği" adlı doktora tezinizin veri toplama aşamasını (doküman analizi ve yüz yüze görüşmeler) Fakültemiz bünyesinde yapmanız uygun görülmüştür.
Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini rica ederim.

e-İmzalı

Doğrulamak için:http://194.27.128.66/envision.Sorula/Validate_Doc.aspx?V=BEKV4FAR5

APPENDIX F

QUOTATIONS IN TURKISH

1- Klasik de deęiliz, geleneksel de; moderniz. Öğretimde teknolojiyi kullanmada uzmanız. Şu bilgisayarlara, kameralara, mikrofon ve dijital kaynaklarımıza bir bakın. Bunlar modern olduęumuza ispat. Tüm dünyaya uzaktan öğrenme sunuyoruz çünkü uzaktan öğrenme eğitime olan teknoloji dostu bakışımıza uyuyor.

2- İnaniyorum ki, gelecekte dünyadaki öğretimin çoęu uzaktan öğrenme ile verilecektir. Modern dünyada, işinde teknoloji kullanmak bir zorunluluk. Uzaktan ders veren meslektaşlarımı hep kıskanmışımıdır. Bana her zaman modern görünmüşlerdir. Galiba bu beni uzaktan ders vermeye motive etti.

3- Ben babamdan da, büyükbabamdan da farklıyım. Onların yaşadığı devirle, benim yaşadığım devir aynı deęil. Onlar geleneksel sınıflarda okudular ama ben öyle yapmak zorunda deęilim. Zaten insanlar niye sınıfta toplanırlar anlamış deęilim. Çok modası geçmiş bir şey bu. Teknoloji ile güzel bir alternatifimiz var.

4- Yirmi birinci yüzyıldayız. Her şey çok hızlı. Alışveriş, oyunlar ve müzik dinlemek dijital ve hızlı. Artık insanlar yavaş olan şeyleri sevmiyor. Daha hızlı öğrenme ortamları bekliyorlar. Ben, fakültemizin bu hızı sağladığını görünce mutlu oluyorum. Bu bile uzaktan öğrenme vermeye yeterli.

5- Dünyaya bir bakın! Dünyanın herhangi bir yerinde her an yeni bir bilgi üretiliyor. Yerinden kalkıp ona yetişmek istersen başaramazsın. Her saniyede bilgi üretiliyor.

Uçsan bile yakalayamazsın. Bunu yakalamanın tek yolu uzaktan öğrenme teknolojisi.

Ben, farklı kıtalardan öğrencilere ulaştığımda kendimi özgür hissediyorum.

6- Marketten bir şey almaya bile gitmiyorum. İnternette sipariş ediyorum, getiriyorlar. Bir şey öğrenmek için niye başka bir ülkeye taşınayım ki? Aynı şeyi bilgisayar başında da öğrenebilirim. Hem uluslararası öğrenci olup, hem de evde kalabilirim. Öğrenmeye böyle hızı erişmeyi seviyorum.

7- Açıkça konuşayım, paraya ihtiyacımız var. Çok uluslararası öğrenci kayıt edebilirsek, onların harç ücretlerinden iyi para kazanabiliriz. Bunu yapmanın en kolay yolu da uzaktan öğrenme programlarına uluslararası öğrenci kayıt edebilmek. Böylelikle, ısa zamanda para kazanabiliriz.

8- Malum Türkiye'de fakültelerin ve üniversitelerin öyle çok büyük bütçeleri yok. Devlet bütçe vermiyorsa, biz kendimiz bütçemizi oluşturmalıyız. Uzaktan uluslararası dersleri verebilecek hocamız da var, teknolojimiz de var. Niye uzaktan eğitim verip de para kazanmayalım ki? Uluslararası öğrencilerin harç ücretleri bize iyi bir gelir kaynağı olabilir.

9- Görüyorsunuz burada [fakülteyi kastederek] çok yoğunum. Müfredatla ilgilenmek ve daha fazla uluslararası öğrenci çekmek için fakültenin uluslararası reklamını yapmak benim görevim. Çok yoruluyorum. Her gün toplantılara katılmak zorundayım. Pek çok kişiyle görüşüp onların derdine çare bulmak zorundayım. Ama, dürüst olmak gerekirse, burada kazanıyorum da. Maaşıma ek olarak, burada yönetici

olduğum için ödeme alıyorum. Ama görüyorsunuz bu makam çok yorucu. Hak ettiğimi düşünüyorum.

10- Uzaktan öğretim derslerinin ek ders ücreti, geleneksel derslerden yaklaşık üç kat daha fazla. Bu akademisyenler için çok iyi bir fırsat. Malum, maaşlarımız pek yüksek değil. Yüksek ek ders ücreti bizi uzaktan ders vermeye teşvik ediyor.

11- Uzaktan öğrenciyim ve uluslararası öğrenciyim. Her ikisiyim ve bunun için çok fazla para vermiyorum. Harç ücreti ödüyorum tabi ki ama Türkiye'ye seyahat etmek ve orada yaşamak için para ödemiyorum. Bu bana cazip geldi. Arkadaşlarımdan yurtdışına okumaya gidenler oldu. Çok para verdiler. Ben şahsen onu karşılayamam.

