



Allen Scott Duncan

Gestion des filiales étrangères des établissements d'enseignement supérieur

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In Loving Memory of

Farris Allen Duncan

October 22, 1944 – November 14, 2017

Father, Friend, Inspiration

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GENERAL INTRODUCTION

“As some universities become more global, they will act as multinational businesses.”

Escriva-Beltran, Muño-de-Prat, and Villó, 2019, p. 7

“The number of IBCs around the world continues to grow, reaching new territories and markets.”

Hickey and Davies, 2022, p. 11

We start with the premise that there is a shift in the literature from the conceptualization of higher education institutions (HEIs) as becoming more like modern business organizations. They face the same socioeconomic issues such as market saturation, intense competition, increased costs, power of global brands, and growing expectations from stakeholders (Girdzijauskaite et al., 2019a). Institutions strive to position themselves in the education market that best align with their strategy (Mouillot & Bartel-Radic, 2020) and organizations will often mimic the actions of other firms (Asselineau & Grolleau, 2022). Internationalization has been identified as one of the most important issues facing today's academic organizations (Amdam & Benito, 2022).

The number of higher education institutions has increased over the past few years but has received little attention from the scientific community (Vieira & Lepori, 2016). HEIs are also increasingly expanding their physical operations abroad (Wilkins, 2021). There are currently 33 international branch campuses (IBCs) located in 83 host countries and coming from 39 home countries (Cross-Border Research Team, 2023). Despite this growth, international branch campuses remain one of the most unexplored higher education entry modes to international markets (Beecher & Streitwieser, 2017; Escriva-Beltran et al., 2019). Most of the research to date on IBCs has been from an education perspective and not an international business one. Also, empirical research on the subject is scarce (Escriva-Beltran et al., 2019). Girdzijauskaite et al. (2019a) recognize that universities are often compared to multinational corporations and that there is a lack of academic knowledge concerning IBCs. This is a key focus of this dissertation.

Another closely related development in the literature concerns a call for multiple subsidiary analysis within a single MNC (e.g., Athreye et al., 2014; Boussebaa, 2015) for a different understanding of intra-firm coordination. The ability to effectively and efficiently control activities and resources within a MNC is crucial to its performance (Valax & Rive, 2016; Zeng et al., 2023).

Thus, coordination and control have been an important research topic in international business for many years (Jaussaud & Schaaper, 2006; Kostova et al., 2015; Meyer et al., 2020). We address the call for multiple subsidiary analysis within a single MNC via our dissertation research.

Professional service firms are another element in the literature. Professional service firms (PSFs), are types of companies that provide customized, knowledge-intensive services, delivered by highly educated professionals (O'Higgins et al., 2022). Though research in PSFs has increased in recent years, there is a demand for studies investigating foreign direct investment and market entry modes of knowledge-intensive firms (Paul & Feliciano-Cestero, 2021).

Institutions of higher education may be classified as PSFs (Lovelock & Gummesson, 2004; von Nordenflycht, 2010). There is a need to better understand the internationalization of HEIs as service firms (Drori et al., 2015). However, existing empirical literature on market entry strategies of educational services is scarce (Czinkota et al., 2009; Lovelock & Gummesson, 2004). Also, most of the empirical evidence of HEIs as PSFs is limited in scope to their focus on U.S. institutions (Meyer & Su, 2015). Czinkota et al. (2009) call for more research to better understand the internationalization of education services based in other countries. With the rise of PSFs in the global arena, higher education institutions provide opportunities for theoretical and empirical research that should be explored (Klarin et al., 2021).

The literature also shows that there is a call to draw upon theories and concepts often used in international business research to be applied to studies concerning higher education institutions and international branch campuses. He & Wilkins (2018) call for more application of institutional theory in transnational education, while Shams & Huisman (2012) call for more use of the I-R framework when researching IBCs.

To fill these gaps, we decided to address these issues concerning HEIs and IBCs by examining higher education institutions in France and their international branch campuses. Much of the research on IBCs is provided in grey literature, such as reports published by government agencies and regulatory bodies, higher education institution, or non-governmental organizations and is often difficult to retrieve (Wilkins, 2021). Therefore, our object of research is relevant.

Methodological approach

A qualitative methodology is used for our doctoral dissertation. Qualitative research, a well-established tradition in business research, is frequently used to gain insights into organizational phenomena (Creswell & Poth, 2016). In contrast to quantitative studies, qualitative methodologies delve into the meaning and understanding of processes within unique situations,

rather than statistical analysis (Giordano, 2003). Our analysis is based on an abductive approach. The literature review provides us with theoretical “building blocks” for our data analysis and theoretical discussion of the empirical evidence (Dubois & Gadde, 2002; Miles & Huberman, 1994). We draw insights from institutional isomorphism (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983) the OLI paradigm (Dunning, 1980), and the I-R framework (Prahalad & Doz, 1987; Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989) to identify key constructs in explaining the relationships between higher education institutions and their international branch campuses.

The general design of this research is based on a multiple case study (Yin, 2018). Case studies are among the qualitative methods most frequently used in international business research (Ghauri et al., 2020). Case studies and qualitative methods are often used to explore new or little-known phenomenon and for understanding the behaviors of individuals and/or organizations (Ghauri, 2004).

Henceforth, we present the main research question and the three sub-questions of our doctoral dissertation.

Research question

This dissertation addresses the previously mentioned gaps with the following research question and three interrelated sub-questions.

How can higher education institutions manage their relationships with international branch campuses?

1. Why do higher education institutions choose to create international branch campuses?
2. How can higher education institutions control and coordinate their international branch campuses?
3. What are the contributions of international branch campuses for higher education institutions?

The creation of international branch campuses has been on the rise for the past few years. The conducted research with its **central research question** seeks to better understand how higher education institutions manage the relationship with their international branch campuses.

The first sub-question explores the motivations of higher education institutions to internationalize and why they choose an IBC as a foreign direct investment over other forms of market entry strategies (Dunning, 1980).

The second research sub-question investigates the coordination mechanisms used by higher education institutions in managing their branch campuses (Harzing, 1999). Our findings illustrate that there are several personal and impersonal mechanisms used to assure the coordination between the home institution (the headquarters level) and their branch campuses (the subsidiary level) (Harzing, 1999; Schmid et al., 2016).

The **third research sub-question** assesses how the international branch campuses affects the home institution in terms of its image and reputation, its relationships with accreditation agencies, and the financial performance.

Contextualization of the study

Our research focuses on exploring the relationships between higher education institutions and their international branch campuses. We aim to understand the strategies employed in managing these branch campuses and the underlying motivations driving educational institutions to create them. This research aligns with the interpretivist perspective, emphasizing an understanding of context-dependent social processes (Rashid et al., 2019).

A total of 41 interviews were conducted for our doctoral dissertation. The first five interviews were exploratory and allowed us to refine our research question, as well as improve further our data collection and data analysis procedures. Our focus on five higher education institutions (with 33 interviews) provides rich empirical data on the examined phenomenon. We also did three interviews with higher education industry experts to enrich our research. To answer the research question of our dissertation, we collected data about the organizations' internationalization process, the management of the international branch campuses, and the contributions of the branch campuses for the institution. We interviewed managers at the home institution and from the international branch campuses. This provided an understanding of the intra-firm coordination between multiple subsidiaries in a single firm (e.g., Athreye et al., 2014; Boussebaa, 2015).

The studied institutions are French business schools that are members of the *Conférence des Grandes Ecoles* and that have international branch campuses. French business schools train almost 3,000 students abroad with IBCs being their preferred delivery type (Ramanantsoa & Delpech, 2016). There has also been a call for empirical studies on the internationalization of business schools (Klarin et al., 2021).

The studied organizations are EM Normandie, ESCP, ESSCA, OMNES Education¹, and Epsilon Business School². Each school has at least two international branch campuses. We conducted interviews with managers at 17 IBCs that were created between 1973 and 2019. Table 1 outlines the locations of the branch campuses that were consulted for our study.

¹ Formerly INSEEC.

² The name of the institution has been changed for confidentiality reasons.

Table 1. Institutions and studied IBC locations

Institution	International Branch Campus Location
EM Normandie	Oxford and Dublin
ESCP	London, Berlin, Turin, Madrid, and Warsaw
ESSCA	Budapest and Shanghai
OMNES Education	London, Geneva, Abidjan, and San Francisco
Epsilon Business School	United States, China, and South Africa

Source: Elaboration of the author

We believe that the studied organizations constitute a relevant setting to examine the management of the headquarter-subsidary relationship from a higher education institution and international branch campus perspective.

Henceforth, we will explain the structure of the doctoral dissertation and the content of each chapter.

Architecture of doctoral dissertation

This doctoral dissertation is divided into three parts.

Part 1 contains the literature review, explains the conceptual framework, and the identified research gaps.

Chapter 1 focuses on multinational corporations and foreign direct investment. It provides the foundation of our conceptual framework based on three main theories and constructs: Institutional isomorphism (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983), the OLI paradigm (Dunning, 1980), and the I-R framework (Prahalad & Doz, 1987), with a concentration on the Bartlett and Ghoshal typology (1989).

Chapter 2 aims to analyze higher education institutions as multinational corporations (Wilkins, 2016) with a focus on the evolution of international branch campuses.

Part 2 explains the methodological approach and the contextualization of our research.

Chapter 3 introduces the epistemological perspective and the research design. It details the data collection and the data analysis procedures. We explain the way we administered the intra and cross-case analysis.

Chapter 4 contains the study context and a detailed description of each case organization (institutional profile and the number of international branch campuses).

Part 3 presents the empirical findings, the discussion, and the contributions of our conducted research.

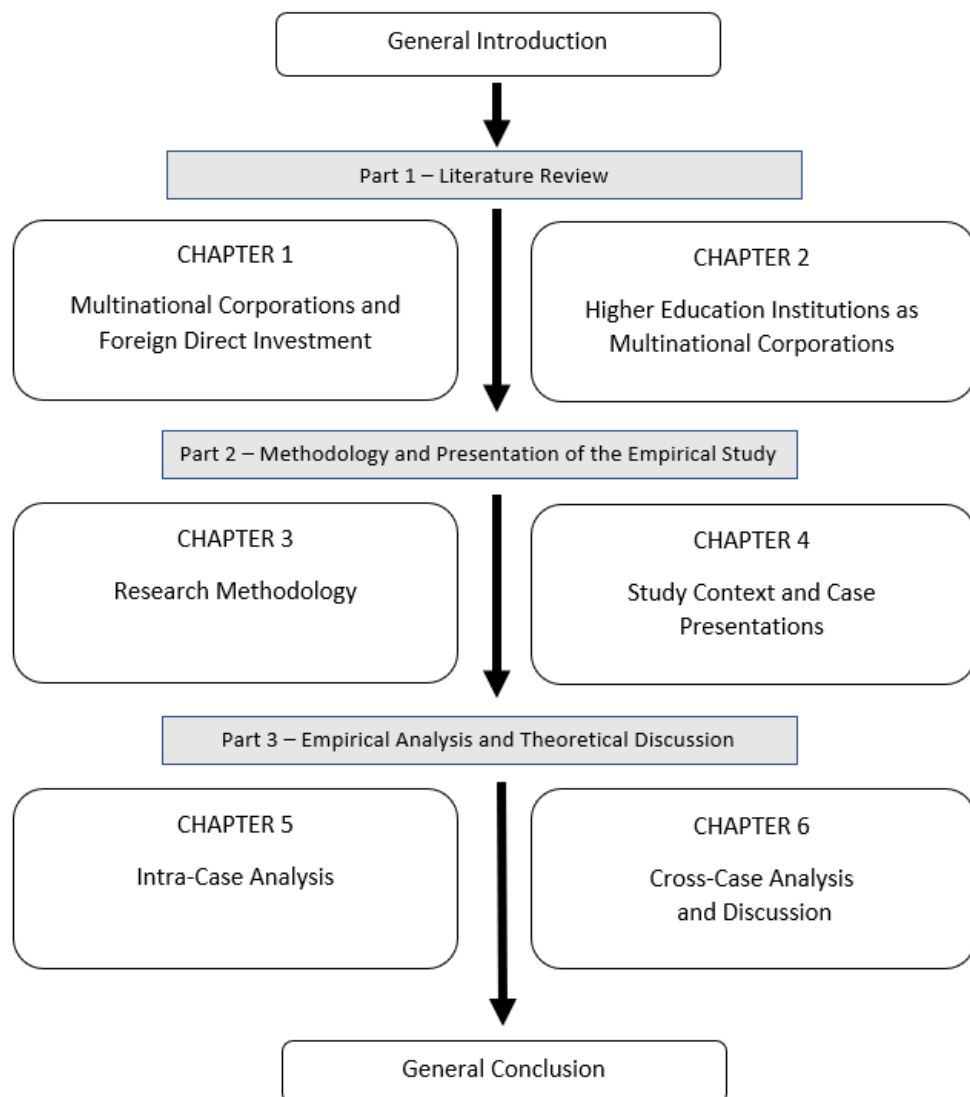
Chapter 5 outlines the finding of each case study in four parts: motivations for internationalization, reasons to create an international branch campus, coordination of the branch campuses, and the contributions of the branch campuses to the home institution.

Chapter 6 presents the key findings through the cross-case analysis in accordance with our three research sub-questions, as well as a discussion of our findings.

General Conclusions focuses of the originality of our study, our main contributions, and limitations and future research directions.

Figure 1 displays the architecture of our dissertation.

Figure 1. Architecture of the dissertation



**PART 1. LITERATURE REVIEW:
MULTINATIONAL CORPORATIONS, FOREIGN DIRECT
INVESTMENT, AND HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS**

Introduction to Part 1

The literature review in Part 1 provides an analysis of previously published studies concerning our research topic. We examine the extant literature with the evaluation of the arguments and logic (Pettigrew & Roberts, 2008).

Our literature review is based mainly on articles in international business (IB) that can help address our research questions. Though scholarly endeavors usually begin a review of literature, it must be noted that “because the research project can take several years, new research will emerge during the project. Therefore, a literature review is not something you do once and complete it. Instead, it is a continuous process through the research project” (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012, p. 107). As our literature review was carried out, it was updated often with new academic articles and publications from a variety of disciplines including, but not limited to, IB, general management, strategy, and education.

We selected articles from the core IB peer-reviewed publications *Journal of International Business Studies*, *Journal of World Business*, *International Business Review*, and *Management International Review* (Tüselmann et al., 2016). This was complemented by different top journals in business and management, as well as other social science disciplines.

We searched various academic databases concerning our main topics of MNCs, FDI, market entry mode, headquarter-subsidiary relationships, and international branch campuses. For each one, we located key literature reviews covering the years (in total) from 1970 to 2023 (e.g., Canabal & White, 2008; Escrivá-Beltrán et al., 2019; Dikova & Brouthers, 2016; Kostova et al., 2016; Paul & Feliciano-Cestero, 2021; Schellenberg et al., 2018; Surdu & Mellahi, 2016) to determine the gaps, theories, and findings per topic, as well as the main articles in each review. We refined our literature review via the snowball effect (Noy, 2008) verifying the scientific value of the publications found and how they were related to our research questions.

In Part 1, we emphasize the construction of a literature review by integrating diverse concepts to establish a cohesive framework for our analysis.

Chapter 1 focuses on multinational corporations and foreign direct investment through the lens of three key theories used to analyze the choice to internationalize: institutional theory, with a concentration on institutional isomorphism (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983); the OLI paradigm (Dunning, 1980); and the integration-responsiveness framework (Prahalad & Doz, 1987) with the typologies that stem from it (e.g., Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989; Jarillo & Martinez, 1990; Taggart, 1998). This is followed by a review of coordination mechanisms used by multinational corporations once the investment to go abroad has been made.

Chapter 2 explains how higher education institutions are becoming like multinational corporations (Wilkins, 2016) and is centered around international branch campuses. More specifically, we analyze its parallelism with subsidiaries of global corporations.

CHAPTER 1:

Multinational Corporations and Foreign Direct Investment

CHAPTER 2:

Higher Education Institutions as Multinational Corporations

CHAPTER 1. Multinational Corporations and Foreign Direct Investment

In this chapter, we will discuss the concept of a multinational corporation and foreign direct investment and review research on the topic. We will also examine three theories and models that are often used to investigate the subject in the field of international business. Finally, we will discuss the headquarter-subsidiary coordination mechanisms used once a foreign direct investment is made.

1.1 Multinational Corporations

Over the last century multinational corporations (MNCs) have developed significantly and are today considered one of the most important institutions of modern society (Forsgren et al., 2005). MNCs are also an important vehicle for economic development and globalization (Kim et al., 2021).

1.1.1 What is a MNC?

While the importance of MNCs is undeniable into today's business environment, there is no single universal definition that is accepted (Shah et al., 2012; Tugulea, 2016). For the purposes of our research, the terms multinational corporation, multinational enterprise, and multinational company are considered equivalent and interchangeable. MNCs may be defined as:

- MNCs “are companies who engage in foreign direct investments (FDI) and who own or, to a certain extent, control value-added activities in several countries” (Dunning & Lundan, 2008a, p. 3).
- A MNC is a “private institution devised to organize, through employment contracts, interdependencies between individuals located in more than one country” (Hennart, 2001, p. 132).
- A MNC “is a coordinated system or network of cross-border value-creating activities, some of which are carried out within the hierarchy of the firm, and some of which are carried out through informal social ties or contractual relationships” (Cantwell et al., 2010, p. 569).

According to Piekkari et al. (2022), researchers define the MNC depending on a larger extent to the problems being discussed. For our study, we use the Dunning and Lundan (2008a) MNC definition as it has been frequently used in international business research (Beddi & Mayrhofer, 2013; Colovic & Mayrhofer, 2011; Valentino et al., 2018).

1.1.1.2 Foreign Direct Investment by MNCs

It has become common for firms to gain their competitive advantage from foreign-based activities, with foreign direct investment (FDI) being the preferred way of organizing these activities (Chen et al., 2004; Dunning, 2002). FDI is a form of cross-border investment where the investor has at least a 10% stake in the company. This includes foreign subsidiaries and equity joint ventures that take place either through acquisitions or greenfield investments made by the MNC (Paul & Singh, 2017). FDI-MNC represents one of the most researched phenomena in international business (Blonigen, 2005; Paul & Singh, 2017). Prior research on FDI shows a link between factors such as corporate governance, market entry modes, subsidiary performance, and location choices (Ambos et al., 2006; Ambos et al., 2011; Dikova, 2009; Dikova & Sahib, 2013; Dikova & van Witteloostuijn, 2007; Filatotchev et al., 2007; Hertenstein et al., 2017; Lien et al., 2005). Paul and Feliciano-Cestero (2021) provide a comprehensive review of MNC-FDI literature focusing on FDI that occurs when MNCs invest abroad and establish some form of subsidiary to execute its activities. Building on other key FDI literature reviews (e.g., Blonigen, 2005; Buckely & Casson, 2009; Canabal & White, 2008; Dikova & Brouthers, 2016; Keupp & Gassman, 2009; Paul & Singh, 2017; Rosad-Serrano et al., 2018), the authors find that two of the most widely used lenses in MNC-FDI research is Dunning's OLI paradigm (1981) and Institutional Theory (e.g. DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Meyer & Rowan, 1977). Incidentally, these are also popular theoretical approaches in examining a subset of MNCs known as professional services firms (e.g., Hennart, 2019; O'Higgins et al., 2022)

1.1.1.3 Professional Service Firms

Though many MNCs deal in manufacturing tangible products, others provide intangible services. Known as professional service firms (PSFs), these types of companies provide customized, knowledge-intensive services, delivered by highly educated professionals (O'Higgins et al., 2022). PSFs include law, accounting and architecture firms, as well businesses providing services in management consulting, engineering, education, and information technology (Czinkota et al., 2009; Lovelock & Gummesson, 2004). To distinguish between the different types of PSFs, von Nordenflycht (2010) developed a typology comprising of 1) Classical PSFs, rooted in well-established occupations like accounting and law firms, 2) Neo-PSFs, such as advertising agencies and consulting firms, 3) Technology Developers, including research and development (R&D) labs and biotech companies, and finally, 4) Professional Campuses, namely hospitals and universities. Business schools are included in the fourth typology as they deliver knowledge-based services via scholarly professionals (Czinkota et al., 2009; Guillotin & Mangematin, 2015; Javalgi & Grossman, 2014; Lovelock & Gummesson, 2014; Thomas et al., 2014). One of the challenges of PSFs is the need to have a mechanism to signal the quality of

the intangible services provided (von Nordenfycht, 2010). Reputation is seen as the key means to reflect the quality of the firm and the basis on which PSFs compete (Brock & Alon, 2009; Greenwood et al., 2005; Jensen & Petersen, 2014; von Nordenfycht, 2010). Another difference between manufacturing firms and PSFs is the notion of heterogeneity. Since PSFs encompasses a large nature of professional work, heterogeneity impacts the organization of professional firms. For example, the top engineering consulting firms are corporations (public or private), while accounting and law firms are partnerships (Malhotra & Morris, 2009).

Over the past three decades, PSFs have grown internationally (Boussebba & Morgan, 2015). However, research on the foreign market entry mode of PSFs remains scant (O'Higgins et al., 2022; Suseno & Pinnington, 2018). Dunning (1989a) argues that FDI is the preferred route for PSFs when expanding abroad, while Jensen and Petersen (2014) state that these firms will choose a greenfield operation by default. PSFs will internationalize for three reasons: Firstly, companies that already possess a domestic competitive advantage want to exploit it outside of their home market. Another reason is that firms that have a homegrown competitive advantage must internationalize to retain that advantage. Finally, PSFs may internationalize because they can obtain a competitive edge by going abroad in order to access strategic assets (Jensen & Petersen, 2014).