12- Vize ücretlerinden haberiniz var mı? İnanılmaz. Arkadaşlarım çok para harcadılar. Ben o parayı vermek istemiyorum. Ders kitaplarına da çok para verdiler. Ders kitaplarını biliyor musunuz? Onlar da çok pahalı. Ama, benim uzaktan programımda, tüm ders materyalleri dijital. Ekstra ücret ödemiyorum. Cep telefonuma indiriyorum ve istediğim zaman okuyorum.

13- Uluslararası öğrencilerimizin sayısını artırmamız şart. Binlerce öğrenciyi burada ağırlayamayız. Sınıflarımız, yurtlarımız ve kütüphanelerimiz kaldırmaz. Ama, onları uzaktan eğitim derslerine kaydedip, uzaktan eğitim verebiliriz. Sadece teknik altyapıya para veririz, başka bir şeye değil.

14- Günümüzde, dünya küreselleşti. Kendi başına bir işi yapman mümkün değil. Dünyanın başka yerlerinde senle aynı işi yapan insanları görmezden gelmen

mümkün değil. Onları takip etmek ve onların standartlarına yetişmek zorundasın.

Onları takip etmenin tek yolu da uluslararası eğitim. Bugün, iyi bir üniversite olmanın uluslararası standardı, dünya çapında üniversite sıralamaları. Daha çok uluslararası öğrencimiz olursa, bu sıralamalarda daha iyi skorumuz olur. Daha çok uluslararası öğrenciye ulaşmanın en pratik yolu da uzaktan öğrenme.

15- İster geleneksel, ister uzaktan olsun, uluslararasılaşma dersleri daha kaliteli yapar. Kaliteden kastım sadece hocanın kalitesi değil, öğrencilerin derslere katkısı. Bir dersi çok uluslararası öğrenci alırsa, o derste çok uluslararası yorum, örnek ve soru var demektir.

16- Geleneksel sınıflara zaten katılmışlığım var. O sınıflarda da benim gibi öğrenciler vardı. Sınıftaki tüm öğrenciler benim yöremden insanlardı. Sevmedim pek. Sınıf arkadaşlarımdan tecrübelerinden de bir şeyler öğrenmek istedim.

Uluslararası uzaktan bir program bana uluslararası öğrenci ve hocalarla bir araya gelme imkanı verir diye düşündüm. Böylelikle kalite daha yüksek olur. Bu yüzden katıldım bu programa.

17. Dünya çapında bir fakülte olabilmek için, uluslararası müfredat sunmamız lazım. Ama, bu bir günde olmaz. Zaman gerektirir. Daha fazla uluslararası hoca ve öğrencimiz oldukça, müfredatı da onlara göre adapte edebileceğiz. Böylelikle, müfredatın uluslararasılaşmasını başarabiliriz.

18- Uluslararası sınıflara ders vermek akademisyenleri uluslararası ders materyalleri hazırlamaya zorlar. Akademisyen ders kaynaklarına farklı ülkelerden örnekler,

makaleler ve istatistiki bilgiler koymak durumunda kalır. Bu da materyalin içeriğini iyileştirir. Bu yüzden, daha fazla sayıda ve çeşitli ülkelerden öğrencisi olan bir akademisyen, daha uluslararası müfredat hazırlamak durumunda kalır.

19- Benim memleketimde de üniversiteler var elbette. Ben onları sadece yerel akademisyenler orada ders verdiği için değil, aynı zamanda ders materyalleri de yerel olduğu için tercih etmedim. Ben derste alanımla ilgili dünyada neler olup bittiğini anlatan makaleler okumak istiyorum.

20- Dünyanın farklı yerlerindeki öğrencilere diploma veren üniversitelere hep hayran olmuşumdur. Bu, üniversitenin tanınırlığına büyük katkı sağlar. Örneğin, Open University'i dünyada herkes tanır. Çünkü dünyanın pek çok ülkesinde öğrencisi var. Pek çok ülkedeki insanlara sertifika ya da diploma sağlıyor. Bu yüzden, daha fazla uluslararası öğrenciye ulaşmak ve onlara diploma vermek fakültemizin dünyanın her yerinde reklamını yapar.

21- Bu programda uzaktan ders verme teklifi aldığımda, bir fakülte yöneticisi bana fakültenin dünyanın farklı yerlerindeki öğrencilere diploma verebilmeyi planladığını, bunun da bizim niteliklerimizin tanınması anlamına geldiğini ifade etti.

Yurtdışındaki öğrencilere ders vermek ve onlara diplomamızı sunmak heyecan verici. Öğrencilerimin diploması daha çok tanındıkça, benim prestijim artar. Böylelikle, daha kendimden emin hissederim. Çünkü diplomanın tanınması, öğretiminin tanınması demektir.

22- Bu programa katılmamın ana nedenlerinden biri uluslararası bir diploma almak. Yerel bir diplomam varsa, yerelisin demektir. Uluslararası diplomam varsa, uluslararasıdır demektir. Diplomanın tanınırlığı, senin beceri ve bilgilerin tanınırlığı ile doğru orantılıdır.

23- Günümüzde ordular değil, kültürler birbirleri ile mücadele halindeler. Şu sokağa bir bak [pencereyi göstererek], Amerikan yemekleri satan dükkanlar var. Peki ya biz? Türk kahvemizi, tarihimizi ve geleneklerimizi tanıtamıyoruz. Bunu yapmalıyız. Uluslararası uzaktan öğrenme bunun için iyi bir araç. Dünyanın farklı bölgelerindeki insanlara Türk tarihini öğreterek başlayabiliriz.