To better understand the internationalization of PSFs, Boussebaa and Morgan (2015) outline four organizational forms that PSFs may take when going abroad: the *project* form, the *network* form, the *federal* form, and the *transnational* form. The *project* form emerges when the firm has a limited number of large value clients that are spatially fixed. The PSF (such as an architecture firm) will create a temporary on-site project team to meet the demand of their clients. The home office remains central to all key decisions, and due to the temporary nature of the projects, the international structure of the firm will fluctuate depending on the timetable of the engagements.

The *network* form consists of PSFs in different contexts that link together to provide international services to their clients. This is mainly based on referrals between firms in different environments where their clients need a specific service outside of the home country. This model is common amongst medium-sized accounting and law firms (Boussebaa & Morgan, 2015).

Establishing a single brand identity and providing internal organizational support to the different branches in the PSF describes the *federal* form. There is a degree of global integration via central management, especially when the services are standardized. Large accounting firms and consulting agencies are structured this way (Campbell & Verbeke, 1994; Boussebaa & Morgan, 2015).

Like the *federal* form, the *transnational* form attempts to balance the local responsiveness and global integration as outlined by Bartlett and Ghoshal (1989). These firms have a possess a

strong brand name and adapt its service to the needs of its local clients (Boussebaa & Morgan, 2015).

Along with the OLI paradigm and institutional theory, the integration-responsiveness framework is popular approach when examining PSFs (O'Higgins et al., 2022). Though research in PSFs has increased in recent years, there is a demand for studies investigating the FDI and entry modes of knowledge-intensive firms (Paul & Feliciano-Cestero, 2021).

1.1.2 Management Theories and MNCs

Researchers have used a variety of theories when investigating the foreign expansion of MNCs (Devinney et al., 2000; Paul & Feliciano-Cestero, 2021). The most popular theoretical approaches used over the last five decades for FDI-MNC research have been Internationalization theory, the product lifecycle theory, the resource-based view, institutional theory and the OLI paradigm (Paul & Feliciano-Cestero, 2021). Internationalization theory and the product lifecycle both explain the different stages a firm will go through as it moves from exporting to undertaking FDI in a new market (e.g., Johanson & Vahlne, 1977; Vernon, 1966), while the resource-based view describes firms with valuable and rare resources may seek to expand their operations through FDI to leverage their competitive advantages in foreign markets (Barney, 1991). We choose not to use these approaches in our study for three reasons: 1) We are investigating organizations that have established a subsidiary, therefore the choice of FDI has already been made, 2) The resource-based view aligns with the ownership and internalization advantages components of the OLI paradigm, and 3) the OLI paradigm can incorporate different international business theories into a single framework (Eden & Dai, 2010), such as institutional theory and the integration-responsiveness framework, to provide an overview of MNCs (including PSFs) and their FDI activities. In the following sections, we will explain why the latter theories are relevant to our research. First, we discuss institutional theory, and more specifically institutional isomorphism. Next, we review the OLI paradigm. Finally, there is the integration-responsiveness framework, with a concentration on the Bartlett and Ghoshal typology.

1.1.3 Institutional Theory

Institutional theory is one of the dominant approaches when it comes to understanding organizations (Teixeira & Maccari, 2018). It has the ability to describe both individual and organizational actions (Dacin et al., 2002). It can help explain the motivations of MNCs to invest in foreign markets and how it behaves once it has done so (Brown, 2011; Davis et al., 2000; Meyer & Nguyen, 2005). According to the theory, the main objective of an organization "is not better substantive performance but greater legitimacy," or the need "to conform to the

expectations of the key stakeholders in their environment.” (Ashworth et al., 2007, p. 165). Legitimacy may be defined as “a generalized perception or assumption that the actions of an entity are desirable, proper, or appropriate within some socially constructed system of norms, values, beliefs, and definitions” (Suchman, 1995, p. 574). Institutional theory emphasizes “social and cultural” elements that attempt to understand the “similarity and stability” among organizations, especially when it comes to change (Ashworth et al., 2007, p. 166). Organizations strive to be efficient, but the drive for efficiency comes from internal and external environmental pressures (Powell & DiMaggio, 1991; Frumkin, 2004). Traditionally, there are two streams of institutional theory: old and new or neo-institutionalism. Old institutionalism focuses more on the internal environment of the organization, such as roles, structures, processes, and norms. New institutionalism centers mainly on the external environment, or the interaction of the organization with others in the same field (Abrutyn & Turner, 2011).

Old Institutionalism

Sociologists Parsons (1956) and Selznick (1949, 1957) are considered influential in establishing the old institutional perspective. In his research, Parsons (1956) argued that there are three broad organizational levels: technical (production activities), managerial (coordination and control) and institutional (managing external relations). He saw the institutional level as the most critical in connecting an organization’s goals and providing the organization with social legitimacy (David et al., 2019). Building on Parsons’ work, Selznick (1957) identified institutionalization as a key task of organizational leaders. He saw institutionalization as linking an organization to society values as defined by the public’s mind, thus increasing the organization’s long-term survival. His emphasis on the organization leaders’ role stems from his previous research studying the creation of the Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA) by the U.S. government (Selznick, 1949). In the beginning, the TVA faced strong criticism from political opponents who saw its founding as an act of socialism. However, by linking its creation to a basic social value – grassroots democracy in a government structure – leaders within the TVA were able to face down the initial criticism and gain political and public support (David et al., 2019). From the 1950s through the 1970s, most research on institutionalism focused on the organizational structure and its internal environment.

New Institutionalism

In the late 1970s, two papers (Meyer & Rowan, 1977; Zucker, 1977) introduced what became known as new institutionalism (Greenwood et al., 2008). Meyer and Rowan (1977) interpreted the “myth and ceremony” created by organizations to maintain legitimacy and stability within their environment (David et al., 2019). Organization form is driven by what they call “institutional myths” (Meyer & Rowan, 1977, p. 345). These myths are institutional practices such as

products, services, technology, policies, and programs. The authors suggest that organizations adopt forms because of the myths in an environment ceremonially, not because those forms are necessarily connected to more effective organizational outcomes. The authors argue that, because of the conformity to these institutional rules, organizations become similar within their environment to maintain legitimacy and to increase their prospects of survival (Meyer & Rowan, 1977). Zucker's (1977) study, via an ethnomethodological approach, showed that institutionalized acts require no monitoring or enforcement but persist solely through transmission from one generation to the next (Greenwood et al., 2008). Their works challenge the assumption that organizational behavior is based solely on economic efficiency (David et al., 2019). North (1990) follows this train of thought by stating that "institutions are created by individuals – evolve and are altered by individuals," (p. 5). He differentiates institutions from organizations by arguing that institutions are the "rules of the game" while organizations and individuals are players in the game (Faundez, 2016, p. 390). These rules encompasses both formal rules (such as laws and regulations) and informal norms (social expectations and customs) that govern human behavior within a society or economic system. Here are more details of what North (1990) means by the "rules of the game":

- *Formal Rules:* These are explicit, written regulations, laws, and policies that are enforced by governments, legal systems, and authorities. Formal rules include property rights, contract law, and regulations governing business practices. They provide a legal framework that defines how economic and social transactions should occur and how disputes should be resolved. For example, property rights specify who owns what and under what conditions, while contract law outlines the terms and enforcement of agreements.
- *Informal Norms:* In addition to formal rules, North also emphasizes the importance of informal norms, customs, and social expectations. Informal norms are unwritten, shared understandings within a society or community about how individuals should behave. These norms guide behavior by influencing people's expectations of what is considered acceptable or unacceptable conduct. For example, societal norms might dictate how individuals interact with each other in business dealings, such as the importance of trust and reputation.
- *Constraints on Behavior:* North argues that these rules, both formal and informal, act as constraints on human behavior. They shape individuals' choices and actions by providing incentives and disincentives. When people engage in economic or social activities, they do so within the framework set by these rules. For instance, formal property rights may encourage individuals to invest in and improve their property because they know they can reap the benefits of their efforts.

- *Adaptation and Change*: North also acknowledges that these rules of the game are not static; they can evolve and change over time. This evolution can occur in response to external factors, technological advancements, shifts in societal values, or through deliberate reforms.
- *Path Dependence*: North emphasizes that historical factors play a significant role in shaping the current rules of the game. Past events and decisions can create a path-dependent trajectory for institutions, meaning that the current state of institutions is influenced by their historical development. This path dependence can make it challenging to implement significant institutional changes quickly.

North's (1990) concept of "rules of the game" act as constraints, shaping how individuals and organizations interact and make choices. Similarly, Scott (2008) contends that there are "Three Pillars of Institutions" (p. 49) that influence the role of establishments in shaping social behavior and governance structures. These pillars are:

- *Regulative Pillar*: The regulative pillar represents the formal rules and regulations that guide and constrain behavior within an institution. These rules are often enforced through laws, policies, and sanctions. The regulative pillar establishes what is permitted and what is prohibited in a particular context. It is concerned with issues of compliance and legality. For example, in a legal system, laws and regulations define what actions are legal and illegal, and the consequences for violating these rules.
- *Normative Pillar*: The normative pillar encompasses the social norms, values, and shared beliefs that influence and guide behavior within an institution. These norms are often informal and shape the expectations and behaviors of individuals and groups. The normative pillar is concerned with issues of legitimacy and social acceptance. For instance, in a professional organization, there may be unwritten norms and ethical codes that guide the behavior of members and define what is considered acceptable professional conduct.
- *Cognitive Pillar*: The cognitive pillar refers to the mental models, beliefs, and cognitive frameworks that individuals use to interpret and make sense of their environment. It includes the shared mental models and belief systems that underpin the functioning of institutions. The cognitive pillar is concerned with issues of meaning and sense-making. For example, in a religious institution, members may share common beliefs about the nature of the divine and the purpose of life, which shape their worldview and guide their decisions.

Scott (2008) states that these three pillars are interrelated and influence each other within institutions. They collectively shape the behavior of individuals and organizations operating

within a given institutional context. Both Scott (2008) and North (1990) argue that organizations tend to become similar in certain ways due to the influence of institutions and the competitive pressures they face.

The notion that institutions tend to become alike is called isomorphism. Hawley (1968) defines isomorphism as a constraining process that forces one unit in a population to resemble other units that face the same set of environmental conditions. DiMaggio and Powell (1983) further developed the concept of isomorphism by stating that “once disparate organizations in the same line of business are structured into an actual field...powerful forces emerge that lead them to become more similar to one another” (p. 148). The authors maintain that there are two types of isomorphism: competitive and institutional. The first refers to competition among firms in the same industry for resources and customers – the economic fit; the second refers to the quest for legitimacy and political power – the social fit (Thornton et al., 2011).

1.1.4 Institutional Isomorphism

DiMaggio and Powell (1983) identify “three mechanisms through which institutional isomorphic change occurs, each with its own antecedents” (p. 150). The three forces are coercive, mimetic, and normative. Each are considered processes or mechanisms for isomorphism, not types or forms of isomorphism (Mizruchi & Fein, 1999).

Coercive isomorphism results from both formal and informal pressures (e.g., regulations) exerted on organizations by other entities on which they are dependent and by the cultural expectations of the field in which the organization operates (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Standardized procedures and behaviors that are considered legitimized by society are adopted, creating a common environment that can affect different aspects of the structure and behavior of the organization (Cardona Mejía et al., 2020). Examples of coercive pressures are government institutions and powerful international organizations (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Scott, 2008). Davis et al. (2000) state that a given legal change by one of these organizations can affect a company's international expansion.

Mimetic isomorphism occurs when firms tend to imitate the patterns of successful organizations in their field to counteract their own uncertainty because they assume that their leading competitors have already developed the appropriate solution (Benders et al., 2006). DiMaggio and Powell (1983) refer to this as the imitation of “best practices”. This “follow the leader” mentality has been observed in various fields of business administration, including internationalization concerning market entry mode and timing (Guillén, 2003; Meyer, 2001). Companies will often benchmark themselves against their main competitors concerning successful and legitimate practices (Brandau et al., 2013). Cheng and Yu (2008) contend that

mimetic isomorphism is more susceptible to smaller companies than to larger ones. Also, these organizations will tend to mimic the new practices in which their peer firms are engaging in (Kraatz, 1998). Firms will also do this to maintain legitimacy, and along the way, try to gain a competitive advantage through differences in their own structure and resources (Barney 1991; Brown, 2011).

Normative isomorphism results from professionalization and the creation of standards in social networks (Brandau et al., 2013; DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). According to Cheng and Yu (2008), the two sources of normative pressures are formal education of managers and the growth of their interpersonal networks. Universities and other academic institutions are important drivers of normative isomorphism because they promote common ideas and values. The common ideas and values that stem from certain educational training can have an effect on a manager's decision to implement certain business practices. Studies have shown that managers that hold a graduate degree are more willing to implement innovative organizational practices such as stock option pay or total quality management (Sanders & Tuschke, 2007; Young et al., 2001). Professional bodies that managers participate in can also influence organizational perceptions and expectations within an industry. CEOs that have contact with other CEOs, whether through boards or social outlets, use it as a means to gather information about changing environments (Cheng & Yu, 2008).

North (1990), Scott (2008), and DiMaggio and Powell (1983) have different primary areas of focus within economics, organizational theory, and sociology, respectively. Their work intersects in their recognition of the pivotal role played by institutions and the impact of external pressures on organizations and economic behavior. We choose to use institutional isomorphism as it emphasizes the pressures that lead organizations to mimic the structures, practices, and norms of other organizations or institutions in their environment. It is concerned with explaining why organizations tend to become more similar to each other over time (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). This institutional theory framework is better suited for our research because is not as holistic as Scott's (2008) or as economically focused as North's (1990).

1.1.4.1 Empirical Studies using Institutional Isomorphism

Companies frequently benchmark themselves against their competitors and imitate their actions (Brandau et al., 2013). The existing literature on institutional isomorphism in international business research has mainly focused on mimetic mechanisms (Mizruchi & Fein, 1999). Studies concerning the subject can be grouped into three broad categories: the choice of foreign market entry mode, isomorphic pressures at home, and the influence of professional associations and best practices.

Many studies on market entry choices show that firms will imitate home-market competitors when moving abroad, especially if they lack experience in that market (e.g., Henisz & Delios, 2002; Henisz & Macher 2004; Lu, 2002). The presence of home-market competitors in a foreign territory may legitimize that market giving reassurance to a firm to invest in that country or even in a particular location (Belderbos et al., 2011; Guillén, 2003; Henisz & Delios, 2001, Jiang et al., 2014; Lu, 2002). However, if a company has prior FDI experience it may rely on their internal operational knowledge to determine the entry mode. Guillén (2003) finds that South Korean firms that entered China via a joint venture in the past are less likely to do it again due to the contractual hazards faced in the host country. Foreign companies may also mimic the practices of local firms to gain legitimacy in a new territory (e.g., Brouthers et al., 2005; Deephouse, 1996; Marano et al., 2017; Wu & Salomon, 2016). Firms may also exchange a higher percentage of ownership in a subsidiary to increase its legitimacy and reputation in the host environment via its local partners (Chan & Makino, 2007).

Pressures in the native country can influence the international choices of firms. Cheng and Yu (2008) proclaim social conditions in Taiwan, such as home country uncertainty, push regional SMEs to aggressively internationalize, while Li and Ding (2013) outline how government policies in China impact FDI decisions of local firms. Williams and Spielmann (2019) show how domestic pressures like national laws and distributors' influence coerce small French wineries into adapting an international marketing orientation.

Professional associations and best practices can contribute to institutional isomorphism. Greenwood et al. (2002) show how two professional associations in Canada act as regulatory agents to influence change in the domestic accounting industry. Wedlin (2007), Teixeira and Maccari (2018), and Yoon et al. (2021) convey how international accreditation agencies can impact managerial decisions within business schools concerning academic and international strategy. Firms may adopt "best practices" that are not mandated by their home country to address isomorphic pressures in foreign markets (Marano et al., 2017). Guler et al. (2002) find that MNCs having ISO 9000 certification gain legitimacy in different trade markets. Brandau et al. (2013) outline how Brazilian and German manufacturing firms reconfigured their accounting systems to be compliant with the International Financial Reporting Standards to attain exposure for international investment opportunities. Martinez-Ferreo & Garcia-Sanchez (2017) show that voluntary assurance of sustainability reports acts as a legitimization tool in foreign operations for companies that are not required to do so in their domestic market.

Table 2 summarizes several key empirical studies on institutional isomorphism.

Table 2. Empirical studies using institutional isomorphism

Author(s)	Institutional Isomorphism Studied	Methodology	Key Findings
Haveman (1993)	Mimetic	A quantitative study using data from The Office of Thrift Supervision from June 1977 to March 1987 that investigates entry by 313 savings and loan associations (thrifts) in California into six deregulated markets: nonresidential mortgages, mortgage-backed securities, consumer loans, commercial loans, real estate held for development and resale, and service corporation subsidiaries.	Concludes that thrifts do not imitate the behavior of same-sized peers in market entry decisions. Nevertheless, large organizations serve as role models for other large organizations and that highly profitable organizations serve as role models for all organizations, not just other profitable ones. The presence of successful firms in a new market will legitimate that market, making it more attractive to potential entrant. However, as competition increases in that market, entry into the market becomes less attractive to other companies.
Deephouse (1996)	Mimetic	A quantitative inquiry of the entire population of commercial banks in the Minneapolis-Saint Paul metropolitan area from 1985 (152 banks) through 1992 (92 banks). Data was gathered via the LEXIS database.	Demonstrates how commercial banks that conform to the strategies used by other banks are recognized by regulators (regulatory endorsement) and the general public (public endorsement) as being more legitimate than those that deviate from normal behavior. The findings support the general proposition made by DiMaggio and Powell (1983) that organizational isomorphism increases organizational legitimacy.
Mizruchi & Fein (1999)	Coercive, Mimetic, Normative	A quantitative examination of 26 articles from six American journals from 1984 to 1995 dealing with DiMaggio and Powell's 1983 paper.	Provides evidence that DiMaggio and Powell's article has been selectively applied; scholars published in top-ranked sociology and organizational studies operationalize mimetic isomorphism more than coercive and normative isomorphism. This results in an unbalanced application of DiMaggio and Powell's work.

Table 2 (Continued)

Author(s)	Institutional Isomorphism Studied	Methodology	Key Findings
Davis et al. (2000)	Normative	A quantitative investigation from a survey of 129 U.S. based firms competing in the pulp and paper industry and their international entry modes.	Finds that business units that are influenced by their parent firm's institutional norms tend to use wholly-owned entry modes, while business units that are shaped more by host-country environmental factors tend to use export entry modes. The results confirm that internal and external institutional norms impact the international entry and expansion at the business unit level.
Henisz & Delios (2002)	Mimetic	A quantitative inquiry of the international plant location decisions of 658 Japanese manufacturing firms from 1990-1996 using data from Japanese government agencies and company annual reports.	Show that firms locating their first plant in a country are relatively more likely to imitate the past location decisions of other home-country firms. Reveals that other organizations provide legitimacy when the uncertainty comes from a firm's lack of experience in a market, but not when the uncertainty stems from the political institutions located there.
Greenwood et al. (2002)	Normative	A qualitative case study based on archival data and 25 interviews from the Canadian Institute of Chartered Accountants (CICA) and the Institute of Chartered Accountants of Alberta (ICAA) in the changes affecting the accounting industry from 1977 to 1997.	Professional associations may have a conservative role when market pressures are supportive or stable but play an important one in speculating change in a developing organizational field. Show how professional organizations can dictate the expectations of firms in a changing business industry.
Guler et al. (2002)	Coercive, Mimetic	A cross-national quantitative probe of the number of ISO 9000 quality certificates issued between 1992 and 1998 using an annual survey initiated by Mobil Corporation.	Provides support for the coercive effects of state organizations and MNCs for the spread and adaption of ISO 9000 certification resulting from cohesive trade ties between countries. Findings strongly support how organizations, like governments and MNCs, influence other countries through their trade connections. They make countries imitate each other's rules, norms, and even competitive behavior in business.

Table 2 (Continued)

Author(s)	Institutional Isomorphism Studied	Methodology	Key Findings
Lu (2002)	Mimetic	A quantitative examination of the entry-mode choice of 1,194 Japanese manufacturing subsidiaries in 12 countries using data from the 1999 edition of <i>Kaigai Shinshutsu Kigyō Souran</i> .	Finds that late arrivals tend to follow the entry mode patterns established by earlier entrants in Japanese foreign subsidiaries. The results support the argument that institutional isomorphism influences the formulation and implementation of a firm's international strategy.
Yiu & Makino (2002)	Mimetic, Normative	A quantitative analysis of the entry mode of 364 overseas Japanese subsidiaries, with 262 in the home-electronic industry and 102 in the automobile industry. Data came from the 1996 edition of <i>Kaigai Shinshutsu Kigyō Souran</i> .	Conclude that regulative forces (state influences) and cognitive forces (mimetic isomorphism and historical norms) have a stronger influence on entry-mode choice decisions, compared to the normative forces (cultural distance and ethnocentricity) for Japanese foreign subsidiaries. Results show that isomorphic factors are important determinants for foreign entry-mode choice.
Guillén (2003)	Mimetic	A quantitative study of 506 South Korean manufacturing firms and their choice of entry mode in China from 1987 to 1995. Data was obtained from the Bank of Korea.	Shows that South Korean firms mimic each other's choice of wholly-owned plants in China, though not that of joint ventures. Finds firms that have entered in China via a joint venture in the past are less likely to do so again due to contractual hazards associated with joint ventures. Therefore, companies learn from their own experience or mimic those of other firms from the same home country.
Henisz & Macher (2004)	Mimetic	A quantitative analysis based on data from the Strategic Marketing Association concerning 44 semiconductor firms making 69 FDI investments in 13 countries from 1994-2002.	Find that MNCs with less experience in a particular country will place more importance on the actions of peer firms that share a similar status. More experienced firms will rely on their internal operating knowledge when analyzing potential FDI opportunities. Also, firms that have advanced technological sophistication are drawn to countries with a high level of technology, while companies that are less technically advanced make trade-offs for countries that have lower levels of technology and more political risks. The study highlights the importance of firm experience and technological capabilities in FDI.

Table 2 (Continued)

Author(s)	Institutional Isomorphism Studied	Methodology	Key Findings
Brouthers et al. (2005)	Mimetic	A quantitative examination of 33 Romanian and 68 Chinese firms exporting to the Triad nations. Data was gathered via questionnaires in both countries.	Conclude that Romanian and Chinese firms who mimic the appropriate Triad nation (Japan, the United States, and the European Union) price/quality product strategy can improve their export performance satisfaction. The study suggests that a mimicking strategy based on target market MNCs will work for emerging market firms that are exporting to developed countries.
Barreto & Baden-Fuller (2006)	Mimetic	A quantitative inquiry of data from Associação Portuguesa de Bancos concerning 26 Portuguese banks and their branching decisions in 305 counties in Portugal between 1988 and 1996.	Find that Portuguese banks imitate the behavior of their legitimacy-based reference group when responding to changing environmental conditions. Argue that when mimetic behavioral pressures are strong, firms will follow the actions of those viewed as legitimate by outside legitimacy providers.
Chan & Makino (2007)	Coercive, Mimetic, Normative	A quantitative study of 4,451 newly established subsidiaries by 898 Japanese MNCs between 1988 and 1999. Data came from the annual volumes of <i>Kaigai Shinshutsu Kigyō Souran</i> .	Conclude that Japanese MNCs are likely to exchange a higher percentage of subsidiary ownership for legitimacy, as they rely on their local partners to establish a good reputation in the host environment. The study shows that when normative pressures in a host country are high, firms will use local partners to navigate the idiocrasies of these pressures.
Wedlin (2007)	Coercive	A qualitative multi-case study of three European business schools built from 30 semi-structured interviews with school officials conducted from 1999 to 2004.	Finds that coercive pressures are only present for organizations that identify themselves as an international business school and that participate in the rankings. The rankings are not only about reputation, but also about being recognized as belonging within the field.

Table 2 (Continued)

Author(s)	Institutional Isomorphism Studied	Methodology	Key Findings
Cheng & Yu (2008)	Coercive, Mimetic, Normative	A quantitative examination of surveys from CEOs of 165 Taiwanese SMEs investing in Southeast Asia and China between 1985 and 2002.	Conclude that the CEOs of Taiwanese SMEs are sensitive to their external environments and will respond to institutional pressures (e.g., competition, home country uncertainty, suggestions from board members) from the home country by moving aggressively to internationalize. The study shows that knowledge of the three isomorphic pressures by the CEO will determine how the SME will respond to the home country environment.
Deng (2009)	Coercive, Normative	A qualitative multi-case study of three Chinese firms (TCL, BOE, and Lenovo) from July to August 2006 and their motivations for foreign mergers and acquisitions (M&A). Three to five interviews were held with senior officials at each firm and complemented by other sources of data such as observations and annual reports.	Argue that more Chinese companies are using cross-border M&A to access and source strategic assets so as to address their competitive disadvantage. Provide evidence that Chinese firms go abroad to primarily increase a firm's competencies rather than to exploit existing assets.
Belderbos et al. (2011)	Mimetic	A quantitative probe of a dataset from the <i>Asia Shinshutsu Denshi Meikaon</i> of 692 Japanese electronic firms' manufacturing entries into different areas of China between 1979 to 2001.	Show that for a company's first entry(s) into China, regions that have the most appeal for FDI contain clusters of other Japanese firms. The investing company considers the presence of home country firms in that area as a rational choice to invest there.
Salomon & Wu (2012)	Mimetic	A quantitative analysis of 89 foreign-bank subsidiaries from 25 countries operating in the U.S. banking industry from 1978 to 2006 based on data from the Federal Reserve Bank of Chicago.	Indicate that foreign firms choose a higher level of local isomorphism when there are greater cultural, economic, and regulatory distances between the home country and the host country.

Table 2 (Continued)

Author(s)	Institutional Isomorphism Studied	Methodology	Key Findings
Brandau et al. (2013)	Coercive, Mimetic, Normative	A qualitative study of 10 Brazilian and 10 German corporations from data collected via 20 semi-structured interviews of firm personnel concerning management accounting practices converging to international standards.	Find that manufacturing companies from Brazil and Germany are reconfiguring their management accounting systems to be compatible with the International Financial Reporting Standards (IFRS) and perceived best practices, giving them more exposure to international stakeholders and investment opportunities. Results suggest that institutional pressures outweigh country-specific influences on the reconfiguration of management accounting systems.
Li & Ding (2013)	Coercive, Mimetic, Normative	A quantitative examination of survey data collected from 174 Chinese firms located in the Pearl River Delta and Yangtze River Delta regions.	Show that coercive pressure derived from government policies force companies to internationalize and that firms mimic the strategies of domestic competitors in doing so. Engagement of a company's suppliers and customers to internationalize also has an important influence. Conclude that institutional isomorphic pressures positively impact Chinese firms' FDI decisions.
Jiang et al. (2014)	Coercive, Mimetic	A quantitative probe of a dataset from Toyo Keizai and the Nikkei Economic Electronic Database System of publicly listed Japanese companies from 1971 to 2003, resulting in 6507 manufacturing entries in 505,346 firm-year-country observations.	Conclude that experience of other Japanese firms in a host country lessens the formal and informal institutional distance for companies that are considering FDI in that particular country, even if those firms are not in the same industry. The study suggests, though MNCs tend to avoid investing in countries with different formal and informal institutions, if other companies from their home country have more experience in a distant country, it makes these different countries more appealing for investment.

Table 2 (Continued)

Author(s)	Institutional Isomorphism Studied	Methodology	Key Findings
Ang et al. (2015)	Coercive, Mimetic, Normative	A quantitative study of 673 cross-border acquisitions and alliances by manufacturing MNCs from six emerging economies (China, India, Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, and Thailand) from 1995 to 2008. Data was gathered via the SDC Platinum database.	Argue that emerging economy (EE) MNCs can reduce the risk of being perceived as illegitimate by mimicking the market entry choices of other firms (whether foreign or local) in the host country. A mimicking strategy also allows EE MNCs to address the coercive and normative pressures in the host country. Conclude that EE MNCs will choose acquisitions when there are large cultural differences between the home and host countries but will choose alliances when the geographic distance between the two increases. Results reinforce DiMaggio and Powell's (1983) idea that isomorphic pressures operate together and supports the findings of Barrento & Baden-Fuller (2006) concerning legitimacy-based reference groups.
Wu & Salomon (2016)	Mimetic	A quantitative examination using a dataset from the Federal Reserve Bank of Chicago of 170 foreign bank subsidiaries established by 80 foreign banks from 25 countries operating in the United States between 1978 and 2006.	Find that foreign firms from institutionally distant home countries benefit initially from choosing an imitation strategy based on domestic firms. However, the benefits diminish with experience. Show that mimetic practices are good for inexperienced firms entering a host country, but the procedures may need to be adapted as the firm gains local knowledge.
Marano et al. (2017)	Mimetic, Normative	A quantitative longitudinal study of the largest 157 EM-MNEs ranked by the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) between 2004 and 2011.	Show that emerging market MNCs adopt practices such as corporate social responsibility (CSR) reporting that are not necessarily supported and/or mandated by their home-country institutional environments do so in foreign markets to create legitimacy. MNCs that suffer from liability of origin will align themselves with the best practices in the host country in order to be seen as legitimate.

Table 2 (Continued)

Author(s)	Institutional Isomorphism Studied	Methodology	Key Findings
Martinez-Ferrero & Garcia-Sanchez (2017)	Coercive, Mimetic, Normative	A quantitative analysis using a sample of 696 international non-financial companies from 16 countries totaling 2,752 observations for the period 2007 to 2014. Data was obtained from Thomson One Analytics.	Argue that voluntary assurance acts as a legitimization tool implemented by companies in response to normative, coercive, and mimetic pressures in foreign markets that have a greater legal system and cultural development. Results suggest that voluntary assurance of sustainability reports is more influenced by normative and coercive pressures (country factors), than mimetic ones (competition).
Teixeira & Maccari (2018)	Coercive, Mimetic, Normative	A systematic literature review of 23 scientific publications from 2002 to 2016 that have applied institutional theory to business school accreditation agencies.	Find that the central themes in the articles are "legitimacy" and "isomorphism"; Both accreditation agencies and business schools are subject to similar pressures from the market to expand their operations and maintain legitimacy via external validations.
Williams & Spielmann (2019)	Coercive, Normative	A quantitative study using survey data from 107 small French wineries concerning international pressures and market orientation.	Shows that there are likely to be pressures from formal and informal institutions (e.g., distributors, end-customers) that coerce the SME management towards adopting an international marketing orientation. Key stakeholders for a firm are not only important to generate a profit, but also influence the intensity of its international marketing orientation.
Yoon et al. (2021)	Coercive, Mimetic, Normative	A quantitative examination of 95 higher education institutions (HEIs) in Hong Kong, South Korea, Singapore, and Taiwan concerning their responses to global isomorphic pressures in order to enhance their academic impact through business and management research. Data is based on business and management journal articles produced by the HEIs in these countries from 1996 to 2016.	Find that Hong Kong and Singapore business schools' knowledge production was more responsive to coercive (research strategy) and normative (faculty recruitment strategy) isomorphic pressures than South Korea and Taiwan. Show that latecomers in an industry will respond differently to institutional pressures.

Source: Elaboration of the author

1.1.4.2 Criticisms and Limitations of Institutional Isomorphism

Nonetheless, Kostova et al. (2008) question the validity of institutional isomorphism in the context of MNCs, especially concerning the organizational field. DiMaggio and Powell (1983) define the organizational field as "those organizations that, in general, participate in the creation of institutional areas: key suppliers, resources, consumers, regulatory agencies and other organizations that produce similar services or products" (p. 148). However, Kostova et al. (2008) suggest that the organizational field is nonexistent in the context of MNCs. They argue that MNCs create their own organizational field known as the "metainstitutional field", and that, due to globalization, MNCs are becoming more transnational and are increasingly disconnected from national institution systems. Subsidiaries of the MNC may be viewed as belonging to an "intraorganizational field" which is contained by the boundaries of the firm (Kostova et al., 2008, p. 998). Therefore, institutional isomorphism in MNCs cannot be identified. The researchers acknowledge that there are pressures in the host country, but that it will be limited to the regulatory and legal domains. MNCs can be considered as belonging to a different class all together because of their foreignness, therefore may be excluded from local isomorphic pressures. MNCs will enjoy "institutional freedom" on the local market as long as they respect the laws and legislation of the host country (Kostova et al., 2008, p. 999). Legitimacy on the local market is achieved via the MNC's corporate reputation, rather than through isomorphism (Kostova et al., 2008; Krajnovic, 2018).

1.1.5 The Eclectic (OLI) Paradigm

The eclectic (OLI) paradigm is one of the most widely used lens in international business research, especially when studying MNCs and FDI (Paul & Feliciano-Cestero, 2021). It explains the way organizations leverage resources – namely ownership advantages (O), location advantages (L) and internalization advantages (I) to compete in foreign markets (Dunning, 1980). Essentially, it explains *why* (the motives and reasons), *where* (the locations), and *how* (the way) MNCs operations are carried out (Ferreira et al., 2013). One value of the OLI paradigm is that it can incorporate different international business theories into a single framework (hence why it is also called eclectic), thus providing an overview of MNCs and their activities (Cantwell, 2015; Batschauer Da Cruz et al., 2020; Dunning et al., 1990; Eden & Dai, 2010).

Dunning's work can be traced to its origins with his 1958 doctoral thesis *American Investments in British Manufacturing Industry* where he observed that the U.S. manufacturing subsidiaries operating in the U.K showed two to five times higher labor productivity than their British counterparts (Sharmiladevi, 2017). He argues that the better results by the U.S. subsidiaries

were linked to the firms' specific advantages (technology, managerial team, and marketing) rather than the more favorable economic location (Chalençon & Dominguez, 2014; Ferreira et al., 2013). These two factors came to be known as ownership advantages and location advantages.

Through the 1960s and 1970s, Dunning (1972, 1973, 1977) continued to develop his framework by pulling on selected parts of different theories, namely Hymer's theory of monopolistic advantage (1960) and Kindleberger's structural market imperfection theory (1969) – for ownership advantages; Vernon's product cycle theory (1966) – for location advantages; and Buckley and Casson's internalization theory (1976) – for internalization advantages (Wagner, 2020).

Dunning's 1980 article "Toward an eclectic theory of international production: some empirical tests," outlines the three factors to complete the paradigm: ownership advantages, location advantages, and internalization advantages. The combination of these advantages can explain the market entry mode and the geographical distribution of MNCs (Chalençon & Dominguez, 2014; Ferreria et al., 2013). The advantages are:

- *Ownership advantages* (O) – are specific to the company and a source of differentiation. They essentially come from intangible assets (patents, brands, etc.), but can also be related to the size or characteristics of the company (economy of scale).
- *Location advantages* (L) – are suitable for each location, they are accessible to all firms. They depend both on the country's abundance of resources (natural, human, physical) and on the efficiency gains achieved (savings in transport and communication costs) or even on the specificities of the local market (market size, actual/potential demand, etc.)
- *Internalization advantages* (I) - the result from the profits earned by the company by preferring to internalize its production rather than outsource it (cost savings, market control, securing supply, etc.) The decision to internalize is strictly related to the quantity of specific advantages held: if the company holds specific assets, it will be encouraged to internalize its production to protect its unique skills.

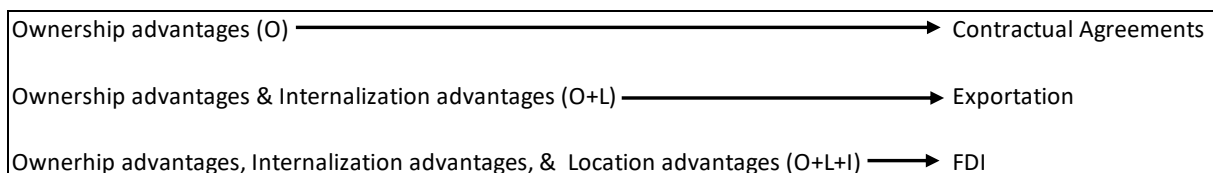
Any firm wishing to go abroad must have a competitive advantage linked to the possession of specific assets, take advantage of the internalization of activities, and be able to benefit from the local advantages of the different destinations. The chosen entry mode then depends on the type(s) of benefits held (Chalençon & Dominguez, 2014). The choice of entry modes and the types of advantages are highlighted in Table 3 and Figure 2.

Table 3. The different types of OLI advantages

Ownership or Firm-Specific Advantages	Location Advantages	Internalization Advantages
Access to markets, products, and factors	Market potential	Reduction in transaction costs
Product differentiation	Input price differences	Property rights protection
Risk diversification	Quality of inputs (natural resources, skilled labor)	Solution of asymmetrical information problems between suppliers and customers (market imperfections)
Specific appropriation: staff, capital, organization	Financial resources	Reduction in exchange costs
Greater efficiency, coordination, and leverage of resources from different locations, improving company capacities	Transportation, communications, and infrastructure costs	Possibility of agreements
Use of parent company's resources	Free trade barriers (import quotas, tariffs)	Ways of avoiding or exploiting state interventions (such as custom tariffs of investment incentives)
Greater dimension, economies of scale and scope	Distance between market and inputs	Reduction in buyers' and/or sellers' uncertainty
International experience	Investments policies: country risk	Sales control
Flexibility in acquisition and production, for better location	Country's tax breaks	Strategic gains
Recognition of merger and acquisition opportunities	Physical distance, language, culture	Internalization of positive externalities
	Clusters of related companies, taking advantage of agglomeration externalities	Inexistence of forward markets

Source: Adapted from Ferreira et al. (2013, p. 6)

Figure 2. Choice of entry mode and the types of advantages



Source: Dunning (1988, p. 28)

However, firms may encounter important liabilities when entering new markets, such as *the liability of expansion* (a firm needs sufficient resource capacity for the new market), *the liability of newness* (the competitive environment in the new market may differ, requiring additional resources that the firm does not have there), and *the liability of foreignness* (firms may lack the

knowledge and social capital needed in the new market) (Cuervo-Cazurra et al. 2007). MNCs may use their OLI advantages to overcome these liabilities (Czinkota et. al., 2009)

Over the last decades, the OLI paradigm has faced various development and extensions (Ferreira et al., 2013; Wagner, 2020). Table 4 outlines its evolution.

Table 4. The evolution of the OLI paradigm

Author(s)	Contribution
Dunning (1958)	The O and L components are identified in the U.S. foreign direct investment in the British Industry.
Dunning (1972) Dunning (1973)	O and L components are used to explain the probable consequences of the United Kingdom joining the European Common Market.
Dunning (1977)	Eclectic theory is presented. The I component is added to build the OLI.
Dunning (1981a)	Eclectic theory is applied to explain the shifts in the position of FDI of the countries over the stages of economic development.
Dunning (1981b)	Change in terminology. Electric theory is now referred to as the Eclectic paradigm. This change is explained.
Dunning (1988)	Divides ownership advantages into two types: asset-base (Oa) and transaction-based (Ot). Gives various suggestions for research applying the Eclectic paradigm – for example: foreign disinvestment, FDI effects, dynamics involving FDI, formalization of the paradigm.
Dunning (1993a)	A new version of the Eclectic paradigm that now includes FDI to augment the resource pool (parallel to FDI seeking to explore the resources already held).
Dunning (1993b)	Recognizes strategy as a dynamic, firm-specific variable, capable of influencing the configuration of the OLI each MNC faces.

Table 4 (Continued)

Author(s)	Contribution
Dunning (1995)	The paradigm is extended to include the advantages emerging from value-added operations, relations with institutions and resources located in foreign countries. That is, it incorporates phenomena characteristics of age of alliances among firms.
Dunning & Narula (1996)	Extends the current thought on internationalization as an investment adding a fifth stage of development that includes asset-seeking FDI.
Dunning (1998) Dunning (1999)	Analyzes how technology development and globalization determining the content and configuration of OLI advantages. Explain the intra-triad investment of resources-seeking-type investments.
Dunning & Dilyard (1999)	Extends the OLI paradigm, now including foreign investment components (such as shorter-term investments).
Dunning (2000)	The paradigm is presented as an MNC envelope theory bringing together complementary concepts based on the economy, organizational, and management theory. Presents new challenges to the Eclectic paradigm.
Dunning & Lundan (2008a) Dunning & Lundan (2008b)	The MNCs is increasingly viewed as a coordinating system of interrelated activities, both internal and external to the ownership boundary of the firm. Considers institutions as the rules of the game.

Source: Adapted from Ferreira et al. (2011, pp. 6-7; 2013, p. 62)

A fundamental extension of paradigm occurred in 1988 when Dunning divided up ownership advantages into two groups: asset-based advantages (Oa) and transaction-based advantages (Ot) as way of trying to incorporate transaction costs into the O taxonomy (Wagner, 2020). Based on the Oa and Ot distinction, he established four motives for foreign direct investment (Dunning, 1988, 1993). They are as follows:

- *Resource seeking* – the main aim of the MNCs is acquiring types of resources that are more abundant than at home (such as natural resources or raw materials) or that are available at a lower cost (such cheaper labor than the home market).
- *Market seeking* – in this case MNCs invest in a foreign market to exploit it for various reasons, such as following suppliers or customers that have a presence there, adapting goods to local needs and tastes, and to save the cost of serving that market from a distance.
- *Efficiency seeking* – MNCs seek to improve their efficiency, making it more productive, such as through a better division of labor or specialization of its resources.
- *Strategic asset seeking* – MNCs seek to develop their competences, resources and capabilities, thus helping to increase their competitive advantage.

In another subsequent extension of the paradigm includes models of inter-firm cooperation, such as strategic alliances (Dunning, 1995; Dunning & Narula, 1996). These types of cooperation models between firms help reduce market imperfections (A market where costs are too high, encouraging producers either to stop producing or to find ways to lower costs.), at least in some cases, by lowering the need to internalize operations to acquire ownership advantages of valuable resources (Ferreira et al., 2013). Dunning (1995) states how the focus from issues with investment and international production shifts to including the structure of the MNC – as MNCs were growingly seen as relational networks (e.g., Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989). He referred to this phenomenon as “alliance capitalism” (Dunning, 1995, p. 461).

As the context of globalization and the complexity of the international environment increased in the 2000s, Dunning’s interest continued with the networks and alliances of MNCs, as well as the institution dimension, which he considered central to the choice of location for FDI and the activity of MNCs (Chalençon & Dominguez, 2014). Pushed by the globalization of markets, MNCs adopt a geographically fragmented structure with their competitive advantage linked to their networks, as well as their intangible resources and developed skills (Dunning, 2000).

The last revision of the OLI paradigm by Dunning and Lundan (2008a, 2008b) broadens to include institutional theory, by building on the work of North (1990, 2008; Eden & Dai, 2010). The authors argue that institutions provide the “rules of the game” for the “contemporary network MNC” which they see as a “coordinator of a global system of value-added activities that are

controlled and managed” by the MNC (Dunning & Lundan, 2008b, p. 588). Institutional factors influenced both the determinants and outcomes of MNC activity, thus impacting the three components of the OLI paradigm and that how the MNCs respond to these cross-border institutional differences would be increasingly important for their long-term competitiveness (Eden & Dai, 2010). To address this, the authors introduce the concept of “institutional ownership advantages (Oi),” which consists of formal and informal incentives and enforcement mechanisms (Eden & Dai, 2010). Dunning and Lundan (2008b) referred to this as:

A galaxy of internally generated and externally imposed incentives, regulations and norms, each of which may affect all areas on managerial decision taking, the attitudes and behavior of the firm’s stakeholders, and how each of these relates to the goals and aspirations of other economic and political actors in the wealth creating process. (p. 582)

The quality of a country’s institutions and incentive mechanisms are major factors in the choice of location for MNC activities. Depending on the advantages linked to the Oi, the MNCs will determine their modes of entry and how they will control and coordinate their activities (Chalençon & Dominguez, 2014). Table 5 outlines the formal and informal institutions affecting the OLI configuration of firms.