24- Türkiye büyük bir ülke. Ama kendi kültürel değerlerimizi tanıtamıyoruz. Başka ülkelerden insanlarla tanıştığımda, biz, çok iyi tanımadıklarını görüyorum. Bu kesinlikle bizim kendi kültür ve tarihimizi tanıtamamamızdan kaynaklanmaktadır. Bunu yapmanın en iyi yolu yurtdışındaki gençlere ulaşmak ve onlara tarih ve kültürümüzü anlatmak. kendi tarih, kültür ve geleneklerimizle ilgili konuları uzaktan eğitim programımızdaki müfredata ekleyebiliriz.

25- Bu programdaki derslere başlamadan önce, pasif bir öğrenci olmayı istemedim. Aktif bir şekilde katılabildiğim kadar derslere katılmak istedim. Çünkü, dünyadaki insanlar Çin kültürü ile ilgili çok az şey biliyorlar. Bu yüzden, derslerde kültürümüzü anlatmak ve gelebilecek herhangi bir soruyu yanıtlamak istedim.

26- Uzaktan öğretim sınıflarında ders vermeye başlamadan önce, bu dersleri veren meslektaşlarımın uluslararası öğrencilerinin kültürleri ile ilgili pek çok şey

öğrendiklerini duymuştum. Bir arkadaşım, uluslararası öğrencilerin olduğu bir uzaktan antropoloji dersi verdi. Afrikalı öğrencileri sayesinde, geleneksel Afrika kabile kültürüne ilgi duymaya başladı. Uzaktan eğitimde ders vermeye başlamadan bu hep aklımda olmuştur. Bu derslerde sadece bir şey öğretmeyeceğimi, aynı zamanda sınıftaki diğer insanlar ve onların hayatları ile ilgili bir şeyler öğreneceğimi biliyordum. Bu beni uluslararası öğrencilere ders vermeye motive etti.

27- Dünyanın iyi bir yer olmadığını biliyorum. Her yerde savaş var. Koca dünyayı paylaşamıyoruz. Bence sorun birbirimizi anlamamamız. Anlasaydık, dünya daha iyi bir yer olurdu. Yine de, çok da umutsuz değilim. Gençliğe güveniyorum. Gençler birbirini tanırsa, birbirlerine empati kurabilirler. Bu yüzden, uluslararası yüksek öğretim bunun için büyük bir fırsat. Farklı ülkelerden insanlar bir araya gelip aynı sınıfta okumalı ve birbirini tanımalı. Böylelikle birbirlerini severler ve kültürlerine saygı duyarlar.

28- Açıkçası, hiç uluslararası arkadaşım yoktu. Yurtdışında da uzun süre kalmadım. Bu yüzden, uzaktan eğitim derslerinde uluslararası öğrencilerle buluşabileceğimi düşündüm. Bunun, İngilizcemi pratik etmemi ve onlarla sosyal medyada irtibat halinde olmamı sağlayacağını düşündüm.

29- Yerel bir üniversitede okuduğunuzda çok az arkadaşınız olur. Ancak, uluslararası bir ortamda okuduğunuzda, farklı ülke ve kültürlerden pek çok arkadaşınız olur. Onları kendi ülkelerinde ziyaret edebilirsiniz. Onlar da sizi kendi ülkenizde ziyaret edebilirler. Bence bu güzel bir şey.

30- Daha çok uluslararası öğrenci demek, daha çok politik güç demektir.

Öğrencilerimiz kendi ülkelerinde bakan olurlarsa, eminim ki karşılıklı diplomatik ilişkilerimiz gelişir. Çünkü, Türkiye'yi öğreniyorlar ve bizi seviyorlar. Bu yüzden, amacımız sadece öğretim yapmak değil, diplomatik yatırım yapmaktır.

31- Orta Doğu'da neler olduğunu görüyoruz. Biz [Türkiye] burada lider olmak için daha güçlü olmalıyız. Askeri gücümüz var ama insanları eğitmek için yeterli bölgesel yükseköğretim politikamız yok. Bu yüzden, Orta Doğu'da bizi sevenlerin sayısını artırmak için bölgede uzaktan öğrenme sağlamalıyız.

32- Suriyeliyim ama dört yıldır Türkiye'de yaşıyorum. Memleketimde işler kötüye gitmeye başlayınca [Suriye krizine işaret ediyor], ben ve ailem buraya taşındık. Suriye'de çalışkan bir öğrenciydim. Oradaki üniversite eğitimimi yarıda bıraktım. Bu yüzden, buraya geldiğimde haya kırıklığına uğramıştım. Yalnız ve zayıf hissediyordum. Bir arkadaş bana bu programdan bahsetti ve ben de başladım. Bu programın acımı unutmamı sağlayacağını düşündüm.

33- Şu anda, memleketim Halep'te durum Suriye'nin diğer yerlerindeki gibi kötü değil. Siyasi olaylar nedeni ile birkaç yıl önce okulu bıraktım. Yapacak bir şey olmadığı için çıldırmak üzereydim. Bazı akrabalarım Türkiye'ye taşındılar. Savaş bitmezse, ben ve ailem de muhtemelen taşınmak zorunda kalacağız. Bu programa Türkiye'den bir diplomama olsun diye kayıt oldum. Taşınır mıyım, taşınmaz mıyım oraya bilmiyorum. Ama, uzaktan öğrenme ile de olsa, bir okulunun olması güzel.

34- Açıkçası, ben bu programa katılmaya pek de istekli değildim. Babam lisans derecesini Rusya'dan almış. Bana ve kız kardeşime her zaman uluslararası bir diplomamızın olmasını tavsiye etmiştir. Memleketimden ayrılmak istemiyordum. Babam da bu programa katılmamı istiyordu. O bu kadar ısrar etmese, katılmazdım.

35- Bizim fakülte burada, bir yere gitmiyor. Ama, biz aynı anda farklı ülkelerdeki insanlarla iletişim kurabiliyoruz. Uzaktan öğrenme ile uluslararasılaşmanın bu yönünü seviyorum. Şu an, yurtdışındaki başka uzaktan öğrenme veren yerlerle işbirliği yapmayı planlıyoruz. Biz de gitmeyeceğiz oralara, onlar da buraya gelmeyecekler. Uzaktan öğrenme teknolojisi ile yapacağız bunu.

36- Bu dönem uzaktan eğitim dersleri veriyorum. Farklı ülkelere öğrencilerim var. Buradaki kolaylığı düşünebiliyor musunuz? Bir öğrenci Almanya'da, diğeri Türkmenistan'da ve ben Türkiye'deyim. Ama internette buluşuyoruz ve dünyanın öbür ucundan onlara ders verebiliyorum. İnternet olmadan bunu yapamazdım. Bu zaman ve mekan bağımsızlığı, dersleri çok kolay bir hale getiriyor.

37- Bolivyalıyım. Kendi kasabamda bile okula gitmek bana zor gelmiştir. Okul yolunda vakit kaybetmek istemiyorum. Her zaman internetteyim. Oyun oynarım, çeviri yaparım ve arkadaşlarla sohbet ederim. İnternette iyiyimdir. Profesyonel bir internet kullanıcısıyım [gülüyor]. Türkiye'ye gitmektense, aynı bilgiyi bilgisayarımda öğrenebilirim.

38- 300 tane uluslararası öğrencimiz var. Pek çok sorunları, soruları oluyor ve her zaman yardıma ihtiyaç duyuyorlar. Bu sorunları video konferans ile çözüyorum. Ya

da işitsel/görsel materyallerden faydalaniyorum. Bir örnek vereyim. Dönem başında, onlarca uluslararası öğrenci beni aradı ve kayıtlarla ilgili sorunlarının olduğunu söyledi. İnternete kayıtların nasıl yapılması gerektiği ile ilgili bir video yükledik ve sorun halloldu.

39- Kitap, makale, kitap bölümleri ve video gibi ders materyallerinin tamamı dijital olduğu için, istediğim zaman onları güncelleyip, gözden geçirip, kullanıp, yenisini ekleyebiliyorum. Hatta bazen, bir makaleyi okurken, sevdiğim bir yerini ses kaydı ile öğrencilerle paylaşıyorum. Onlar da dinleyip, ses kaydı ile bana cevap veriyorlar. Bu çok eğlenceli ve pratik bir şey!

40- Uluslararası uzaktan öğrenmenin en sevdiğim şeylerinden bir tanesi, dijital materyallerin olması. Bazen, hocamız dersten önce bir makale gönderiyor ve cep telefonumda okuyorum. Bazen, dersleri kaydediyorum ve boş zamanlarımda hocayı tekrar dinliyorum. Böyle, dersi daha iyi anlıyorum.

41- Kendi gelirimizi kendimiz kazanıyoruz. Şuraya bir bakın [bilgisayarı gösteriyor]! Son model bilgisayarları kullanıyoruz. Reklamlarımız, teknik alt yapımız ve materyallerimize bir bakın. Bunların hepsini uzaktan öğrenme ile kazandığımız para sayesinde yapabildik. Ama, daha fazla para demek, daha çok insana ulaşmak demek. Bu yüzden, daha fazla öğrencimizin olması için, dünyanın herhangi bir ülkesine ulaşabilmeliyiz.

42- Malum, uzaktan eğitim derslerinin ek ders ücreti bizim için iyi bir gelir kaynağı. Normal derslerden üç kat daha fazla. Bu da, daha az ders vererek, daha fazla

kazanabileceğim anlamına geliyor. Böylelikle, giderlerimi daha rahat karşılayabiliyorum.

43- Uzaktan öğretimi biliyorsunuz. Nasıl söyleyeyim? Karlı bir şey [gülüyor]. Ders vermek için sınıfa, sıralara, binaya ve tahtaya ihtiyacınız yok. Tek ihtiyacınız olan şey interneti olan bir bilgisayar. Binlerce öğrenciye aynı anda ders verebilirsiniz. Uluslararası öğrencilere ders verirseniz de daha çok kazanırsınız çünkü onların harç ücreti, yerel öğrencilerin harç ücretinden daha yüksek.