Table 5. Examples of formal and informal institutions affecting the OLI configuration of firms

	O Organizational/Governance	L Social Capital	I Relational
Institutions			
Formal	Laws, regulations, conventions	Laws, regulations, conventions	Contracts (both inter- & intra-firm)
	Discipline of economic market	Discipline of political markets	
Informal	Country/corporate culture	Religion, social mores, tradition	Covenants, codes, trust-based relations (both inter- & intra-firm)
	Moral ecology of individuals	Civil society	Institution-building through networks/cluster of firms
Enforcement Mechanisms			
Formal	Sanctions, penalties	Sanctions, penalties	Penalties for breaking contracts
	Taxes, incentives	Quality of public organizations	Strikes, lockouts, high labor turnover
	Stakeholder action (customers, investors, labor unions)	Education (in shaping & implementing institutions)	Education, training
Informal	Moral suasion	Guilt, shame	Guilt, shame
	Loss or gain of status/recognition	Demonstrations, active participation in policy-making organizations (bottom-up influence)	No repeat transactions
	Retaliation	Moral suasion (top-down influence on institutions, organizations & individuals)	External economies/diseconomies arising from networks/alliance, e.g. learning benefits
	Build-up/decline of trust Blackballing		Blackballing

Source: Dunning and Lundan (2008b, p. 583)

1.1.5.1 Empirical Studies using the OLI Paradigm

Agarwal and Ramiswami (1992) studied 97 American equipment leasing companies concerning OLI advantages and found that the large, experienced firms used more integrated entry modes (mainly wholly owned subsidiaries), whereas other ones used more independent modes. Brouthers et al. (1996, 1999) conducted two studies: the first found that ownership and location advantages influenced the entry-mode choice of American computer software SMEs in a manner similar to larger firms, and the second one showed that German and Dutch companies investing in Eastern Europe whose entry modes could be predicted by the Dunning framework were significantly more satisfied with performance than were other firms. Tatoglu and Glaister (1998) and Tatoglu et al. (2003) research the motivations for western MNCs to engage in FDI in Turkey

and find that ownership advantages were similar between manufacturing and service firms, as well as Turkish firms' preference for joint ventures when investing in Central Asia. Demirbag et al. (2010) study finds that same results concerning Turkish MNCs use of joint ventures in Asia.

Several studies focus on ownership and location advantages in Asian MNCs. Erramilli et al. (1997) find that Korean high tech firms entry choice fluctuates depending on the location of the investment. Similarly, Somlev and Hosino (2005) show the same tendencies with Japan MNCs when investing abroad, often following the same ownership structures if previous used when entering a new market. Nitsch et al. (1996) find that Japanese MNCs prefer using wholly owned subsidiaries or joint ventures rather than acquisitions when investing in Europe. Chinese MNCs have been the focus of several studies (e.g., Wu & Deng 2020; Yang, 2018; Xiao & Tian, 2023) concerning the difference of location choice in developed countries and low developed countries.

Finally, Kim and Aguilera (2016) and Nielson et al. (2017) provide extensive literature reviews concerning location choice for FDI covering more than two decades. Table 6 highlights the different empirical studies using the OLI paradigm.

Table 6. Empirical studies using the OLI paradigm

Authors(s)	Methodology	Key Findings
Agarwal & Ramaswami (1992)	A quantitative analysis based on questionnaires of CEOs/presidents from 97 firms in the U.S. equipment leasing industry in 1986.	Find that larger U.S. MNCs show a preference for a sole venture mode over a joint venture mode when entering a foreign market. However, firms that have a high ability to develop differentiated products tend to prefer non-investment modes. Results imply that a firm's entry mode decision is constrained by their size and multinational experience.
Brouthers et al. (1996)	A quantitative study of 106 questionnaires completed by 25 U.S.-based software firms engaged in business overseas.	Indicate that ownership and locational advantages influence the entry-mode choice of small and medium-sized firms in a manner similar to that of larger firms. Suggests that the OLI paradigm is applicable to any-sized company.
Nitsch et al. (1996)	A quantitative inquiry based on a dataset from Toyo Keizai (1992, 1994) on entry modes of 173 Japanese subsidiaries into Europe in 1994.	Show that wholly-owned subsidiaries and joint ventures work better for Japanese MNCs when entering the European market rather than acquisitions. Shows that there is a link between ownership-based entry mode choices and performance.
Erramilli et al. (1997)	A quantitative examination of data collected from the Foreign Exchange Control Department at the Bank of Korea concerning the entry modes of 177 foreign subsidiaries of 125 South Korean MNCs during the period of 1988 to 1990.	For South Korean high-tech firms, the influence of the firm-specific advantages (technological intensity, product differentiation and capital intensity) on the level of ownership is contingent upon the location of the investment. Show that high-tech South Korean firms' level of subsidiary ownership will differ between less developed countries and more developed countries. Results imply that the MNC's country of origin impact location choices and entry modes.
Tatoglu & Glaister (1998)	A quantitative probe based on data from the General Directorate of Foreign Investment (GDFI) concerning entry modes into Turkey by 98 foreign MNCs.	Find that MNCs having higher levels of OLI advantages were related to an increased use of wholly owned subsidiaries in Turkey. Contributes to the OLI literature by examining the ownership determinants of firms from numerous countries investing in a single host country.
Brouthers et al. (1999)	A quantitative study stemming from a survey of 171 Dutch and German MNCs doing business in Central and Eastern Europe.	Findings support previous efforts showing that the OLI framework does well at predicting entry mode choice in Central and Eastern Europe. Provides empirical evidence that the OLI paradigm is both normative (providing the optimal performing entry mode) and descriptive (the greater the OLI advantages, the greater preference for a wholly owned subsidiary).

Table 6 (Continued)

Authors(s)	Methodology	Key Findings
Padmanabhan & Cho (1999)	A quantitative analysis grounded in a dataset from Toyo Keizai (1992) on international entry modes of 605 Japanese firms.	Japanese MNCs firms tend to select foreign ownership structures and establishment modes based on their experience with similar structures in the past. Show that firm experience plays an important role in entry-mode selection.
Brouthers et al. (2001)	A quantitative study based on a survey of 227 MNCs (103 Dutch, 74 German, and 50 U.K. firms) on R&D entry modes in Central and Eastern Europe.	Firms with more technology resources, that perceive lower investment risk and higher host-market technology availability, and that perceive lower contractual risks prefer hierarchies over market forms of R&D integration Central and Eastern Europe. Posit that R&D integration strategy can be predicted using the OLI paradigm.
Luo (2001)	A quantitative inquiry of survey data from 174 MNC subsidiaries (102 equity joint ventures and 72 wholly-owned foreign subsidiaries) located in China from 1996-1997.	MNCs entering China will do so either by a joint venture or wholly-owned subsidiary depending on several multilevel factors (country-specific, industry-specific, firm-specific, and project-specific factors). Find that entry mode decisions for MNCs entering China should consider risk, return, control, and resource effects, governmental intervention, contextual uncertainty, and property rights leakage factors. Shows how the host-country national environment can impact MNC entry-mode choices.
Nakos & Brouthers (2002)	A quantitative probe pertaining to a survey of 118 Greek SMEs operating in Central and Eastern Europe.	Show that the OLI framework is good for predicting Greek SME entry mode selection in Central and Eastern Europe. The OLI paradigm explained almost 85% of the mode choices made by SMEs.
Tsai & Cheng (2002)	A quantitative examination of data collected from a survey of 105 Taiwan firms and their entry-mode into the U.S. in 1998.	Taiwanese firms will enter the U.S. market through wholly-owned subsidiaries if the strategic investment motivation is high. Results imply that the lower the market operating risk, the smaller the cultural distance perceived, and the greater the manufacturing and R&D advantage, gives the probability that Taiwanese manufacturing firms investing in the United States will choose a full-ownership control mode. Essentially shows that the higher the OLI advantages, the more like more likely an investing firm will have a full-control entry mode.
Tatoglu et al. (2003)	A quantitative analysis dependent on data from the GDFI concerning entry-modes into Turkey by 659 manufacturing subsidiaries from 43 countries in 1997.	Show that cultural distance and other factors (the concentration ratio of the industry entered, diversification of parent company, capital size of the company, location of the company, and age of the company) between the home country and Turkey will determine whether the foreign investment will be a wholly-owned subsidiary or a joint venture.

Table 6 (Continued)

Authors(s)	Methodology	Key Findings
Meyer & Nguyen (2005)	A quantitative study based on a survey of 171 foreign MNCs investing in Vietnam from 2001-2002.	The availability of scarce resources affects the location of FDI and leads to a greenfield entry. Institutional pressures from state-owned firms and the home market orientation of the MNC lead to a preference for joint venture entry. Results show institutions influence FDI patterns not only at national level but also at local level.
Somlev & Hoshino (2005)	A quantitative analysis of a dataset from Toyo Keizai (2003) on the ownership structure of 751 subsidiaries belonging to 405 Japanese firms in Europe. The industries included food, textiles, construction resource-based, chemical, pharmaceutical, machinery, electronic, and automobiles.	Concerning establishment and ownership decisions of the Japanese MNCs in Europe, the research shows low host competitiveness, Northern European countries, and high industry growth are related to wholly owned entry-mode, while Southern European countries are linked with joint ventures, high competitiveness with full acquisitions, and low growth. Results show that MNCs choose locations that best fit their strategy and that host factors (e.g., cultural distance) influence host selection.
Kaynak et al. (2007)	A quantitative study relating to data compiled from the database of the World Bank Mongolia Office of 1,033 foreign MNCs operating in Mongolia in 2003.	Results show the main determinants of foreign equity ownership found in previous research (e.g., Luo, 2001) also influence the ownership structure of foreign affiliates in Mongolia. Ownership decisions of investments in Mongolia are influenced by the nationality of the MNC.
Demirbag et al. (2010)	A quantitative inquiry based on a survey of 104 Turkish firms operating in Central Asian Republics (Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan, and Kyrgyzstan). The industries were grouped as mining and oil, agriculture and food, trade and catering, and engineering and construction.	Find that there is a strong correlation between the perceived ethical-societal uncertainties and joint venture entry mode for Turkish firms investing in Central Asia. Show that cultural distance has an impact on the choice of FDI.
Ramasamy et al (2012)	A quantitative probe of the international location decisions made by 69 public listed Chinese firms in 137 countries during the period 2006–2008. Data obtained from the 2008 <i>Statistical Bulletin of China's Outward Foreign Direct Investment</i> .	Find that generally Chinese firms are attracted to natural resource rich countries for FDI. State-controlled firms have a higher tendency to invest in countries with weak political systems. However, private firms are relatively more risk averse. Show that the apparent motivation for Chinese FDI is technology and innovation.
Zhou & Guillen (2016)	A quantitative study stemming from data collected from public databases (Guo Tai An and China Stock Market Accounting Research) of 256 Chinese firms owning 649 foreign subsidiaries in 38 countries from 1999 to 2007.	Show that Chinese firms face different types of liability of foreignness according to the different motivations for engaging in FDI. Results link the distance of the host country from China to liability of foreignness.

Table 6 (Continued)

Authors(s)	Methodology	Key Findings
Kim & Aguilera (2016)	A Literature Review of 137 article from 19 leading IB and management journals from January 1998 to June 2014.	Provides a review of research concerning foreign location choice. Following the practice of past <i>International Journal of Management Reviews</i> articles on IB-related topics (e.g., Ahsan and Musteen 2011; Deng 2012), the review finds that the main research articles deal with institutions (68), emerging markets EMNCs (64), new economic geography (57), strategic-asset seeking (17), regions (13), offshoring (10), networks (9), and others (23).
Nielsen et al. (2017)	A Literature Review of 153 quantitative studies on location choice of FDI from 62 peer-reviewed journals from 1976 to 2015.	Extend the review article on foreign location choice by Kim and Aguilera (2016) by not only focusing on management journals. Findings suggests that the understanding of the drivers of FDI location choice is still somewhat limited due to data source limitations and methodological challenges. Argue that FDI research is still needed in terms of theoretical extensions, data collection, and methodological advancements.
Dikova et al. (2019)	A qualitative analysis of data gathered from a variety of sources (ZEPHYR Bureau van Dijk database, OECD database, World Bank reports, The Central Bank of Russian Federation, Thomson Reuters Eikon, and the Transparency International website) concerning 318 Russian cross-border M&A activities from 2007–2013.	Find that Russian multinationals benefit from internalization advantages (full M&A ownership) in tandem with location advantages derived from natural resource endowments. Applies the OLI paradigm to Russian FDI abroad (M&A) and the motivations for it.
Gao et al. (2018)	A quantitative inquiry pertaining to data from Survey of Foreign-invested Enterprises of 8,646 Japanese MNCs FDI in China from 1992-2001.	Review the historical context between Japan and China (the effects of the Second Sino–Japanese War [1937-1945]) influences Japanese MNCs FDI location choices in China. Results show how historical relations can impact FDI.
Yang (2018)	A quantitative analysis of data extracted from the database of Ministry of Commerce of the People's Republic of China concerning 143 outward FDI events of Chinese MNCs between 1978 and 2015.	Argues that weak institutions in emerging markets push firms to acquire skills abroad in unfavorable institutional environments. Finds that emerging market firms from a region with weak institutions are more likely to enter a relatively corrupt host country. Findings reveal the importance of home country effects in FDI location choice.
Wu & Deng (2020)	A quantitative examination of data collected from questionnaires of leading executives from 319 private SMEs in China in 2014.	Find that the more a Chinese SME is driven by institutional escapism (the motivation of firms to enter foreign markets to escape institutional barriers on the home market), the greater the location choice of a host country with high institutional distance and an entry mode with low resource commitment. Show the importance of institutional escapism in the internationalization of Chinese SMEs.

Table 6 (Continued)

Authors(s)	Methodology	Key Findings
Xiao & Tian (2023)	A quantitative study of 1,306 Chinese public listed firms which established foreign subsidiaries between 2008 and 2019 based on data from the China Stock Market Accounting Research database.	Show that Chinese MNCs location choice will differ between developed countries (DC) and low developed countries (LDC) depending on performance of their aspiration level. Extends the OLI paradigm by showing how performance feedback can influence FDI motives and firm location choice between DCs and LDCs.

Source: Elaboration of the author

1.1.5.2 Criticisms and Limitations of the OLI Paradigm

Despite its longevity, the OLI paradigm has often been criticized for its broad and loose structure (Pedersen, 2003). Kojima (1982) argues that no criteria is provided for which firms should and which firms should not undertake FDI and sees the paradigm as only beneficial for giant MNCs. Rugman (1981, 1985) contends that the border between O and I advantages is severely blurred and argues that internalization is the only one of the three dimensions that really determines FDI. Vernon (1985) perceives that the approach looks at FDI mainly as a means of minimizing transaction costs, an avenue whose origins are generally attributed to a place rather than the firm. Casson (1987) asserts that market failure (an inefficient distribution of goods and services in the free market) is necessary, as well as a condition for the existence of MNCs.

Later, Itaki (1991) concludes that the O advantages are redundant and that it could be logically classified as internalization advantages that have developed over time. Whitelock (2002) feels that the paradigm concentrates more on the firm and that it doesn't explicitly mention how competition on the local market influences FDI. Rugman (2010) argues that the paradigm is focused on outward FDI in host countries, while his firm-level strategy matrix covers both host and home countries. He sees the paradigm as more of an industry-level analysis, rather than a firm-level one. Hennart (2012) states that the OLI model predicts that firms will participate in FDI when they have firm-specific advantages (FSA). However, he argues that MNCs from emerging markets have not yet developed FSAs and debates the validity of the OLI model for emerging market multinationals. Vahlne and Johanson (2013) see the paradigm as explaining the functioning and structure of the wider economic system and not the organization and activities of the individual firm. Lastly, Luo (2021) questions whether the traditional OLI advantages are relevant for digital globalization.

Despite these criticisms, the model remains important in management research as “it offers a conceptual framework for the most recent theories that attempt to take a more dynamic view of the choice of location, taking into account the costs for business and changes in market structure over time” (Colovic & Mayrhofer, 2011, p. 1483).

1.1.6 The Integration-Responsiveness Framework

The integration-responsiveness (I-R) framework was introduced through a series of publications (Doz, 1979; Doz et al., 1981; Prahalad, 1975; Prahalad and Doz, 1981), though Prahalad and Doz's 1987 book *The Multinational Mission: Balancing Local Demands and Global Visions* is usually considered the most comprehensive description of the framework (Dörrenbächer & Geppert, 2016). The groundwork is based on interviews with over 500 managers in more than 30 MNCs, as well as secondary data from those companies (Guillot-Soulez & Landrieux-

Kartochian, 2014). The results show that MNCs face dual pressures for cross-border integration of activities and a need to respond to local demands. These pressures for global integration and local responsiveness are understood to be working in opposite directions. The core aspect of global integration and coordination is to exploit advantages across borders by centralizing and coordinating activities, while local responsiveness means differentiation through local adaptation and local presence (Benito, 2005).

1.1.6.1 What is Global Integration, Global Coordination, and Local Responsiveness?

Global integration refers to a centralized management of activities in a value chain that are geographically dispersed. The goal is to reduce costs and optimize investment. Examples are sourcing from low-cost locations or producing via large-scale plants that serve several markets (Dörrenbächer & Geppert, 2016).

Global coordination refers to the unified management of assets that are in different countries to achieve an economic benefit. Examples could be coordinating several R&D projects across numerous facilities located in different countries or the coordination of corporation standards that take place in those facilities (Dörrenbächer & Geppert, 2016).

Local responsiveness refers to when the advantages of global integration are absent, not obtainable, or when the attempt to realize those advantages would have a negative impact on the local market. This is typically needed in activities that do not allow for economies of scale, or when regulations, customer demand, and distribution systems are locally specific (Dörrenbächer & Geppert, 2016). Table 7 outlines the different pressures for global integration versus local responsiveness.

Table 7. The basics of the I-R framework

The I-R Framework Basics	
Pressures for Global Integration (& Coordination)	Pressures for Local Responsiveness
Economies of scale	Differences in customer needs
Pressure to reduce costs	Difference in market structure & distribution channels
Homogenization of customer demand	Need of substitutes
Technology intensity	Demands of the host governments
Importance of multinational clients	
Importance of multinational competition	
Investment intensity	

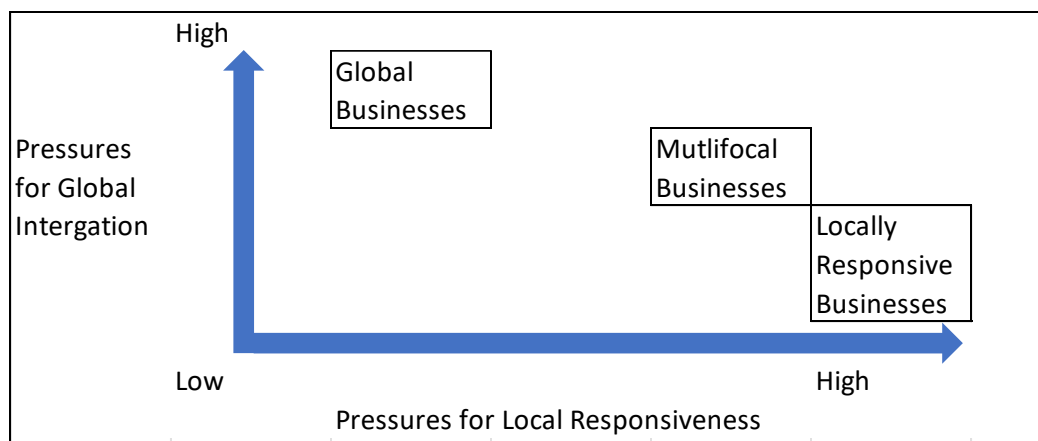
Source: Adapted from Prahalad & Doz (1987, pp. 18-21)

Types of Business Environments

Depending on the combination of pressures from cross-border integration and local responsiveness, Prahalad and Doz (1987) distinguished three ideal types of business environments: 1) Global businesses, 2) Locally responsive businesses, and 3) Multifocal businesses (Figure 3).

- *Global businesses* are when the pressures for global integration are high and the pressure for local integration is low. Companies are more concerned with achieving economies of scale, product development, and global competition and customers. Management of key resources are usually centralized.
- *Locally responsive businesses* are when the pressures for global integration are low and the pressures for local responsiveness are high. Companies are concerned with monitoring the local conditions, therefore leading to a decentralized management.
- *Multifocal businesses* are a mix of the twin pressures. Some company elements like R&D and production benefit more from global integration, while other aspects like marketing and product features benefit more by adapting to the local market. In this environment, the company is a mix of centralized and decentralized decision making.

Figure 3. Types of business environments



Source: Adapted from Prahalad & Doz (1987, pp. 24-25)

1.1.6.2 Bartlett and Ghoshal's Typology of the I-R Framework

In continuing with the work of Prahalad and Doz (1987), Bartlett and Ghoshal (1989) conducted an in-depth study of nine MNCs from three different industries (consumer electronics, branded packaging goods, and telecommunications) located in the United States, Europe, and Japan (Silver, 2015). The results were published in their seminal 1989 book *Managing Across Borders: The Transnational Solution*. Based on their research, they identified four strategies that MNC

can use to manage their operations: global, international, transnational, and multidomestic. Figure 4 represents Bartlett and Ghoshal's I-R framework:

Figure 4. Bartlett and Ghoshal's I-R framework



Source: Adapted from Bartlett & Ghoshal (1989)

The vertical axis focuses on global pressures like economies of scale, and the presence of global customers and competition. The horizontal axis represents pressures linked to the need of local responsiveness such as difference of market structures, consumers tastes and government policies across different borders (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989, Prahalad & Doz, 1987).