44- Açıkçası, eğitimime çok para harcayamam. Özellikle de, başka bir ülkeye taşınmak benim için imkansız bir şey. Orada yaşamının masraflarını karşılayamam. Ben Kübalıyım. Burada kalmak istiyorum. Daha doğrusu, burada yaşamak zorundayım. Çok para kazanmıyorum ve zengin bir ailem de yok. Bu yüzden, benim için en iyi seçenek başka bir ülkeye seyahat etmek ve orada yaşama maliyetlerinden kurtulmak için uzaktan eğitime yazılmaktı.

45- Ben, Ukrayna'da hemşireyim. İş sağlığı ve güvenliği alanında uzman olmak istiyorum. Ama, uluslararası materyaller o kadar pahalı ki, karşılayamıyorum. Fakültemin materyallerini seviyorum. Kitap, kitap bölümü ve makale şeklinde pek çok materyal yüklüyorlar. Benim bilgimi artırıyor bunlar. Buna ihtiyacım var çünkü Ukrayna'da uluslararası düzeyde bilgiye sahip birkaç tane uzaman var. Ben de bu alanda iyice bilgi sahibi olup diploma alabilirsem, bu alanda uluslararası düzeyde bilgiye sahip birkaç kişiden bir tanesi olabilirim.

46- Dört kıtada öğrencimiz var. Bu demektir ki üniversitemiz ve fakültemiz dört kıtada biliniyor. Avrupa'da bir öğrenciye ders verdiğimizde, arkadaşları ile konuşurken bizden [fakülteden] bahsedebilir. Bu uluslararası uzaktan öğrenme sayesinde olur. Yoksa, nasıl başarabiliriz ki bunu?

47- Bence uluslararası öğrencilere ders vermek demek, pek çok uluslararası irtibatının olması demektir. Böylelikle, başka bir ülkede birisinden, ihtiyacın olduğunda sana yardımcı olmasını isteyebilirsin. Mesela, geçen ay, Berlin'de bir üniversite ile iletişime geçmem gerekti. Hem Berlin'deki üniversitede, hem de bizim programda okuyan bir öğrencim var. Onun sayesinde irtibat kurdum orası ile. Umarım uluslararası projeler için iş birliği yapacağız orası ile.

48- Sağlık bilimleri ile ilgili iki tane uzaktan ders veriyorum. Öğrencilerime dünyadan örnekler vermek istiyorum. Ama, açıkçası, yurtdışında uzun süre yaşamadım ve bu yüzden ülkeler arası karşılaştırmalı örnekler veremeyebiliyorum. Bu noktada, sınıftaki uluslararası öğrencilerden, Türkiye ile ilgili anlattığım konu ile kendi ülkelerindekini karşılaştırmalarını istiyorum. Hem onlar derse aktif olarak katılmış oluyorlar, hem de ben ve sınıftaki yerel öğrenciler bir şeyler öğrenmiş oluyoruz.

49- Ticaretle ilgili bir uzaktan ders veriyorum. Sınıfta Avrupalı öğrenciler var. Yanlış bilmiyorsam, İran ve Azerbaycan gibi komşu ülkelere birkaç öğrenci de var. Sınıfta uluslararası öğrenciler olduğu için, onlara farklı ülkelere ticari uygulama örnekleri sunuyorum. Türkiye'deki ticarete odaklanmıyorum. Uluslararası bir içerik

oluşturmam gerektiğinin farkındayım. Bu da, ders materyallerini daha zengin bir hale getiriyor.

50- Başka ülkelere okumaya giden arkadaşlarım oldu. Onlarla sürekli konuşuyorum. Vize, oturma izni, çalışma izni ve ehliyet alırken çok zorluklar yaşadılar. Ben de benzer zorlukları yaşamak istemiyorum. Bu yüzden uzaktan öğrenmeyi tercih ettim. Posta ile kayıt oldum. O kadar! Bürokrasi yok.

51- Açıkçası, ben pek sosyal birisi değilim. Biraz utangacım. Uzaktan eğitim sınıfında olduğumda daha iyi hissediyorum. Çok kişi ile aynı odada olmaktan hoşlanmıyorum. Her ikisini de kıyaslayabiliyorum çünkü daha önceden yüz yüze sınıflarda da bulundum. Uzaktan eğitim sınıfları bana daha iyi geliyor.

52- Dört kıtadan öğrencilere uzaktan öğretim sunuyoruz ama yeterince kurumsal mıyız? Bana sorarsanız, henüz değil. Open University ile bizi bir kıyaslayın. Onlar daha uluslararası çünkü bizden daha kurumsal bir yapıdalar. Örneğin, bizde bir müfredatın uluslararasılaşmasından sorumlu birim yok. Niye yok? BU bizim işimizi zorlaştıran bir şey.

53- Fakültede uluslararasılaşma ofisini kurduğumuzda, herkes şaşırdı. Rektörlükte uluslararası ilişkiler ofisinin olduğunu ve fakültedeki ofisin gereksiz olduğunu düşünenler halen var. Ama, onlar bir detayı unutuyorlar. Üniversitenin uluslararası ilişkiler ofisinin bizdeki gibi dijital hareketlilik gündemi yok. Bu bizim uzmanlık alanımız ve farklı bir ofisten koordine edilmeli.

54- Fakülteyi açmaya karar verdik ve binayı da, diğer ihtiyacımız olan malzemeleri de bulduk. Ama, bulamadığımız şey, uluslararası standartlarda ders verebilen akademisyenler oldu. Birçok akademisyen İngilizceyi iyi bilmiyor. Dahası, müfredatı uluslararasılaştırmayı da bilmiyorlar.

55- Uzaktan eğitim verebilmek için, hızlı internet, web tasarımı, materyal yüklenmesi, çevrimiçi kayıt ve çevrimiçi öğrenci işleri gibi iyi bir teknik altyapınızın olması gerekir. Bu da, iyi mühendis ve teknisyenlerinizin olması demek. Onları da bulmak öyle kolay değil.

56- Uzaktan öğretim veriyoruz. Geleneksel eğitim değil bu. Mümkün olduğunca hızlı olmamız lazım. Ama, Türkiye'de bürokrasi çok fazla ve bu da bizi çıldırtıyor! Rektörlük ve YÖK'e yazdığımız kağıtlar ve dilekçelerden dolayı yoruluyoruz. Sorunlarımızı çözmek de çok zaman alıyor. Yetkililere kolayca ulaşamıyoruz. Dört kıtada uluslararası uzaktan öğrencilere ulaşıyoruz ama bazen ihtiyacımız olduğunda yetkililere ulaşamıyoruz.

57- Sınıflarda kontenjan kısıtlaması olması çok garip. Uzaktan eğitim sınıflarına belli bir limitin üzerinde öğrenci kaydı yapamıyoruz. Garip değil mi bu? Bizimkisi, sıra sayısı sınırlı olan geleneksel sınıflar değil ki, çevrimiçi sınıflar! Neden sınırlıyorlar ki? Sınırsız sayıda öğrenciyi uzaktan derslere alabilmemiz lazım. Böylelikle, farklı ülkelere kitlesel bir şekilde öğrencileri aynı sınıfa yerleştirebiliriz.

58- Geleneksel bir derste, öğrencilerimle aynı odada olurum. Ne yaptıklarını görürüm. Bazen onlardan rol canlandırma yapmalarını isterim. Ama, uzaktan eğitim sınıfında bu mümkün değil. Onları sadece bilgisayar ekranında görüyorum. Yüz yüze görüşmekle aynı şey değil. Birkaç hafta önce, Çinli bir öğrencim bana bir şeyler anlatmaya çalıştı, anlamadım. Yüz yüze olsaydık, anlayabilirdim.

59- Tüm hocaların ders anlatırken cam bardakta siyah çay içtiklerini fark ettim. Bir tanesine neden sürekli çay içtiğini sordum. Türkiye'de çayın çok yaygın olduğunu ve genelde cam bardakta içildiğini söyledi. Orda olsaydım, bana çay ısmarlayacağını söyledi. Bu Türk geleneğini bilmiyordum. Eğer, onunla geleneksel bir sınıfta olsaydım, birlikte çay içebilirdik.

60- Ne yazık ki İngilizcem pek iyi değil. Geliştirmeye çalışıyorum ama biliyorsunuz zaman alır. Bazı uluslararası öğrenciler Türkçe biliyor zaten. Mesela, bir dersimde iki tane uluslararası öğrenci var. Bir tanesi Almanyalı. Türkçeyi iyi biliyor. Öbürü Azerbaycanlı. O da Türkçeyi biliyor. O yüzden, o dersi Türkçe veriyorum. Ama, bazı uluslararası öğrenciler Türkçe bilmiyor. Bu yüzden onlara İngilizce anlatmak zorundayım. Ama, ne yalan söyleyeyim, bazen Türkçeye dönüyorum. İngilizcemi geliştirmem lazım farkındayım.

61- Bir keresinde, ders kaydı ile ilgili sorunum vardı. Öğrenci işlerine yardım istemek için telefon açtım. Ama, telefondaki kadın İngilizce bilmiyordu ve bana yardımcı olamadı. Ben de, bir tane hocama e-mail attım. O sorunumu çözmeme yardımcı oldu.

62- Teknoloji ile çalışmanın riskli olduğuna inanmışımdır her zaman. Herhangi bir anda teknolojik bir problem yaşayabilirsiniz. Uluslararası uzaktan öğrencilere ders verirken daha fazla riskiniz var. Kendi teknik altyapınız iyi olsa bile, uluslararası öğrencilerinizin iyi olmayabilir. Mesela, bir tane sınıfımda İranlı öğrenciler var. İnternet hızları çok yavaştı. Geçen ay, bir çevrimiçi sınav yaptım. Ama, internette sorun yaşadıkları için, bu öğrenciler sınavı tamamlayamadı. Yeniden sınav hazırlayıp, sonraki hafta sınav yaptım onları.

63- Biz şanslıyız, biz bir teknik sorun yaşadığımızda, fakültede bize yardım eden personel var. Birkaç kez sorun yaşadım. Onları aradım ve yardımcı oldular. Ama, beni asıl korkutan, uluslararası öğrencilerin yaşadıkları sorunlar. Bir defasında, yaşlı bir uluslararası öğrencim vardı. Teknoloji konusunda pek iyi değildi. Ona ders esnasında ve hatta ders dışında teknik talimatlar vermek zorunda kalıyordum.

64- Bazen hocamın gönderdiği bir dosyayı açamıyorum. Bazen de sisteme giremiyorum ve derse geç kaldığım oluyor. Beni çok sinirlendiriyor bu durum. Umarım artık yaşamam. Cidden sinir bozucu.