Global Strategy

In a global strategy, pressures for global integration are high and for local responsiveness are low. Under this model, the subsidiaries are weak and are heavily dependent on the resources from the home office. Activities such as R&D and manufacturing are centralized at the headquarters. Innovation and decisions are diffused to the subsidiaries after it is created at the home office. The firm produces standardized products that meet homogeneous consumer demands. Strategic decisions and operations are highly centralized to achieve maximum efficiency (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989; Silver 2015).

International Strategy

For an international strategy, global integration and local responsiveness are both low. Bartlett and Ghoshal (1989) refer to this model as a *coordinated federation*. Subsidiaries are still very dependent on the parent company and are mainly used to sell products that did well in the domestic market by extending the product lifecycle in the local market. The organization sees its subsidiaries as an extension of the home office whose goal is to bring the expertise of

headquarters to the foreign market(s). The parent company contains overall control of the subsidiaries to ensure that the headquarters' objectives are achieved (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989).

Multidomestic Strategy

In a multidomestic strategy, global integration is low and local responsiveness is high. Bartlett and Ghoshal (1989) refer to this model as a *decentralized federation*. Subsidiaries have little to no linkage with the other subsidiaries or with the parent company. Each subsidiary sells customized products that are adapted to the needs of the local market and that are produced in the host country. The country managers are given a great deal of autonomy in operating the subsidiaries allowing them to better address the customers and competition in that national market (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989).

Transnational Strategy

For a transnational strategy, both global integration and local responsiveness are high. This strategy attempts to combine the major advantages of the multidomestic and global strategies: companies adapt to the local needs while retaining sufficient management control to ensure learning and efficiency (Silver, 2015). There is a high level of interdependence between the subsidiaries and the parent company. Products are standardized when feasible and adapted when appropriate. Bartlett and Ghoshal (1989) state this strategy offers the maximum flexibility but that it can be difficult to implement.

1.1.6.3 Empirical Studies using the I-R Framework

MNCs perform better when there is a strategic and organizational alignment between the headquarters and the subsidiary (Silver, 2015). Roth et al., (1991) surveyed 82 business units of MNCs to explore the influence of international strategy and organization design and its impact at on the business unit level. Their findings show that "When there was proper alignment between international strategy, organizational capabilities, and administrative mechanisms, superior performance occurred" (Roth et al., 1991, p. 390). Ghoshal and Nohria (1993) surveyed 41 MNCs in 10 countries to show how some combinations of environmental and organizational structures fit better than others. The researchers found that corporations performed best when there was a match between the headquarters' levels of control and the subsidiary's levels of integration or responsiveness and that the "appropriate level of organization complexity leads to effective performance in...MNCs" (Ghoshal & Nohria, p. 33).

Harzing provides another study of Bartlett and Ghoshal's typology (Beddi & Valax, 2014). She tested the model using data from 166 subsidiaries of 37 MNCs headquartered in nine different countries (Harzing, 2000). The typology was three-fold, focusing only on multidomestic, global

and transnational. International was not included as it was empirically difficult to distinguish it from the other three structures (Harzing, 2000). Harzing collected data measuring corporate strategy, organizational design, interdependence among subsidiaries, and local responsiveness. Her research confirms the characteristics associated with Bartlett and Ghoshal's work. Subsidiaries of global companies demonstrate a high level of dependence on the parent company and many strategic functions are still centralized at the headquarters (what Bartlett and Ghoshal refer to as a "hub-spoke model", 1989). For subsidiaries of multidomestic companies, functions are more independent from the parent company. Subsidiaries of the transnationals demonstrate a higher interdependence than multinationals but are lower than global companies. Concerning local responsiveness, multidomestic companies proved to be the most responsive to product modification for the local market. Local production and R&D were also higher in subsidiaries of multidomestic companies than those of global or transnational ones. Having these activities localized makes it easier to adapt products and to successfully perform activities like marketing and sales (Porter, 1986). The opposite is true is for global and transnational companies as their products are relatively standardized and would lose economies of scale by having local production. Table 8 summarizes the different studies using the I-R framework.

Table 8. Empirical studies using the I-R framework

Author(s)	Methodology	Key Findings
Jarillo & Martinez (1990)	A mixed-methods study based on a sample of 50 Spanish subsidiaries of MNCs from eight industries (food and drinks, mechanical engineering, electrical equipment, pharmaceuticals, home and personal care, information technology, chemical products, and automobiles) in 1988.	Propose an I-R framework (based upon Barlett [1986]) from the subsidiary standpoint and tests it on 50 Spanish subsidiaries of MNCs. Find that the framework is consistent with subsidiary strategies (either receptive, autonomous, or active). The main contribution is a tested framework that shows the different roles that subsidiaries may play in MNCs or the strategies that can be followed by MNC subsidiaries in a host country.
Roth & Morrison (1990)	A quantitative analysis based on survey responses of executives from 147 global business units in 12 industries (balances, civil aircraft and parts, watches and watch parts, textile machinery, mining machinery, oilfield machinery, certain consumer electronic products, semiconductors, sewing machinery, electro-medical and x-ray apparatus, synthetic insecticides and fungicides, and typesetting machines).	The three generic strategies (global integration, locally responsive, multifocal) of the I-R framework are impacted depending on the importance of complex innovation, marketing differentiation, breath, and cost control. Provide support for the I-R framework but find that groups of businesses in a classification may view the industry differently and emphasize different competitive attributes.
Roth et al. (1991)	A quantitative study based on survey responses of executives from 82 global business units from 12 industries (same ones as Roth & Morrison [1990]).	Propose an international strategy framework suggesting that business units utilize three administrative mechanisms - formalization, integrating mechanisms, and centralization - to create operational capabilities. Find that business unit effectiveness is a function of the fit between the international strategy and the organizational design.
Ghoshal & Nohria (1993)	A quantitative examination of 41 large MNCs in nine countries (Belgium, Canada, France, Germany, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, the United States, and the United Kingdom) based on a dataset from Ghoshal's 1986 dissertation.	Using Bartlett and Ghoshal's (1989) typology as a guide, the researchers argue that there is no universally optimal organizational form for MNCs, and that the choice of organizational form relies on the specific strategy and circumstances of each company.
Johnson (1995)	A quantitative inquiry based on a survey of 346 businesses in the U.S. construction industry.	Verifies that the I-R framework applies to an MNC in a "single global industry" (U.S. construction equipment) and extends the results from Ron & Morrison's (1990) study.
Taggart (1997)	A quantitative probe via a mailed questionnaire of 171 manufacturing subsidiaries of foreign MNCs in the United Kingdom.	Tests the I-R framework of Jarillo and Martinez (1990) on foreign-owned subsidiaries of MNCs in the United Kingdom. Propose a fourth strategy classification labeled "quiescent subsidiary".

Table 8 (Continued)

Author(s)	Methodology	Key Findings
Taggart (1998)	A quantitative study based on a survey of 171 MNC manufacturing affiliates in the United Kingdom from 1990-1995.	Applies the four-quadrant subsidiary I-R framework proposed in his 1997 article to MNC manufacturing subsidiaries in the United Kingdom. The key finding is the identification of 46 quiescent subsidiaries in the low-I low-R quadrant of the framework.
Harzing (2000)	A quantitative analysis of 166 subsidiary survey responses from 37 different MNCs headquartered in nine countries (Finland, France, Germany, Japan, the Netherlands, Sweden, Switzerland, the United States, and the United Kingdom) from 1995 to 1996. The companies operated in eight industries (electronics, computers, motor vehicles and parts, petroleum products, food and beverages, pharmaceuticals, paper, and industrial chemical).	Confirms the I-R framework in a large-scale empirical setting via the analysis of nine MNCs and their subsidiaries. Find that product modification is significantly more likely in subsidiaries of transnational and multidomestic companies. A network structure applies more to subsidiaries of global and transnational MNCs, while ones from multidomestic MNCs were more decentralized.
Luo (2001)	A quantitative inquiry from surveys of 168 subsidiaries of foreign MNCs located in China from 1996 to 1997. Countries of origin included Australia, Canada, France, Germany, Hong Kong, Italy, Japan, Singapore, South Korea, the United States, and the United Kingdom working in 12 industries (electronics, telecommunications, garments, fiber products, food processing and beverages, leather, rubber and plastic products, chemical products, medical equipment, pharmaceuticals, electric equipment, and machinery).	Finds that local responsiveness is determined by multilevel factors, specifically that environment (business culture), structural (competition), and organizational (established networks) ones influence the level of responsiveness of MNC subsidiaries based in China.
Brock & Siscovick (2007)	A quantitative examination of surveys from 259 MNC subsidiaries located in the Asia-Pacific region. The MNCs were headquartered in four countries (Australia, Denmark, Hong Kong, and New Zealand).	Suggest that integrative mechanisms seldom contribute to the effectiveness of a MNE subsidiary, even when implementing a globalization strategy. Show that subsidiaries using broadbanding (setting a salary range for certain positions across the subsidiaries) were the most effective in multidomestic strategies.
Lin & Hsieh (2010)	A quantitative study based upon a survey of 62 foreign manufacturing subsidiaries located in Taiwan. Most parent companies were headquartered in Europe, Japan, and the United States and working mainly in the engineering and chemical industries.	Shows that the differentiation of subsidiary roles in Taiwan supports the I-R framework identified by Taggart (1997, 1998) and Jarillo and Martinez (1990).
Meyer & Estrin (2014)	A quantitative analysis of responses from 345 MNC subsidiaries located in Hungary and Poland.	Adds export orientation (E) to the I-R framework and finds that integration strategies are more likely to be effective if the subsidiary is engaged in coordination and knowledge sharing. Provides an extension of Bartlett and Ghoshal's (1989) typology by demonstrating how it could be modified as a framework for subsidiary strategies.

Table 8 (Continued)

Author(s)	Methodology	Key Findings
Qu & Zhang (2015)	A quantitative examination of surveys from 252 U.K. subsidiaries of MNCs (114 in manufacturing and 138 in services). Headquarters were in Europe (126), Japan (19) the United States (79), and the rest of the world (28).	Suggests that market orientation (MO) and business performance of MNC subsidiaries in the United Kingdom are moderated by the I-R pressures. Finds that under low levels of integration, subsidiaries with higher levels of MO would perform better than those with lower levels of MO. However, when the integration level is high, the performance of the MNC subsidiaries is found to be negatively associated with the levels of MO shown by subsidiaries. Suggests that when a subsidiary operates under the high pressure to integrate, the contribution made by MO reduces the subsidiary's performance.
Meyer & Su (2015)	A quantitative study from surveys of 345 MNC subsidiaries (80% headquartered in Western Europe and 12% in North America) located in Hungary and Poland.	Argue that the 'fit' between MNC and subsidiary strategy is the key to subsidiary performance based on research in Hungary and Poland. Find that a transnational strategy performs best in subsidiaries that are wholly owned by the MNC and highly export-oriented, while an international strategy does well in acquired and partially owned subsidiaries. Conclude that MNCs need to align their subsidiary strategies with corporate I-R strategy.
Williams et al. (2017)	A quantitative inquiry based on a questionnaire of senior managers of 104 foreign MNC subsidiaries located in China in 2011. Industries included petroleum, consumer goods, IT, industrial machinery, consulting, pharmaceuticals, and healthcare.	Find that locally-hired managers in foreign subsidiaries located in China support local responsiveness but hinder global integration strategies amidst turbulence in an emerging economy. Add to the I-R literature by considering how the interaction of locally-hired managers with global integration/local responsiveness help MNCs in emerging economies in dealing with environmental uncertainties.
Liao & Le (2017)	A qualitative content analysis of 25 collected case studies chosen via several public scholastic case banks (e.g., Harvard Business School, the Asia Case Research Center, and the IBS Center for Management Research). The industries (and case studies) included media and entertainment (STAR and Walt Disney); food and beverage (Heinz, KFC, Nestlé, Coca Cola); manufacturing (Bosch, Endesa, Haier, Honda R&D, Morgan Crucible, NEC, Samsung, Siemens AG); medical and pharmaceutical (Medtronic, Novartis, P&G, Rhône-Poulenc S.A); fashion (Benetton Group); logistics and retail (IKEA, Li & Fung); and others (Diethelm Keller SiberHegner, Western Union, Jacobs Suchard, SANY).	Propose a dynamic view of the I-R framework based on 25 firms. Eight types of strategic movements and the pattern of environmental forces are identified and discussed based on Bartlett and Ghoshal's (1989) typology. Argue that there are <i>push</i> or <i>pull</i> effects on a firm's strategic movements within the typology. <i>Push</i> effects are when a company identifies a change in its environment such as a sensed opportunity or a perceived threat. <i>Pull</i> effects are usually linked to unexpected negative outcome, such as a loss in revenue. Extends the work of Barlett & Ghoshal (1989) by introducing the dynamic I-R framework.

Table 8 (Continued)

Author(s)	Methodology	Key Findings
Brock & Hydle (2018)	A qualitative study stemming from in-depth interviews with leading executives at 10 global oil-service engineering firms from 2013 to 2014. The headquarters were in Norway (4), the European Union (2), and the United States (4).	Posit that "transnational" (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989) global professional service firms will have both high levels globalization and local responsiveness. Four organizational aspects are identified (leadership/management, hiring/HR, project teams, and organization structure/process) in relation to the I-R framework. Results show that the leadership/ management areas are largely globally integrated, the hiring/HR functions are locally oriented, while the structure/process and project teams exhibited both global and local traits in international professional service firms. Evidence suggests that global engineering firms are like "transnational" corporations.
Wei & Nguyen (2020)	A quantitative study based upon surveys from 117 foreign subsidiaries of Chinese manufacturing firms collected from September 2011 to March 2012.	Argue that Chinese MNCs that have rational assets (a capability of using cross-border network resources and experience of past relationships) and that are marketing-seeking oriented FDI will pursue a local responsiveness strategy in the host country. Results show that this is possible in host countries with weak institutions, but not ones that have advanced institutions. Chinese firms that wish to compete in host countries with advanced institutions should rely on other firms-specific advantages than rational assets.

Source: Elaboration of the author

1.1.6.4 Criticisms and Limitations of the I-R Paradigm

The I-R framework is not without its short fallings. According to Dörrenbächer and Geppert (2017), three broad concepts have been suggested to be incorporated into the I-R framework: managerial choice and strategic goals, organizational heritage, and institutional impacts.

Managerial choice and strategic goals

Devinney et al. (2000) argue that the I-R framework misses to incorporate the impact of managerial choice. Though environmental pressure may be the same for companies in the same industry, how managers evaluate and react to these pressures may vary, leading to different responses. Also, interpretations of these pressures may be different depending on the firms' strategic orientation (Luo, 2002)

Organizational heritage

According to Luo (2002), the influence of organizational structure by the I-R framework is not adequately addressed. He argues that a given organization structure can influence the recognition of environmental pressures and therefore the chosen responses, as well as the strategies developed. These organization structures may differ from firm to firm based on configuration of resources (Mauri & Sambharya, 2001), the information and communication infrastructures (Devinney et al., 2000), or the differences in the intraorganizational distribution of power (Geppert & Dörrenbacher, 2013; Romelaer & Beddi, 2015).

Institutional impacts

Finally, the I-R framework has been criticized for not considering how the country of origin impacts the development of international strategies. Many researchers maintain that certain elements of the MNC's home country environment can impact an MNC's configuration and coordination of international activities (Ruigrok & Tulder, 1998; Dörrenbächer, 2000; Whitley, 2001; Matten et al., 2003).

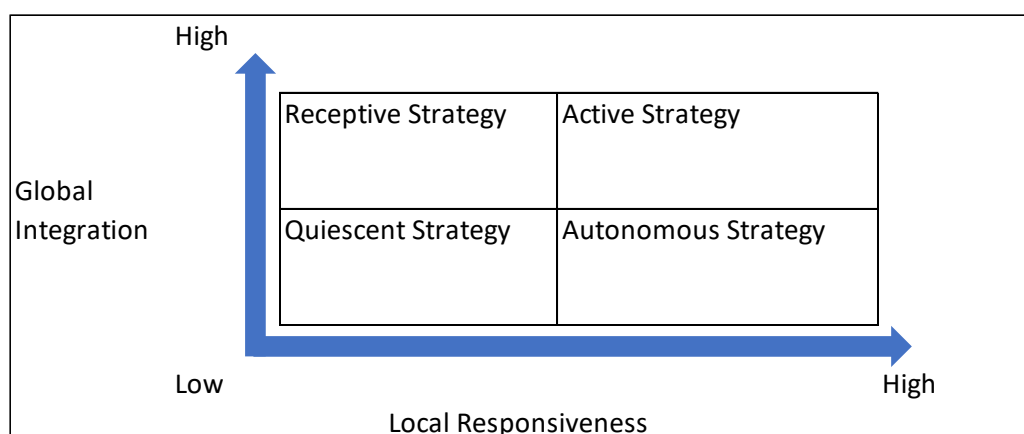
1.1.7 Subsidiaries

Subsidiaries can be defined as operational units of a MNC that are situated outside of the home country (Birkinshaw, 1997). The relationship with the parent company has with its subsidiaries, as well as what relationship the subsidiaries have with each other is important for an MNC. These relationships can impact the level of autonomy, information flows, and the local responsiveness at the subsidiary level (Birkinshaw, 1997; Ghoshal & Nohria, 1989; Gupta & Govindarajin, 1991; Jarillo & Martinez, 1990; Nohria & Ghoshal, 1994; Porter, 1986; Silver, 2015).

To better understand the I-R framework from the subsidiary level, Jarillo and Martinez (1990) developed a model that focuses on the geographic localization of subsidiaries activities (e.g., R&D, manufacturing, marketing, etc.) and the degree of integration of those activities within the firm. The model outlines three types of subsidiary strategies: receptive, autonomous, and active. A receptive strategy is when there is a high level of integration and a low level of responsiveness. Subsidiaries are highly integrated with the rest of the organization and perform typically only marketing and sales in the host country. An autonomous strategy is when there is a high level of localization and a low level of integration. The subsidiaries perform most of the functions of the value chain relatively independent of the headquarters and the other subsidiaries. An active strategy is when there are high levels of both integration and localization. The subsidiaries execute many functions in the host country but are closely coordinated with the other units of the firm. If comparing Jarillo and Martinez's model (1990) to the Bartlett and Ghoshal typology (1989), a receptive subsidiary is typical of a global company, an autonomous subsidiary is typical of a multidomestic firm, and an active subsidiary is typical of a transnational organization.

Jarillo and Martinez (1990) do not describe a subsidiary strategy that has low levels of both integration and localization. However, Taggart (1998) complement their work by adding the quiescent strategy. This strategy is where the subsidiary maintains good relations with the parent company but has a specific role within the firm. This may be servicing the host country market or selling a defined range of products to a particular group of customers. They have limited interaction with the other subsidiaries within the firm. Figure 5 illustrates and adaptation of Jarillo and Martinez's (1990) and Taggart's (1998) depiction of subsidiary strategies.

Figure 5. Subsidiary strategies



Source: Adapted from Jarillo & Martinez (1990); Taggart (1998)

MNCs perform better when there is a structural alignment between the parent company and the subsidiary (Ghoshal & Nohria, 1993). Identifying the types of subsidiaries and their predictable relationship with headquarters is useful when aligning it with the typology of an MNC. It helps to understand if the structural fit is the one that is the most productive. For example, a global MNC with a subsidiary that acts autonomously is not as productive as a subsidiary that operates receptively (Silver, 2015).

1.2 Coordination and Control in MNCs

The ability to effectively and efficiently control activities and resources within a MNC is crucial to its success (Zeng et al., 2023). Thus, coordination and control have been an important research topic in international business for many years (Kostova et al., 2016; Meyer et al., 2020).

Coordination

Martinez and Jarillo (1989) define coordination as “any administrative tool for achieving integration among different units within and organization” (p. 490). They classify coordination mechanisms into two major categories: structured and formal vs. subtle and informal. The details of the classification is provided in Table 9.

Table 9. List of the most common mechanisms of coordination

Structural and Formal mechanisms	Informal and Subtle Mechanisms
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organizational structure: e.g., regionalization • Centralization or decentralization of decisions • Formalization and standardization: e.g., written rules, job descriptions • Planning: e.g., strategic planning, budgeting • Output and direct supervision control 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lateral relations between subsidiaries as well as expatriates and local managers • Informal communication: e.g., conferences, trips, meetings, transfer of managers • Socialization for building an organizational culture and shared values: e.g., training, transfer of managers, reward system, career path management

Source: Adapted from Martinez and Jarillo (1989)

In a larger perspective we can define coordination as organizational processes that assist in creating relationships between the subunits and pursuing the shared organizational objectives (Grillat & Mégnac, 2011; Harzing, 1999; Roth & Nigh, 1992; Sartorius-Khalapsina, 2022; Van de Ven et al., 1976; Vahlne et al., 2011; Vahlne & Johanson, 2021)

Building on Martinez and Jarillo’s research (1989), Harzing (1999) uses two dimensions to classify coordination mechanisms: personal vs. impersonal and direct (explicit) vs. indirect (implicit). Table 10 presents the four categories of coordination mechanisms.

Table 10. Typology of coordination mechanisms

Personal mechanisms (founded on social interactions)		Impersonal mechanisms (founded on instrumental artefacts)	
Explicit coordination	Implicit coordination	Explicit coordination	Implicit coordination
Personal centralized mechanisms	Socialization and networks	Bureaucratic formalized mechanisms	Output-oriented mechanisms
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Centralization or decentralization of decisions • Hierarchy • Direct personal supervision 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Socialization: organizational culture, shared values, etc. • Informal networks: informal communication • Formal networks: work groups, project teams, etc. • Transfer of managers: expatriation, management trainings, etc. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Standardization • Formalization • Rules • Orders • Programs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reporting systems • Control systems • Planification • Fixed objectives • Prices

Source: adapted from Harzing (1999, p. 16-24 and p. 186-189) by Grosche et al. (2015)

The concept of coordination is often associated with that of control. This calls for a look at control.

Control

Control is often associated with power or authority (Etzioni, 1965). Gering and Hebert (1989) define control as “the process by which one entity influence, to varying degrees, the behavior and output of another entity through the use of power, authority and a wide range of bureaucratic, cultural and informal mechanisms” (p. 236). The researchers identify three dimensions of control: the extent of the activities the headquarters controls in its subsidiaries, the level of control exercised, and the mechanisms used.

Bartlett and Ghoshal (1989) also outline three means of control in the headquarters-subsidary relationship: centralization, standardization, and socialization. Centralization refers to the amount of decision-making power in the head office, while standardization is in the tacit formalization of procedures and rules for decision-making. Socialization occurs when the members of the MNC acquire a shared mindset of common values and expectations.

Another classification has been used by several researchers: output control, behavioral control, and cultural control (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989; Ghoshal & Nohria, 1989; Martinez & Jarillo, 1989). Output control focuses on setting and monitoring specific performance targets or outcomes that

employees are expected to achieve. Behavioral control involves managing and directing behaviors of employees by establishing rules, procedures, and policies that guide their actions. Cultural control entails a system of shared values, beliefs, and norms within an organization that influences employee behavior. An example of this kind of control is the use of expatriates to diffuse the values and norms of the MNC to the subsidiary (Fossats-Vesselin, 2021).

1.2.1 Coordination and Control: Correlative Mechanisms

It is important to note that the terms *coordination* and *control* are often used interchangeably in academic literature (Grillat & Mégnac, 2011; Sartorius-Khalapsina, 2022) or grouped together without a clear distinction between the two (Zeng et al., 2023). Martinez and Jarillo (1991) fuse the two concepts but emphasize that the term *coordination* is more linked to the firm's integration. The authors even alternate using the terms *mechanisms of coordination* and *mechanisms of integration*. Indeed, Harzing (1999) sees coordination as a broader concept that encompasses control. We observe that the three modes of coordination (personal centralized, bureaucratic formalized, and output controls) match with the formal mechanisms of Martinez and Jarillo (1989). The mode of coordination through socialization and networks corresponds to informal mechanisms. In line with Martinez and Jarillo (1989), Harzing (1999), and Sartorius-Khalapsina (2022), we will consider control tools as part of coordination.

To date, the classifications of coordination mechanisms by Martinez and Jarillo (1989) and Harzing (1999) remain the most frequently used in international business research (Fossats-Vasselin, 2021). We will focus our analysis on the most common coordination mechanisms in these classifications. For extensive literature reviews see Jaussaud & Schaaper (2006), Fossats-Vasselin (2021), and Zeng et al. (2023). However, other studies categorize coordination mechanisms slightly differently (e.g., Ambos & Schlegelmich, 2007; Greenwood et al., 2011; Harzing & Nooderhaven, 2006; Kim et al., 2003). Another popular classification discusses socialization, standardization, and centralization (e.g., Palmié et al., 2016; Zeng et al., 2018, 2023). In their 2023 paper, Zeng et al. added a fourth categorization, output-oriented, which focuses on MNCs setting targets. The authors see these four categories as the key organizational mechanisms for coordination and control within MNCs. Nevertheless, other studies identify additional coordination mechanisms such as the use of short-term assignments and regional centers, enterprise resource planning (ERP) (Amann et al., 2018; Jaussaud & Mayerhofer, 2013; Mayerhofer et al., 2004), the recruitment of certain profiles of managers, and the role of senior partners model behavior (Greenwood et al., 2010).

What factors influence the choice of coordination tools is another stem of research. Elements like the size and nationality of the MNC (Amann et al. 2018; Beddi, 2013; Cray, 1985; Edstrom & Galbraith, 1977; Grewal et al., 2013), the size and age of the subsidiary (Cray, 1984; Jaussaud

et al. 2012), the distance between the headquarters and subsidiary (Beddi, 2013), as well as market entry mode (Jaussaud & Schaaper, 2006; Schaaper, 2005) have been examined. The mechanisms used to coordinate key activities within the MNC is also of interest. For example, sales and marketing operations are considered to use more decentralized decision making and more informal coordination than production (Grosche et al., 2015; Schmid et al., 2016).

In brief, the work of Martinez and Jarillo (1989) and Harzing (1999), in addition to the other reviewed academic studies broadly classify the coordination mechanisms into two groups: informal and formal. Informal mechanisms are used to supervised organizational change, while formal tools are used to govern shifts in firm strategy (Jaussaud & Schaaper, 2006). The two coordination mechanisms are seen as complementary and not interchangeable (Amann et al., 2018; Beddi, 2011; Harzing, 1999; Jaussaud & Schaaper, 2006); Martinez & Jarillo, 1989; Roth & Nigh, 1992). The use of both of mechanisms is essential when implementing a complex strategy involving multiple markets (Martinez & Jarillo, 1989).

1.2.1.1 Coordination in Professional Service Firms

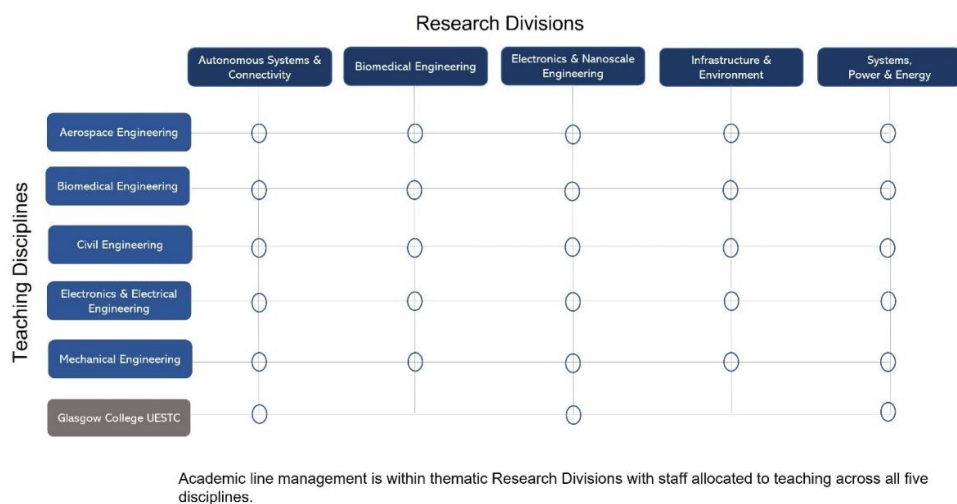
The behaviors and practices of PSFs are different from those of manufacturing firms (Kronblad, 2020; Smets et al., 2017; von Nordenflycht, 2010). Because of their nature, PSFs tend to be more decentralized than those of manufacturing companies (e.g., Greenwood et al., 1990; Mintzberg, 1983). PSFs that are transnational in scope are thought to be decentralized given that one must “tailor offerings to suit local market preferences and culture” (Campbell & Verbeke, 1994, p. 97). Subsidiaries are said to have autonomy over daily tasks, as long as they follow the firm’s corporate guidelines (e.g., HRM policies, internet usage charter). Central coordination is said to occur more through “cultural” means including shared professional training and socialization practices such as regular meetings (Boussebaa, 2015; Robertson & Swan, 2003). However, research shows that as PSFs look to provide integrated cross-border services to their customers, they will seek more control over their subsidiaries (e.g., Boussebaa, 2015; Boussebaa & Morgan, 2015; Faulconbridge & Muzio, 2008). This may lead to headquarter-subsidiary tension as seen in traditional MNCs (Barrett et al., 2005; Boussebaa, 2009; Muzio & Faulconbridge, 2013), though there are cases of PSFs increasing central control without experiencing this tension (Greenwood et al., 2011; Segal-Horn & Dean, 2009).

Muzio and Faulconbridge (2013) refer to this centralization as “the ‘one-firm’ model” (p. 897) where key issues such as strategy, organizational structure, and firmwide practices are decided by an executive management committee which then must be implemented by the subsidiaries. The organizational structure in PSFs is almost universally a matrix one (Klimkeit & Reihlen, 2015) meaning where a “traditional, vertical hierarchy ‘is overlayed by some form of lateral authority, functional while the horizontal aspect consists of projects, products, or business areas.

In a matrix structure, there are three (sub) types: weak, strong, and balanced. In a weak matrix, the functional manager retains most of the power and oversees the people and resources. The project manager has a minimal role and tends to carry out administrative or coordinating tasks. The opposite is the case for a strong matrix where the project manager holds most of the authority and the role of the functional manager is limited. In a balanced matrix, the functional managers and the project managers share the power and the authority over the staff and budget (Adiyarta et al., 2018).

An example of an organization that uses a matrix structure is the University of Edinburgh Business School. It is divided into comprising disciplinary groups, teaching programs, and research subject groups. (University of Edinburgh Business School, n.d.). Another higher education institution that is organized in a matrix is the James Watt School of Engineering. It operates round five thematic research divisions and five teaching disciplines (University of Glasgow, n.d.). Figure 6 shows the matrix organization structure at the latter institution.

Figure 6. The matrix organization structure at the James Watt School of Engineering



Source: The University of Glasgow (n.d.)

Some of the advantages of a matrix structure are that it helps to improve communication across the business, assists in breaking down “silo” barriers (Greenwood et al., 2011, p. 176), and the sharing of best practices and ideas across teams through which most of the work in PSFs is done (Gardner et al., 2012). Some disadvantages may be slower decision making, a lack of role clarity, and possible power struggles. However, the advantages outweigh the disadvantages in a matrix organization performance by combining and recombining individual knowledge into group-level knowledge and organizational knowledge (Fu et al., 2019; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). As knowledge is considered “the most essential resource of today’s firms” (Vahlne & Johanson, 2021, p. 3), the use of coordination mechanisms is undeniably important.

Popular coordination mechanisms that are used to share knowledge in a cross-border context are meetings, transnational teams, different firm-level events such as global training programs, and liaison personnel (Björkman et al., 2004; Boussebaa, 2015; Forsgren et al., 2005; Harzing, 1999; Kostova et al., 2016; O'Donnell, 2000; Sartorius-Khalapsina, 2022). Also, meetings on a regular basis are considered to install the routine in coordination (Hage et al., 1971). Okhuysen and Bechky (2009) see routines, as well as meetings, planning, and schedules as key coordination mechanisms for all organizations. By design, a matrix structure creates close inter-relationships (Burton et al., 2015) and research shows that these relationships are important in the coordination of subsidiaries (Nurala et al., 2019; Tsai & Ghoshal, 1998; Tsai, 2001; Vahlne & Johanson, 2021). Zeng et al. (2018) find that informal mechanisms and relationships have a positive influence lateral coordination among subsidiaries, while formal mechanisms and socialization are helpful in the collaboration from subsidiaries to headquarters, especially concerning the knowledge transfer, while other studies consider the transfer of knowledge as a true coordination mechanism (Jaussaud & Schaaper, 2006; Fossats-Vasselin, 2021). Regarding PSFs, Kronblad (2020) states that the use of digital tools in the firm assists in coordination and knowledge transfer, as well as increased productivity from geographically dispersed subsidiaries.

Conclusion to Chapter 1

Chapter 1 enabled us to review the concepts of a multinational corporation, as well as professional service organizations, and foreign direct investment. We review three theories and models that are often used to examine these subjects: institutional theory (and specifically institutional isomorphism), the OLI paradigm, and the I-R framework (with a concentration on the typology of Bartlett and Ghoshal). Finally, we examine the various control and coordination mechanisms used in the headquarter-subsidiary relationship.

We examined DiMaggio and Powell's (1983) three forces that pressure firms to become similar or isomorphic: coercive, mimetic, and normative. Coercive isomorphism stems from both formal and informal pressures that come governmental institutions or powerful international organizations that are considered important in the industry in which the firm operates. Mimetic isomorphism occurs when firms tend to imitate the patterns or "best practices" of successful competitors in their field. Finally, normative isomorphism may come from professional bodies that managers participate in that can influence organizational perceptions and expectations within an industry.

Dunning's OLI paradigm is another framework that is often used in international business research when studying MNCs and FDI (Paul & Feliciano-Cestero, 2021). It explains the way organizations leverage resources through three advantages: ownership advantages (O), location advantages (L), and internalization advantages (I). In essence it explains why, where, and how MNCs operations are carried out and because it connects and several international business perspectives into a single model (Batschauer da Cruz et al., 2020).

Bartlett and Ghoshal's typology of the I-R framework (1989) identify four strategies that MNCs can use to manage their operations: global, international, multidomestic, and transnational. Each strategy is a tradeoff on global integration versus local responsiveness and reflects the dependency of the subsidiary on the head office. In a global strategy, the subsidiaries are rather weak and are heavily dependent on the parent company. In an international strategy, the subsidiaries are essentially an extension of the head office whose goal is to bring the expertise of the headquarters to the foreign market. For a multidomestic strategy, the subsidiaries have a great deal of autonomy and are able to adapt products to the needs of the local market. Lastly, a transnational strategy combines the major advantages of a multidomestic strategy and a global one. Firms adapt to the local market needs but retain sufficient managerial control over the subsidiary to ensure learning an efficiency (Silver, 2015).

Jarillo and Martinez (1990) and Taggart (1998) developed a model to better understand the Bartlett and Ghoshal's typology of I-R framework from the subsidiary level. There are four

strategies a subsidiary's level of integration and localization: receptive, autonomous, active, and quiescent. If comparing this model to the Bartlett and Ghoshal typology (1989), a receptive subsidiary is typical of a global company, an autonomous subsidiary is typical of a multidomestic firm, an active subsidiary is representative of a transnational organization, and a quiescent subsidiary is reflective of an international enterprise.

Finally, we review the control and coordination mechanisms outlined by Martinez and Jarillo (1989) and Harzing (1999), and how they apply to professional service firms.

In the next chapter, we examine how higher education institutions are being compared to multinational corporations.

CHAPTER 2. Higher Education Institutions as Multinational Corporations

In this chapter, we will discuss how higher education institutions with international branch campuses are becoming like multinational corporations (Wilkins, 2016). First, we will examine how higher education institutions internationalize through transnational education. Then, we will discuss the evolution of international branch campuses. Thirdly, research on international branch campuses will be reviewed, with a focus on how they are being compared to subsidiaries of multinational corporations. Finally, we will explore higher education institutions as professional service firms.

2.1 Higher Education Institutions

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) defines higher education as “all types of studies, training or training for research at the post-secondary level, provided by universities or other educational establishments that are approved as institutions of higher education by the competent State authorities” (1998, p. 1).

The number of higher education institutions (HEIs) has been on the rise over the past few years but has received little attention from the scientific community (Vieira & Lepori, 2016). One of the major areas of growth has been through transnational education.

2.1.1 What is Transnational Education?

Transnational education is any teaching or education activity where students are in a different country than the one in which the institution providing the education is based. This situation requires that “national boundaries be crossed by information about the education, and by staff and/or educational materials” (Global Alliance for Transnational Education, 1997, as cited in British Council, 2013, p. 12). The Council of Europe and UNESCO (2002) states that transnational education includes:

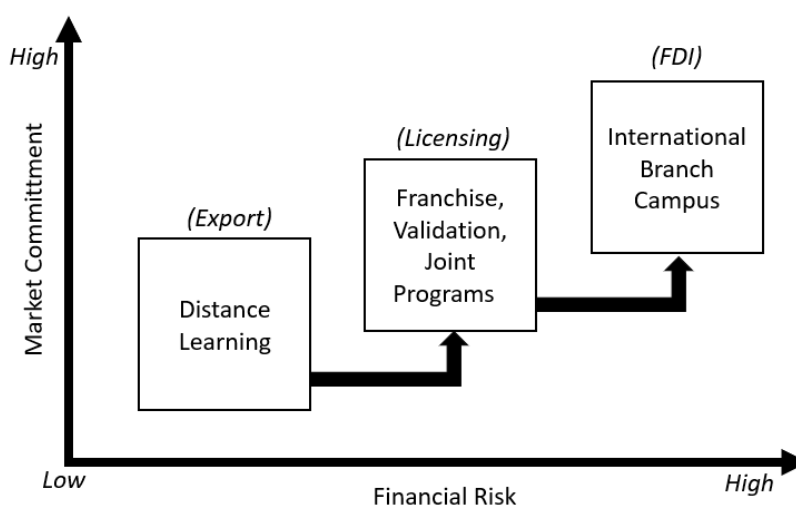
All types of higher education study programmes, or sets of courses of study, or educational services (including those of distance education) in which the learners are located in a country different from the one where the awarding institution is based. Such programmes may belong to the education system of a State different from the State in which it operates or may operate independently of any national education system. (Section I. Terminology, para. 5)

Healey (2015) defines it simply as the means in which an educational service is provided by an institution in Country A to students in Country B. This principle of transnationality can be conceptualized via the foreign market entry approach.

2.1.1.2 Market Entry Modes in Transnational Education

The main forms of transnational education market entry modes are distance learning (exporting), franchising, validation, or joint programs (licensing), and international branch campuses (foreign direct investment) (Healey 2008, 2015). Figure 7 highlights these stages.

Figure 7. The stage approach to transnational education



Source: Adapted from Healey and Bordogna (2014, p. 9); Healey (2015, p. 24)

Distance Learning

Distance learning is a method of studying where lectures are broadcasted (via television or the Internet) or lessons are conducted by correspondence where the student does not physically need to be in the classroom. It provides a way of exporting education to students in another country via access to online programs and material (Quality Assurance Agency, 2013). Hoy (2014) argues that the popularity of massive open online courses (MOOCs) illustrates the potential market for distance learning.

Franchising, Validation, and Joint Programs

Franchising is the higher education equivalent of licensing production to a foreign partner (Healey, 2015). According to the British Council (2013), franchising involves creating a partnership with a foreign provider where the provider is licensed to teach the home HEI's degree in that particular country but has no input in the curriculum. The home HEI provides the

curriculum content, while the host is generally responsible for providing the physical infrastructure, employs the academic and administrative staff that teach the program, as well recruit and assess students that enroll in the program. The partner usually pays the home HEI a royalty fee of some kind and bears most of the financial risks (Healey, 2015).

Validation is very similar to the franchising relationship between the home HEI and the foreign provider. The main difference is that a program and its curriculum are developed by the partner, then validated by the home HEI (British Council, 2013). Only after the proposed program is deemed appropriate and that it meets the home HEI academic standards (i.e., validated) will the foreigner provider receive the license to market the program. Validation allows the curriculum to be more attuned to the local environment and may be delivered in the local language (Healey, 2015).

Joint programs are a variation of franchising and validation. The Quality Assurance Agency (2010) defines it as a program where offshore students complete the home HEI's entire degree at a partner institution or start the program in the partner institution, then transfer to the home HEI to complete the degree.

International Branch Campuses

International branch campuses (IBCs) represent the final stage of internationalization, with the home HEI creating a satellite campus in a foreign market (Healey, 2015).

There are two organizations that are considered authorities on IBCs: The Observatory on Borderless Higher Education (OBHE) and the Cross-Border Education Research Team (C-BERT) (OBHE & Cross-Border Education Research Team, 2016). Founded in 2001, OBHE is an organization that tracks global developments in higher education concerning new technology, cross-border delivery, and nontraditional schools. C-BERT was created in 2010 at the State University of New York at Albany. The group does research in international higher education from organizational, sociological, economical, and political perspectives (OBHE & Cross-Border Education Research Team, 2016).

The Observatory on Borderless Higher Education (OBHE) defines an IBC as:

A HEI (Higher Education Institution) that is located in another country from which it either originated or operates, with some physical presence in the host country, and which awards at least one degree in the host country that is accredited in the country of the originating institution. (Lawton & Kasomitos, 2012, p. 2)

C-BERT (2023) clarifies an IBC as:

An entity that is owned, at least in part, by a foreign higher education provider; operated in the name of the foreign education provider; and provides an entire academic program, substantially on site, leading to a degree awarded by the foreign education provider.
(para. 1)

It is important to note that due to the evolution of IBCs, any definition of an IBC will arbitrarily include some branch campuses and not others (Escriva-Beltran et al., 2019). Lane and Kinser (2012) argue that no single definition of an IBC can address all the entity's parameters. Though both the OBHE and C-BERT definitions are standards in IBC research, we refer to the C-BERT one for our groundwork as it is the most recent.

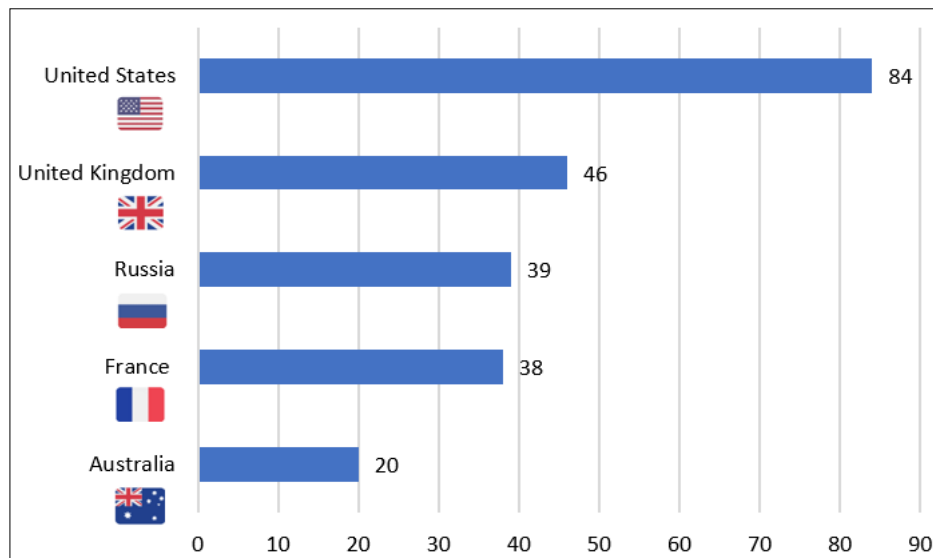
2.1.2 International Branch Campuses

As stated earlier, international branch campuses represent the final stage of internationalization, with the home HEI creating a satellite campus in a foreign market. The amount of IBCs in the world is rising. Between 2006 to 2011, the number of IBCs increased 144% and from 2012 to 2017 an additional 26% (Escriva-Beltran et al., 2019). There are currently 333 international branch campuses located in 83 host countries and coming from 39 home countries (Cross-Border Education Research Team, 2023).