65- Dersten birkaç gün önce ya da aynı gün, uzaktan eğitim öğrencilerime yazılı ve işitsel/görsel materyaller gönderiyorum. Ama, tüm uluslararası öğrencilerimin bu materyallere ulaşamadığını fark ediyorum. Almanya'daki dosyayı açabilirken, Çin'deki açamayabiliyor.

66- Bir keresinde, sisteme ödevimi yüklemek istedim ama defalarca denememe rağmen başaramadım. Hocaya e-mail attım ama o da cevap vermedi. Öğrenci işlerini

aradım ama kimseye ulaşamadım. İki gün boyunca bu sorunla uğraştım ve sonunda ödevi yükleyebildim.

67- Uluslararası uzaktan eğitim derslerini seviyorum. Ama, biliyorsunuz, uzaktan eğitim hocalığı sadece çevrimiçi ders vermek değil. Uluslararası uzaktan öğrencileri çevrimiçi olarak sınav yapmak, ders materyalleri hazırlamak ve onları uzaktan ders sistemine yüklemeniz gerekir. Böylelikle, öğrenciler de ulaşabilsinler. Ben orijinal materyaller hazırlıyorum. Ama, telif hakkım yok. Bu materyaller için de ekstra ücret ödenmiyor bana. Bence, teşvik edilmemiz için bu ücret verilmeli bize.

68- Biliyorsunuz, uluslararası uzaktan sınıflara ders vermek, geleneksel sınıflara ders vermekten daha farklı. Teknolojide iyi olmanız lazım. Uluslararası müfredat hazırlamanız beklenir. İngilizceyi iyi bilmeniz lazım. Farklı ülkelerden öğrencilere danışmanlık yapmanız beklenir. Bunların hepsi bir uzmanlık gerektirir. İlk uzaktan eğitim sınıflarımı hatırlıyorum da, baya zorlanmıştım. Hizmet içi eğitim verilmiş olsaydım, daha kolay ders verebilirdim.

69- Bir dersin tüm materyallerine dönemin başında erişmek istiyorum. Ama, ders materyalleri bazen zamanında hazır olmuyor. Bu da benim canımı sıkıyor. Ne okumam gerektiğini önceden bilmek istiyorum. Bu gecikme hoşuma gitmiyor.

70- Ders materyalleri ile ilgili benim yaşadığım sorun çok Türkiye odaklı olmaları. Türkiye'den kanun, kural, politika ve uygulamaların bahsedilmesini anlıyorum. Ama, ben bir uluslararası öğrenciyim ve bu da bir uzaktan program. Bence, daha çok küresel içeriğin ders materyallerine eklenmesi lazım. Böylelikle, alanımızda dünyada

neler olup bittiğini öğrenebiliriz. Yoksa, Türkiye'ye özgü çok fazla terim ve isimler içeren ders materyallerini anlayamıyorum.

71- Para kazandık. Yani, fakülte, uluslararası öğrencilerden para kazandı.

Biliyorsunuz, uluslararası öğrencilerin harç ücretleri yerel öğrencilerinkinden daha yüksek. Bu sayede, fakülte para kazanmış oldu. Bu uzaktan öğrenme ile uluslararasılaşmanın ilk etkisi.

72- Uzaktan öğrenme ile uluslararasılaşmanın en göze çarpan dönüşümünün kazanılan para olduğunun farkındayım. Ama, milyonlarca dolar kazanmadık. Sadece 300 tane uluslararası öğrencimiz var. Daha fazla olsaydı, daha çok kazanırdık. Ama, ben inanıyorum, daha fazla olur ve kazanırız.

73- Uluslararası öğrencilere ulaşmak öyle kolay bir şey değil. Onları çekmek için, uluslararası reklam ve kampanyalar yapmanız gerek. Yurtdışına çıkıp, diğer üniversitelerle işbirliği geliştirmeniz lazım. Uluslararası ve ucuz programlar sunduğunuza insanları inandırmanız gerekir. Biz, bunu kısa bir sürede başardık. Bu da bizi aynısını tekrar yapıp, daha fazla uluslararası öğrenciye ulaşabileceğimiz konusunda cesaretlendiriyor.

74- Uzaktan öğrenme ile uluslararasılaşma sayesinde, sadece para kazandığımızı söyleyemem. Aynı zamanda, uluslararası akademik bir atmosfere de sahip olduk. Her toplantımızda, uluslararasılaşma gündemimizdedir. Bunun yanında, uzaktan öğretim veren diğer yerleri, özellikle de Avrupa'dakileri de takip ediyorum. Onların standartlarını da yakalamaya çalışıyoruz. Mesela, yurtdışındaki diğer açık öğretim

fakülteleri gibi, uluslararası öğrencilerimizin sorunlarını çözmek için bir çağrı merkezi kurduk.

75- Sadece 300 uluslararası uzaktan öğrencimiz var. Bu bile fakültemizin standartlarını yükseltti. Örneğin, ders materyalleri daha dikkatlice hazırlanıyor, öğrenci işleri uluslararası öğrencilere yardımcı olma konusunda çok istekli ve uluslararasılaşma ofisi, fakültenin en önemli birimlerinden birisi oldu.