The largest exporters of branch campuses are the United States, the United Kingdom, Russia, France, and Australia. The largest importers of branch campuses are China³, the United Arab Emirates, Singapore, Malaysia, and Qatar (Cross-Border Education Research Team, 2023). Figures 8 and 9 summarize the number of branch campuses from each country.

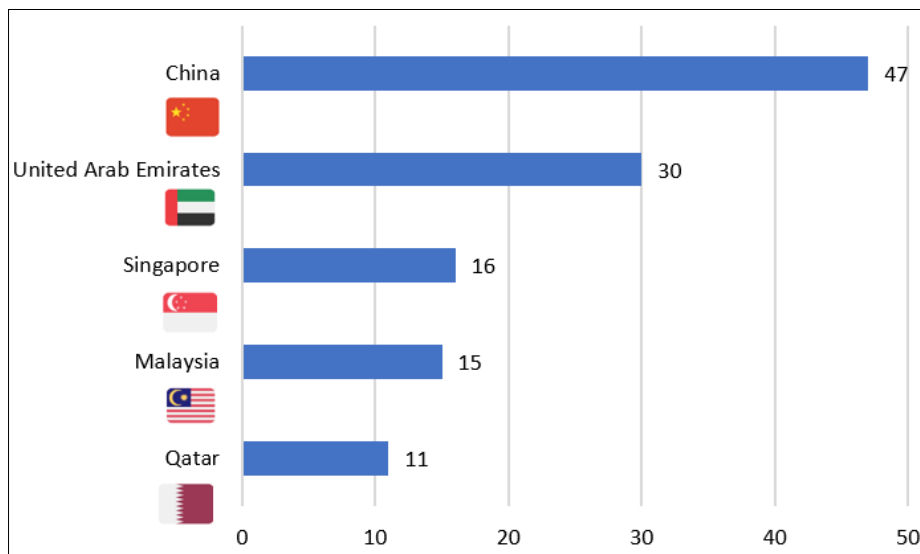
³ This does not include Hong-Kong.

Figure 8. Largest exporters of IBCs



Source: Adapted from the Cross-Border Education Research Team (2023)

Figure 9. Largest importers of IBCs



Source: Adapted from the Cross-Border Education Research Team (2023)

A branch campus has more financial risks than the previous entry modes discussed. There are several examples of IBCs that were closed at a financial loss to the home HEI. The University of New South Wales closed its Asian campus in Singapore in 2007 after being open for only four months (Alexander, 2007; Burton, 2007). George Mason University shut down its campus in Ras al Khaimah in the United Arab Emirates in 2009 without ever graduating a single student (Mills, 2009; George Mason University, 2017). Boxes 1 and 2 highlight these cases.

Despite the risks, several universities have created successful IBCs. The University of Nottingham and Monash University have used their Asian campuses to position themselves as global brands (Sidhu, 2006) Boxes 3 and 4 focus on these success stories.

Box 1 The University of New South Wales Asia

In the early 2000s, the University of New South Wales (UNSW) was selected by the Singapore government to become the first full-scale university campus in the city state as part of its Global Schoolhouse Effort (the development of Singapore's tertiary education sector). The goal was to have 15,000 students over the next 20 years, with 70% being international ones.

However, the school was only open for four months before it decided to close its doors in May 2007. The initial reason was lower than anticipated student enrollment with only 148 students registered in the first semester, less than half of its projected target. Another issue was that most of the students were Singaporeans and the school wanted a broader mix of nationalities from around the region. The decision for the closure was also made before being required to start construction of its new campus to replace the temporary facilities. According to university officials "An intensive review of our operations in Singapore indicates that to continue would involve an unacceptable level of risk to our institution" (Burton, 2007, para. 2).

UNSW lost \$38 million due to school's failure, as well as damage to its reputation on the international education market (Alexander, 2007; Burton, 2007).

Box 2 George Mason University Ras al Khaimah

In 2009, George Mason University (GMU) closed its branch campus in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) city of Ras al Khaimah without ever graduating a single student in its three and a half years of operation.

Founded in 2006, George Mason University followed in the footsteps of several other American universities like Georgetown, Michigan State, and New York University in creating a campus in the Middle East, however it was the first one to fail. The main reason was a disagreement with Edrak, a private education company that owned the campus and GMU's partner in Ras al Khaimah, concerning the IBC operating budget. In the 2008-2009 academic year, Edrak provided GMU with between \$7 million and \$8 million to operate the campus for 180 students. However, Edrak was only going to provide \$6.5 million for the 2009-2010 school year and expected GMU to enroll 300 students. GMU's provost stated that with these budget constraints, it would be impossible to provide the students at Ras al Khaimah with the level of education that would meet the standard of GMU's home campus, and therefore decided to close the campus.

There were other problems with the campus before the budget issue, including administration, academic standards, and identity. The English level expected of students was the same as the one required for foreign students attending the home campus in Virginia. Also, the admissions process for the branch campus was handled completely by GMU in the United States, bringing into question by IBC staff if GMU had a grasp of the local terrain. The programs offered by GMU in Ras al Khaimah were chosen without any prior market research and the majority were not accredited by the UAE's Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research. Marketing efforts were handled by a local partner, not very effectively, and described by GMU as "truly horrible" (Mills, 2009, para. 21).

Due to these issues and the impact on its reputation, GMU decided to close the campus in Ras al Khaimah in the summer of 2009 (Mills, 2009; George Mason University, 2017).

Box 3 The University of Nottingham Ningbo China

In early 2003, the University of Nottingham agreed to enter in a partnership with the Wanli Education Group (WEG) to develop a campus in the port city of Ningbo, China. The joint venture agreement was signed in 2004 and the Ministry of Education gave official approval for the creation of the University of Nottingham Ningbo China (UNNC), making UNNC the first joint-venture university to obtain legal status as an independent campus in China (by law, foreign universities must have a local partner to enter the Chinese market). The first cohort of 254 students started in September 2004.

The difference in the higher education structures between the United Kingdom and China presented two main challenges. First, the Chinese system requires 12 years of schooling followed by a four-year university degree, whereas the U.K. system operates with 13 years of instruction and a three-year university degree. To align the two systems, UNNC created a four-year degree including a foundation year (year 1) that serves as a bridge between the Chinese and U.K. school systems. Secondly, there were contextual differences between the two countries. This was addressed by requiring courses to have the equivalent in terms of content and learning outcomes, but case studies and examples could be tailored to the local environment.

To ensure that the partnership worked efficiently, each partner contributed via their areas of expertise. The University of Nottingham was responsible for all academic matters, while WEG handled the logistics and financial affairs. Staff recruiting for the Ningbo campus was managed by committed administrators in the United Kingdom. UNNC started by offering undergraduate degrees in only four concentrations: business and management, computer science, international studies, and international communications. Teaching was done by the newly recruited staff, but also with fly-in faculty and video conferencing.

Currently, UNNC offers 29 undergraduate degrees and 18 postgraduate degrees to over 9,000 students at its 58-hectare campus (144 acres) located in the Ningbo Higher Education Zone. The school has over 900 staff members split across academic and professional services.

Creating a strong partnership, dedication from U.K. senior management, maintaining academic quality while adapting to the local context, and having a clear vision for the campus have been key factors to UNNC's success (Ennew & Fujia, 2009)

Box 4 Monash University Malaysia

In 1992 Monash University approached the Malaysian government to establish a branch campus in partnership with the Sunway Group, a Malaysian conglomerate. In 1998, the government of Malaysia formally invited Monash to develop a campus, making it the first foreign university in Malaysia. Monash University and the Sunway Group agreed, through the memorandum of understanding, that:

Monash Malaysia would share the premises of Sunway College at Bandar Sunway until it attracted the 800 students required to build its own campus. Sunway would provide the resources, including staff, buildings and equipment, while Monash would supply a resident campus director and take responsibility for curriculum, examinations and academic standards. The campus was to be wholly owned by Sunway, but Monash would receive a royalty on every student and could acquire equity over time. (Davison & Murphy, 2012, p. 238)

The new university opened its doors in 1998 with a cohort of 417 students taking four courses offered under the Monash's School of Business, School of Engineering, and the School of Science. It reached the target of 800 students in less than two years and moved to a purpose-built campus leased from the Sunway Group in 2007. Monash University also acquired 24% interest in Monash Malaysia around the same time.

To ensure consistency across the campuses, staffing for the school is subject to Monash University's selection process it uses for its home campus. The education quality and standards are governed by both Australian and Malaysian education frameworks.

A clearly defined strategy and a strong partnership helped Monash University Malaysia succeed. Currently, the campus has approximately 9,300 students from more than 79 countries following a range of undergraduate and postgraduate programs (Monash University Malaysia, 2023; Sidhu & Christie, 2015).

2.1.2.1 A Brief History of International Branch Campuses

Though a handful of IBCs were established in the first half of the 20th century (e.g., Parsons School of Design Paris founded in 1921, John Hopkins University in Bologna, Italy established in 1955, and Florida State University Republic of Panama created in 1957⁴), the growth of IBCs remained slow until the 1980s when the first concentrated buildup of IBCs occurred in Japan (Lane, 2011). Talks between the United States and Japan lead to several American universities creating IBCs in various Japanese cities. While at least 30 institutions established campuses in Japan, only two still exist: Temple University Tokyo campus and the Stanford Japanese Center located in Kyoto (Kosmützky, 2018; Umakoshi, 1997). The Japanese IBC bubble burst was brought on by the instability of the local economy, linguistic barriers, and the poor choice of locations (Lane, 2011).

The second phase of growth occurred in the 1990s. With the passing of the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) in 1995, more institutions and countries began setting up IBCs. GATS is the classification by the World Trade Organization (WTO) that is applied to 160 service sectors which includes education. GATS focuses on the entity which crosses the international border (Talik, 2011). In relation to higher education, the four modes depend on whether it is the program (distance learning), the student (in exchange programs), the institution (in the form of a franchise, a validated partner, or an international branch campus), or the academic staff that cross the border (Healey, 2015). Table 11 shows the GATS classification.

Table 11. The GATS classification of transnational education

Mode	Description	Examples	Mobility
Mode 1	Cross-border supply	Distance learning	Program mobility
Mode 2	Consumption abroad	Export education	Student mobility
Mode 3	Commercial presence	Franchise Validate partner International Branch Campus	Institutional mobility
Mode 4	Delivery abroad	Faculty abroad	Academic mobility

Source: Adapted from Healey and Bordogna (2014, p. 9); Healey (2015, p. 25)

Branch openings after GATS came mostly from Australia, the United States, and the United Kingdom. Wilkins and Huisman (2012) state there are three reasons why these countries

⁴ Please refer to the schools' websites for more information:

<https://www.newschool.edu/parsons-paris/about/>

<https://panama.fsu.edu/overview>

<https://sais.jhu.edu/about-us/mission-history>

dominated the market: 1) English as the language of instruction made it easier to export education systems; 2) Reforms in the United Kingdom and Australia opened the countries to the global education market; and 3) A decreased level of state funding forced many HEIs to search for new sources of revenue. Also at this time, Russian universities began establishing branches in former Soviet territories due to the void left by the fall of the USSR. (Kosmützky, 2018; Wilkins & Huisman; 2012). The rest of the decade saw numerous institutions creating IBCs mainly in the Middle East, Africa, and Asia. By the end of the 1990s, there were 50 active IBCs (Lane, 2011).

At the beginning of the 2000s, the predominant host countries for IBCs were Singapore, Malaysia, the United Arab Emirates, and Qatar. Around 2003-2004 these countries began creating so-called education hubs in order to strengthen their academic infrastructure. Knight (2013) defines an education hub as:

A concerted and planned effort by a country (or zone, city) to build a critical mass of local and international actors to strengthen its efforts to build the higher education sector, expand the talent pool or contribute to the knowledge economy. (p. 375)

Examples of educational hubs are the city of Singapore and several areas in Malaysia. However, two of the largest hubs are Dubai International Academic City and Education City in Qatar (see Boxes 5 and 6).

From 2012 onwards, the growth of IBCs shifted from these educational hubs to China due to the Chinese government's expansion of its higher education system and its desire to increase post-secondary education enrollments in the country (Kosmützky, 2018). However, the government stipulates that foreign institutions entering the Chinese market must have a local partner (Huang, 2003). To date the majority of IBCs in China have small enrollment numbers and a limited program offering, though larger ones do exist. Four of the biggest branch campuses in the country are Duke Kunshan University, New York Shanghai University, Xi'an Jiaotong-Liverpool University, and the University of Nottingham Ningbo China (refer to Box 3). China is currently hosting the most IBCs at 47 (Cross Border Education Research Team, 2023). Despite the challenges of creating a campus abroad, the growth of IBCs is expected to continue over the next decade (Wilkins, 2021).

Box 5 Dubai International Academic City

Dubai International Academic City (DIAC) was established in 2007 as a residential free zone dedicated to education by the TECOM Group, an association that builds business districts throughout the United Arab Emirates. The goal was to create an ecosystem of key global and local internationally accredited universities to nurture a talent pool coming from the Middle East and North Africa.

Located on a 5.2 square kilometers (2 square miles) infrastructure, DIAC is home to 27 schools, including several international ones coming from Australia, France, India, Iran, Ireland, Lebanon, Pakistan, Russia, the United Kingdom, and the United States. It also hosts several research centers, libraries, and sports complexes.

There are over 28,000 students studying in more than 500 programs in the city making DIAC the largest education hub in the region (DIAC, 2023; Cross-Border Education Research Team, 2023).

Box 6 Education City, Qatar

Located in Al Rayyan, Education City was developed by the Qatar Foundation in the late 1990s to provide world-class education to the people of Qatar. It is a campus covering more than 12 square kilometers (4.6 square miles) and hosting eight international universities: Virginia Commonwealth University, Cornell University, Texas A&M University, Carnegie Mellon University, Georgetown University, Northwestern University, HEC Paris, and the University College London. It is also home to 13 schools that are part of Qatar's pre-university education network. The campus services more than 10,500 students.

The site also includes the Qatar National Library, a technology park, a convention center, start-up incubators, a teaching hospital, an equestrian center, and various sports facilities including a 33-hole golf course (Qatar Foundation, 2023).

2.1.3 Research on International Branch Campuses

An institution that has an IBC or IBCs may be considered a multinational company (MNC) as it is making investments into a foreign market(s) and controlling, to a certain degree, the value of the final product (Dunning & Lundan, 2008a). However, IBCs are also one of the most unexplored entry modes for HEIs to international markets (Beecher & Streitwieser, 2017; Girdzijauskaitė & Radzeviciene, 2014; Wilkins & Huisman, 2013).

Escriva-Beltran et al. (2019) provide a systematic literature review of the research that has been done concerning IBCs encompassing 173 articles from 1960 to 2017. It is considered the most comprehensive review of published research on IBCs to date (Wilkins, 2021).

The researchers identify nine research areas dealing with branch campuses: institutional reasons to establish an IBC; models of IBCs; student issues; academic staff issues; managerial issues; educational hubs; sustainability; language - English as lingua franca; and parallelism with a subsidiary of a multinational corporation. Table 12 summarizes the number of articles for each research area. These topics will be briefly discussed in the following paragraphs.

Table 12. Research areas dealing with IBCs

IBC Research Areas	Number of Publications (1960-2017)
Institutional reasons to establish an IBC	9
Models of IBCs	3
Student issues	9
Academic staff issues	15
Managerial issues	26
Educational hubs	15
Sustainability	9
Language - English as lingua franca	6
Parallelism with a subsidiary of an MNC	10

Source: Adapted from Escriva-Beltran et al. (2019, p. 4.)

Institutional Reasons to Establish an International Branch Campus

The analysis shows a wide range of reasons why institutions create an IBC (Escriva-Beltran et al, 2019). Firstly, it is a way for institutions to increase their image, prestige, or global brand recognition (Mazzoral & Choo, 2003; McBurnie & Ziguras, 2006). Several researchers argue that there is a demand from various institutional policies, as well as students' desire for different educational and social experiences to create a presence abroad (Altbach, 2007; McBurnie & Ziguras, 2006). Also, some host governments recruit foreign universities to create IBCs because it is beneficial to their country in a variety of ways such as increasing the country's education infrastructure (Lane & Kinser, 2011; Wilkins, 2013). However, the main reason may be financially motivated. Though the empirical data is scarce, institutions are looking for new revenue streams such as other sources of income and incentives from local host governments (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2006; Naidoo, 2006; Wilkins & Huisman, 2012; Verbik & Merkley, 2006).

Models of International Branch Campuses

A triad of articles examined a series of models of how institutions establish their “physical plant” (Escriva-Beltran et al., 2019, p. 5). Lane and Kinser (2013) describe five campus models based on ownership patterns: Wholly owned by the home institution, owned by a local government, partnerships with a local private partner, a campus space rented from a private party, and a campus owned by an academic provider. Verbik (2015) classifies the campus by the origin of its funding: fully funded by the home institution, externally funded, or where the facilities are provided by a national government or private company. Girdzijauskaite and Radzeviciene (2014) divide the branch campus in two ways: by the partnership form and by the target market. The partnership form is divided into three groups: a subsidiary, a joint venture, or a university-business venture. The target market form is organized by the type of studies: one which is dedicated to undergraduate students only, one dedicated to graduate and postgraduate students, and one that focuses on students and research.

Student Issues

According to the review, student motivations for attending IBCs center on convenience. This includes, but not limited to, being able to stay in their home country and its culture, therefore limiting the cost of international travel, while earning a degree from an internationally recognized institution (e.g., Healey, 2015; Wilkins & Huisman, 2015).

Academic Staff Issues

According to several researchers, staffing will continue to be the biggest strategic challenge that IBCs face (e.g., Edwards et al, 2014; Salt & Wood, 2014; Shams & Huisman, 2012, 2016). Factors surrounding that include finding staff that can adapt to the curriculum and/or the local environment, as well as manage the relationship between home and host academic personnel (Edwards et al, 2014).

Managerial Issues

Research on managerial issues tends to focus on different ways of approaching branch campus management through the lens of international business and strategy. The majority of the articles address institutional strategies and cross-cultural challenges⁵ (e.g., Lane, 2011; Shams & Huisman, 2012).

⁵ For a list of all articles, refer to Table 8 in Escriva-Beltran et al. (2019, p. 6)

Sustainability

An IBC's sustainability is linked to its ability to adapt to local social, cultural, and educational environments of the host country, as well as assuring sources of revenue, quality of the curriculum, and issues relating to faculty such as academic freedom or availability (e.g., Kosmützky & Krücken, 2014; Wilkins & Huisman, 2012).

Language - English as Lingua Franca

To be identified as a legitimate “international” program, it is assumed the courses should be taught in English (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Wilkins & Urbanovic, 2014). Therefore, countries that use English on a regular basis for teaching and research will have an advantage over countries that do not (Wilkins, 2012). Students in host countries believe that English fluency skills are important to be competitive on the job market. However, research suggests, that in time, other languages such as Spanish or Chinese may be commonly used in transnational education (Wilkins, 2012; Wilkins & Urbanovic, 2014).

Education Hubs as Business Hubs

An education hub may encompass various combinations of local and international educational institutions, branch campuses, and foreign collaborations. (Cross-Border Education Research Team, 2023). Some countries in Southeast Asia and the Middle East – mainly in Hong Kong, Malaysia, Singapore, Qatar, and the United Arab Emirates – have established international higher education hubs to attract foreign institutions. Incentives like cash, land grants, or tax breaks are used to lure schools to participate in certain hubs (e.g., Knight, 2013; Kosmützky, 2014; Lane & Kinser, 2011; Lawton & Katsomitros, 2012; Wilkins, 2010; Wilkins & Huisman, 2015). Cheng et al. (2001) identify three advantages for host countries that have education hubs: economic growth, a means to attract foreign students to their region, as well as increasing the international reputation of the institutions located in the hub.

Parallelism with a Subsidiary of a Multinational Corporation

Escriva-Beltran et al. (2019) identify 10 articles in the literature that compare universities to multinational corporations (MNCs) and IBCs as subsidiaries of MNCs. These articles are examined in more detail as they pertain closely to the subject of our dissertation.

Following the Escriva-Beltra et al. (2019) approach to the systematic review of IBC literature from 1960 to 2017, we have done an additional search using ERIC and Google Scholar (the Web of Science database was not searched due to inaccessibility). The same search terms were used: “international branch campus,” “transnational education,” “foreign branch campuses,” “offshore campuses,” “cross-border education,” and “borderless education”. The search period

was from 2018 to 2023. After reviewing the titles and abstracts from the bibliographic search to narrow down results that parallel IBCs as a subsidiary of a MNC, 10 additional articles were selected. Table 13 provides a summary of the 20 studies dating from 2006 to 2022 that are applicable to our subject. The articles investigate the similarities of MNCs and HEIs via several management theories and constructs, including the OLI paradigm and the I-R framework.

Table 13. Key articles for IBC parallelism with a subsidiary of an MNC

Author(s)	Research Question(s) or Objective	Methodology and Theory(s) Used	Key Findings
van Rooijen (2006)	To discuss the future of universities in the context of globalization.	A qualitative case study concerning transnational education in the U.K. using the offshore strategy of University of Westminster as an example. <i>OLI paradigm</i>	Argues that the main drivers of higher education institutions (HEIs) in the United Kingdom are academics, social mission, financial, reputation and international visibility in the face of globalization. Four questions are raised concerning the future of higher education: 1) Is a university going to be local/regional, national, international, or multinational/global? 2) Will globalization change higher education to merely a business? 3) What is the acceptable level of risks, both financial and reputational, in developing operations in other parts of the world? 4) How attractive it is to have a foreign university set up a branch campus on your home territory? Concludes, that despite these questions, the future of multinational HEIs is positive.
Bhanji (2008)	To explore how MNCs are using Global Corporate Social Engagement (GCSE) in education.	A qualitative analysis of the World Economic Forum's corporate citizenship initiatives as a new form of "market" multilateralism in education using examples from six MNCs. <i>OLI paradigm</i>	Contends that this engagement is rarely based purely on philanthropic contributions but aligned with their products and services to pursue business interests. Calls for more research concerning the "governance gap" between MNCs and international education. Shows that there is a link between MNCs and HEIs.
Lane & Kinser (2011)	To examine the concept of privatization through cross-border education engagement.	A qualitative case study on Qatar and the Malaysian state of Sarawak. Data was collected as part of a larger study focusing on the global development of international branch campuses that included more than 40 IBCs in 10 countries, as well as home campuses in Australia, the United Kingdom, and the United States. <i>OLI paradigm</i>	Assert that institutions, whether public or private, participating in cross-border education must look at the relationship between home & host countries based on five dimensions: mission, ownership, investment, revenue, and regulation. Show that OLI factors apply to HEIs.