76- Her sınıfta uluslararası öğrenci olmalı diye düşünüyorum. Bu öğrenciler uzaktan eğitim derslerinin havasını değiştiriyor. Bu dönem, uzaktan öğretim dersi veriyorum. Birkaç tane uluslararası öğrenci var. Uluslararası öğrenciler her zaman derlere katılıyorlar. Soru soruyorlar, anlattığım şeylerle ilgili yorum yapıyorlar ve kendi ülkelerinden örnekler veriyorlar. Bu, yerli öğrencileri de motive ediyor. Bu sayede, Türk öğrenciler de derslere aktif bir şekilde katılıyorlar.

77- Sudan'da benimle aynı bölümü örgün eğitimde okuyan arkadaşlarım var. Ama, onlarla buluştuğumda, anlıyorum ki benim akademik ve alana özgü bilgilerim onlarınkinden daha iyi. Onlar, daha bazı temel terimleri dahi bilmiyorlar. Bence, bu uzaktan eğitim programımdaki üniversite ve hocalarımın yüksek kaliteli olmasından kaynaklanıyor.

78- Uluslararası öğrencilere ders vermek ciddi zor. Onlara hitap edebilmek için, uluslararası olmak gerekir. Onlara, küresel bir izlenim, sunmanız gerekir, yerel değil. Ders materyallerinin içerisine uluslararası içerik eklemem saatlerimi alıyor. Ama, bu benim ders materyallerimi geliştiriyor.

79- Derslerimizin çoğu, uluslararası içeriğe sahip. Makaleler, istatistikler ve örnekler farklı ülkelerden veriliyor. Bunu seviyorum. Bir keresinde, hocamız dersi ABD'den anlattı. Bir konferans için gitmiş oraya ve dersi Amerikalı bir meslektaş ile beraber anlattı. Çok güzel bir deneyimdi.

80- Uzaktan eğitim programlarımız sayesinde, pek çok uluslararası öğrenciye ders verdim. Ders saatleri dışında da onlarla iletişimim devam etmiştir. Bir keresinde, İran'dan bir öğrencim beni aradı, İran'da bir iş bulunduğunu söyledi, iş detaylarından bahsetti ve işe başlayıp başlamamasını bana sordu. Şaşırdım ve sevindim. Bana güvenmiş ve farklı bir ülkede olmama rağmen fikrimi aldı.

81- Bu uzaktan eğitim programına başlamadan önce, başka ülkelerden arkadaşlarım yoktu. Ama, iki yıldır bu programda öğrenciyim ve iki yıl içerisinde Türkiye ve diğer ülkelerden çok iyi arkadaşlarım oldu. Seviyorum onları! Hepsi de Facebook'da arkadaş listemde. Her hafta onları arıyorum ve saatlerce sohbet ediyoruz. Umarım onları ziyaret edeceğim ve onlar da beni memleketimde ziyaret edecek.

82- Uzaktan eğitim sınıflarındaki uluslararası öğrencilere ders vermek hem benim başka kültürlerle karşı anlayışlı olmamı sağladı, hem de kendi kültürümüzü tanıtmamı sağladı. Mesela, bir keresinde bir uluslararası öğrenci, geleneksel Türk yemekleri ile ilgili bir soru sordu. Anlattım ona. Fotoğraflar ve bazı yemeklerin tarifini de gönderdim. Bir uluslararası öğrenci ile bunları konuşmak çok güzeldi. Uluslararası öğrenciler, Türk kültürünü araştırıyorlar ve duyduklarının ya da okuduklarının doğru olup olmadığını bana soruyorlar.

83- Bu programa kayıt olmadan önce, hiç Türk arkadaşım yoktu. Ama, şu anda çok var. Türk kültürü ve tarihi hakkında bir şey bilmiyordum. Türk tarihi ile ilgili çok şey öğrendim. Türklerin savaşlarda pek çok zafer kazandığını biliyorum. Bununla ilgili daha çok şey okuyacağım.

84- Dedem ve babam eğitime çok önem verir. Bu programa katıldığımdan beri, benimle gurur duyuyorlar. Uluslararası bir diplomam olacağı için beni takdir ediyorlar. Kuzenlerime de, aynı benim gibi bir uluslararası programda okumalarımı tavsiye ediyorlar. Bu şekilde saygı görmek hoşuma gidiyor.

85- Bu programa iki yıl önce başladım. Ailemle birlikte, Suriye'deki savaştan kaçıp, burada [Türkiye'de] yeni bir hayat kurdum. Buraya geldiğimde para kazanmak zorundaydım. Güvendeydim ama Suriye'deki yükseköğrenimimi yarıda bıraktığım için üzgündüm. Keşke bitirebilseydim. Ama, olmadı. Üniversitede okuyabilmek için ikinci bir şans aradım. Bazı arkadaşlarım örgün eğitimde Türkiye'deki üniversitelerde okumaya başladılar ama ben babama yardımcı olabilmek için çalışmak zorundayım. Sonra, bu programı duydum ve başladım. Uzaktan eğitim programlarından aldığım diploma ile, aynen örgün eğitimden alınan diplomalar gibi işe başvurabileceğimi öğrendim. İyi bir şey bu. Yeniden öğrenci olmak güzel. Daha iyi hissettiriyor. Artık, umutsuz değilim. Yeni şeyler öğrendikçe daha iyi hissediyorum.

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