Table 13 (Continued)

Author(s)	Research Question(s) or Objective	Methodology and Theory(s) Used	Key Findings
Shams & Huisman (2012)	How can higher education institutions best strategically manage their offshore campus?	A qualitative examination that proposes a conceptual framework to analyze transnational higher education institutions. <i>I-R framework</i>	Build a conceptual model based on the I-R framework (Prahalad & Doz, 1987) concerning staffing, curriculum, and research for IBCs to address the dichotomy of global integration versus local responsiveness. Call for further empirical studies to apply the framework. Show that HEIs have I-R issues similar to MNCs.
Gallaher & Garrett (2012)	To address the threats facing Australian higher education exports.	A qualitative case study that provides a conceptual model of the internationalization of higher education, and four examples of multinational universities. <i>OLI paradigm</i>	Using the example of four American universities (New York University, Duke University, Yale University, and MIT) that have created IBCs in Asia, the researchers suggest that Australian universities should "hardwire" themselves in China, rather than relying on the export model. Propose that the stronger the OLI factors a HEI has, the more it should consider FDI.
Healey & Bordogna (2014)	To better understand the changing nature of transnational education.	A qualitative multiple case study paper that provides a conceptual framework based on the stage approach to explain transnational education. Using data from The Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education and transnational partnership managers, 70 case studies were reviewed concerning China, Malaysia, India, and Singapore. <i>Uppsala model</i>	Explain transnational education via five phases: distance learning, franchising, validation, joint programs, and international branch campuses. Conclude that many transnational education partnerships are becoming multinational in terms of managerial decision-making processes and stakeholder interests.
Edwards et al. (2014)	To examine the various forms of subsidiaries and align them to higher education institutions.	A quantitative probe that proposes a conceptual framework to classify IBC models and their strategic implications. <i>Barlett & Ghoshal matrix</i>	Present four different IBC models: the multidomestic branch campus, the international branch campus, the global branch campus, and the transnational branch campus. Posit that lessons from the experience of MNCs also apply to international HEIs.

Table 13 (Continued)

Author(s)	Research Question(s) or Objective	Methodology and Theory(s) Used	Key Findings
Wilkins & Huisman (2014)	How do consumers' images of home and foreign business units, and their perceptions held by other stakeholders, influence their buying behavior?	A quantitative analysis based on 384 survey responses from five secondary schools located in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) in March 2012. <i>Resource-based view</i>	Find that relationships between foreign images and perceived stakeholder images, and perceived stakeholder images and product choice are both positive and significant when applied to foreign IBCs located in the UAE. Suggest that MNCs cannot rely only on strong corporate brands and successful operations in their home countries to acquire positive perceptions of their foreign operations among potential consumers abroad.
Salt & Wood (2014)	How far are U.K. universities becoming like MNCs concerning international staffing? Are there lessons for universities from the experience of MNCs?	Qualitative study derived from three surveys of MNCs in 2005-2006, 2009 (40 firms), and 2007-2008 (16 firms), as well as interviews with four U.K. universities in 2011-2012. <i>Colonial model of mobility</i>	Find that U.K. universities are becoming like MNCs with respect to international staffing but identifies several key differences: Most universities lack the infrastructure to manage overseas staffing, career development at universities are different than at MNCs, and have different responses to uncertainty. Due to this, HR policies need to be adapted when staffing an IBC. Imply that MNCs and HEIs are similar organizations.
Guimón (2016)	To extend the use of the OLI paradigm to multinational universities.	A qualitative paper that provides a conceptual framework that differentiates the three main missions of universities. <i>OLI paradigm</i>	Explores the motivations of the multinational university based on three missions: teaching, research, and contribution to industry and society. From a resource-seeking perspective, institutions can tap into assets and capabilities from multiple IBC locations in order to integrate and leverage them into ownership advantages.

Table 13 (Continued)

Author(s)	Research Question(s) or Objective	Methodology & Theory(s) used	Key Findings
He & Wilkins (2018)	To explore the relationship between institutional influences and IBC's responses to such influences.	A multiple case study approach using data from semi-structured interviews with 12 managers of the three IBCs in Laos, Thailand, and Malaysia. <i>Institutional theory & I-R framework</i>	Find that IBCs establish legitimacy in three modes: legitimacy conformity, selective legitimacy conformity/nonconformity, and legitimacy creation. The mode chosen relies on the dependence on local resources and the strength of the institutional forces in the host country. Imply that HEIs strive for legitimacy in new markets like that of MNC subsidiaries. Call for more application of institutional theory in the area of transnational education.
Healey (2018)	To demonstrate that the I-R framework may be applied to challenges facing IBCs.	A qualitative study based on semi-structured interviews with 14 managers at nine IBCs in China, Malaysia, and the United Arab Emirates. <i>I-R framework</i>	Proposes an improved framework based on Shams and Huisman (2012) research. Finds that the faculty, curriculum, and research are likely to be localized in response to pressure from an IBC's main internal and external stakeholders. Shows that home country and host country factors influence I-R decisions in HEIs.
Escriva-Beltran et al. (2019)	To map the global scientific production on IBC research via a literature review.	A systematic review of 173 publications about IBCs from 1960 to 2017.	Find nine different thematic research areas on IBCs: institutional reasons to establish an IBC, models of IBCs, student issues, academic staff issues, managerial issues, educational hubs, sustainability, English as lingua franca, and parallelism with a subsidiary of a MNC. Conclude that as universities become more global, they will act as MNCs.
Girdzijauskaitė et al. (2019a)	How can universities exploit IBCs as a foreign market entry mode?	A qualitative case study of based on surveys completed by seven managers from seven higher education institutions in Australia, Estonia, Malaysia Singapore, Sweden, the United Kingdom, and the United States. <i>Uppsala model</i>	Argue that the most important factors when establishing an IBC are brand development & government support. Find that an IBC as a foreign market entry mode is not aimed at increasing the income of HEIs, but more for strengthening the HEI brand and positioning in certain markets.

Table 13 (Continued)

Author(s)	Research Question(s) or Objective	Methodology and Theory(s) Used	Key Findings
Girdzijauskaite et al. (2019b)	To develop a strategic map for establishing IBCs.	A qualitative study that proposes a conceptual framework to analyze the context of foreign market entry of higher education institutions. <i>Uppsala model & networking theory</i>	Present a decision support model for creating an IBC bound to a matrix of transnational strategies for a university based on institutional difference and institutional uncertainty. Argue that the use of the model could lead to better allocation of resources and improve the competitiveness of an HEI.
Jing et al. (2020)	How should IBCs respond to host country's regulatory requirements and educational demands while maintaining a similar education quality found at the home institution?	A qualitative case study of McGill University and their MBA Japan Program (MBAJ) based on 18 interviews with staff, students, and government officials. <i>I-R framework</i>	Using the I-R framework (Healey, 2018; Shams & Huisman, 2012) the researchers show that the MBAJ has a high degree of global integration in staffing & curriculum, but like many other IBCs it does not emphasize research. Claim it is the first empirical article to apply this I-R framework to investigate an IBC in balancing the tension between global integration and local responsiveness. Call for more case studies of IBCs to better understand the global integration and local responsiveness balance.
Wilkins (2021)	To assess the challenges and accomplishments of IBCs and to consider the future developments of IBCs.	A systematic review of IBC development from 2000–2020 based upon scholarly and grey literature (sample size undisclosed).	Argues that most institutions that have an IBC appear to believe that it enhances the institution's status and reputation. Suggests that new IBCs will continue to emerge over the next decade despite the complexity of the HEI market conditions.
Wilkins & Huisman (2021)	To identify and analyze different positioning strategies adopted by late-entry institutions to gain a competitive advantage.	A content analysis of seven IBCs in the United Arab Emirates and their communication material to determine their differentiation strategies as late entrants in the market from 2012 to 2018. The home institutions are in Australia, Austria, India, Lebanon Pakistan, Russia, the United Kingdom. <i>First-mover advantage theory</i>	Find eight themes and concepts from the institutional websites and that the degree of homogeneity or heterogeneity in the promotion of the schools lay in the middle, meaning that they mimic to a degree the communication of other schools to address liability of newness and foreignness, but differentiate on product offerings. State that the most effective strategy appears to focus on the target market segment.

Table 13 (Continued)

Author(s)	Research Question(s) or Objective	Methodology and Theory(s) Used	Key Findings
Villó Sirerol et al. (2021)	To analyze higher education internationalization perspectives from IBCs in Spain.	Provides a descriptive analysis of the IBCs in Europe with a focus on five IBCs found on the Spanish market. <i>I-R framework, OLI paradigm, Uppsala model</i>	Show that France and the United Kingdom represent more than 70% of exported IBCs from the European Higher Education Area. Find that there is only one Spanish university with foreign campuses (IESE Business School in São Paulo, New York, and Munich) and that there are only five foreign intuitions in Spain (two from France and three from the United States). Two schools entered the market via partner institutions, while three entered by establishing a wholly-owned branch campus. Provides examples of the different modes for implanting an IBC.
Hickey & Davies (2022)	To identify the key characteristics of successful IBCs.	A qualitative study that proposes a conceptual decision-making framework based on a systematic review of the academic articles on IBCs, as well as reports from the U.K. government and mainstream press articles (sample size undisclosed).	Compare strategic, leadership, academic, financial, and operational factors to determine characteristics of successful IBCs. State that schools must be certain that an IBC fits with their institutional strategy and that they have the experience and knowledge of host markets needed to make the right decisions. Show that market-entry decisions of HEIs and MNCs are comparable.

Source: Elaborated by the author

2.2 Research on IBCs and Parallelism with a Subsidiary of a Multinational Corporation

The articles on IBCs and parallelism with a subsidiary of a MNC can be grouped into three broad categories: motivations for internationalization and OLI advantages, implementation in the host country, and adaption by established IBCs. We will address each of these categories in the following sections.

2.2.1 Motivations for Internationalization and OLI advantages

As discussed in the previous chapter, Dunning (1988, 1993) established four motives for foreign direct investment: resource seeking, market seeking, efficiency seeking, and strategic asset seeking. These motivations are linked to the ownership, location, and internalization advantages a firm has when investing abroad (Dunning, 1980).

Guimón (2016) combines Dunning's (1988) motives with the three different missions of universities (Laredo, 2007) to examine the emergence of multinational universities. Only a very small share of the world's universities has become multinational by establishing international campuses abroad. The three missions are teaching, research, and contribution to local regional development.

The first mission is related to teaching and the reasons for an institution to go abroad may vary. However, the usual motive for creating an IBC is market seeking as it is a means of increasing the universities' revenue. The idea is to exploit ownership advantages (brand name, curriculum, staff, etc.) by gaining access to the location advantages in that country (new students, public incentive, or funding) (Guimón, 2016).

The second mission is research and HEI motivations are a combination of all three. For market seeking, universities want to establish research units abroad to have access to new public and private funding. For resource seeking, hiring local talent or working with local collaborators may fruit new knowledge and skills at a lower price. The third mission is efficiency seeking as is related to contributing to the local industry and society. This comprises of a variety of activities where university knowledge can be transferred such as the development of human resources capabilities demanded by the firm, the commercialization of technology, or contracts within the local industry to develop new knowledge. The following table summarizes the three missions in the context of motivations.

Table 14. Motivations of multinational universities

	Market seeking	Resource seeking	Efficiency seeking
<i>First mission</i>	Expanding teaching programs to attract more students and raise more money	Hiring foreign professors and collaborating in teaching with foreign institutions to reach more students at lower costs	Achieving economies of scale and scope through the common governance of geographically dispersed campuses
<i>Second mission</i>	Gaining access to research funding and public subsidies from foreign countries	Hiring foreign researchers, collaborating in research with foreign institutions, and conducting research in relevant territories	Building a more efficient global research network
<i>Third mission</i>	Expanding technology commercialization abroad and engaging in contract research with foreign firms	Collaborating more closely with foreign firms and contributing to the education and research agenda of developing countries	Contributing more efficiently to addressing global societal challenges

Source: Adapted from Guimón (2016)

Van Rooijen (2006) discusses the future of universities in the context of globalization by examining the motives for transnational higher education (TNE) in the United Kingdom and using the case of University of Westminster as an example.

The University of Westminster gained experience in different forms of transnational education including distance learning, franchises, as well as developing a postgraduate center in Paris, participating in a consortium to create new universities, such as the Kazakhstan British Technical University, and establishing a new university in Uzbekistan to offer a range of University of Westminster degree programs. Van Rooijen (2008) states the main motivations for the University of Westminster and other U.K. public universities to participate in cross-border education are academic (new students and new research and knowledge transfer activities), the social mission (providing access to higher education in a local foreign market), financial (growth), and for the reputation and international visibility. Therefore, British public universities reasons to go abroad are based on market seeking motivations (Guimón, 2016; Dunning, 1988).

However, the author ends with concerns about the high level of risks of engaging in TNE – both in terms of financial and reputation – to the home institute and the impact it may have on the institution's ownership advantages (Dunning, 1980), and that globalization is driven by

commercial interest, treating education as an industry, and thus reducing universities to a mere business (van Rooijen, 2008).

Bhanji (2008) continues with the notion of education as an industry by exploring the rising presence of multinational corporations (MNCs) in education and how they are using global corporate social engagement (GCSE) dialogue to legitimize their private authority in education. Firms are acting on strategic asset seeking motivations as they are developing their competencies in education activities to increase their competitive advantage (Dunning 1988, 1993). He identifies five types of GCSE: private foundation philanthropy, corporate social responsibility, corporate citizenship/strategic philanthropy, public-private partnerships, and business sustainability. An example of GCSE is Cisco System's Networking Academy Program which provides students with IT skills that allow them to design, build, and maintain computer networks. One program was opened at the University of Kabul to create a base of Afghan IT specialists that could help the country move into the digital age.

Bhanji (2008) argues that this taxonomy of GCSE activities highlights the different motivations and ways through which corporations are participating in education, even if these initiatives are mostly tied to business interests.

These MNC activities are being intertwined with other institutions such as the United Nations, the World Bank, and the World Economic Forum (WEF) to participate in a role of global governance in areas such as education. An example is the WEF Jordan Education Initiative (JEI). The JEI was created in 2003 to challenge international CEOs to support education reform in developing countries. The three-year project was funded by several large corporations like Cisco Systems, Microsoft, Intel, Dell, and others to promote education reform in the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan with the intent of replicating the program in other developing countries Bhanji (2008)

Bhanji (2008) contends that multilateral projects are seldom based on pure philanthropy for MNCs but are aligned with their products and services to pursue their business interests. To what extent do the GCSE activities of MNCs meet the educational priorities of departments of education in developing countries remains unclear. The author calls for more research in understanding the role that MNCs are playing in privatized international higher education.

Lane and Kinser (2011) emphasize the importance of the relationship between developing countries or other host nations and the home country in the public and private nature of cross-border education. They argue that higher education institutions are operating as MNCs and are creating overseas campuses in the pursuit of increased revenue and prestige (market seeking motivations). Even if the home institution is a public one, the offshore operations are often privatized. Two cases of international branch campuses in Sarawak, Malaysia (Curtin University

of Technology) and Qatar (the branch campuses in general) are analyzed through five dimensions: mission, ownership, investment, revenue, and regulation.

Lane and Kinser (2011) explain that the mission relates to the purpose of the branch campus and the role it serves within society. In Qatar, the IBCs are expected to fulfill a public mission to serve the needs of Qatar. When compared with their home institutions in the United States, the IBC was more public oriented than the home universities. Sarawak was mixed. The Curtin campus provides research for private industries, especially oil production, and has several corporate sponsorships of student scholarships. However, the local government still has a say in the development of the programs. The motives for creating IBCs in the two countries are both market seeking and resource seeking (Dunning, 1988; Guimón 2016).

Ownership refers to the authority that controls institutional activity, often a mix between governments and institutions. This is the case both in Qatar and Sarawak. Ownership in Qatar is between the Qatar Foundation and the home institution. The Foundation owns the facilities, while the institution controls the academic aspects. In Sarawak, a legal entity was required by Malaysian law to manage the branch, so Curtin owns 49% of stock with the city of Miri and its partners own 51% (Lane & Kinser, 2011).

Investment refers to the initial start-up capital required to get the branch up and running. The Qatar Foundation entirely financed the operations in the Education City complex, while investments in Sarawak came from public sources or those controlled by the state (Lane & Kinser, 2011). Universities are motivated to create a presence in these two states because of its location advantages: the local market size and access to financial resources (Dunning, 1980).

Revenue is the source of income for the branch. If revenue is provided by the government, the campus is more likely to pursue public goals. If it comes from students, the institution is more likely to participate in more market-oriented activities commonly associated with privatization. In Qatar, tuition is covered in a variety of ways by the government. Sarawak revenue is mainly generated by students paying their own tuition (Lane & Kinser, 2011).

Regulation is the extent of how public and private entities regulate the branch campuses. In Qatar, the branches in Education City are invited into the country by the government and can only offer programs officially allowed by the government. The Qatar Foundation is responsible for quality assurance and acceptable education practices of the branches, while regulation at the home institutions is achieved through accreditation standards managed by non-government agencies. The Curtin branch in Sarawak is managed as a private sector university. Though the government controls certain aspects of the branch concerning required documentation for the Ministry of Education, the branch is less regulated than a public sector institution. It has more freedom regarding the language of instruction and admissions (Lane & Kinser, 2011).

The conclusion of Lane and Kinser (2011) is that while many cross-border activities are private, there is a *dualistic relationship* that exists between the institution and the home and host governments. The study shows how the concessions in the host country can be a market seeking motivation for an HEI to create a branch campus in that territory.

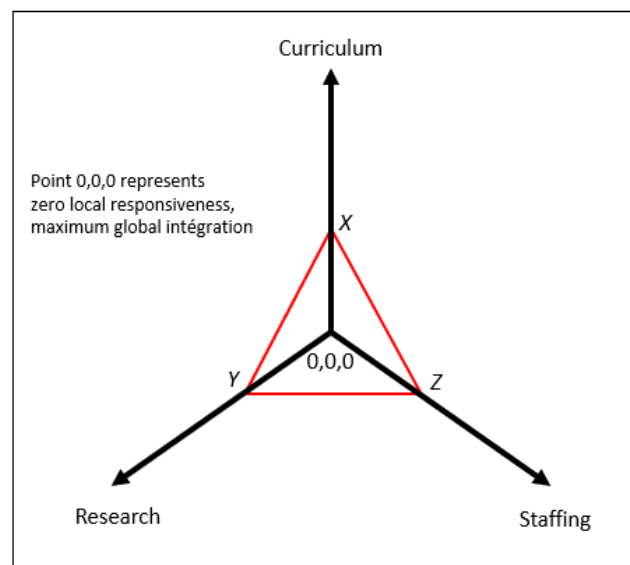
Gallaher and Garrett (2012) analyze the Australian university business model and identify three threats that it faces. First is the threat from American public and private universities aggressively entering the Asian market. The authors give the examples of New York University, Duke University, Yale University, and MIT establishing campuses throughout Asia. The second threat is that these institutions are pursuing multinational strategies and thereby creating universities for a globalized world, and the third threat is from MOOCs. These threats, plus the economic situation in Australia, have diminished Australian universities' global competitiveness in the international student market. American universities that have international branch campuses are considering transferring the branch campus model into fully fledged multinational universities "by slicing up the global value chain in ways akin to multinational corporations" (Gallaher & Garrett, 2012, p. 10). Multinational universities would do this by moving the value chain around the world via a complex system of supply and distribution of higher education and research. This may mean using developing countries to do research because it is cheaper to hire researchers of similar quality to the home institution and build infrastructures. Another means may be by designing in-country degrees that meet market demands, rather than having a standardized degree. Therefore, the motivations of multinational universities to do this would be efficiency motivation and resources motivation, respectively (Dunning, 1988; Guimón 2016). Gallaher and Garrett (2012) recommend that for Australian universities to stay internationally competitive, they should pursue opportunities in China by targeting mid-tier cities that have established universities and are expected to grow.

Shams and Huisman (2012) look at motivations to create an IBC via financial, reputational, and academic goals. They use the OLI paradigm (Dunning, 1980) to help explain the reasons for cross-border activities by higher education institutions. When applied to education, institutions that have strong academic profiles, prestigious brand names, and a high level of embeddedness in their home country have a potential to move into a foreign market (ownership advantages). Location-specific factors may be the ability to offer cheaper services in profitable markets like Singapore and Malaysia. Internalization presents advantages for HEIs since they may avoid tensions that exist in partnership models, such as licensing or joint ventures, by creating a branch campus. Shams and Huisman (2012) state that success of an IBC is the strategic management of resource transfer and implementation from the home institution and identify the curriculum, staff, and research potentials as the core resources.

The main managerial challenges, according to the researchers, is that there is a dilemma of standardization versus local adaption caused by institutional distances (regulatory, normative, and cultural) and between the home and host countries. There are two sets of forces impose in an IBC. One set is the need to provide an identical learning experience, keeping quality standards, and protecting the reputation that pushes a HEI towards standardization. On the other hand, there is a need to conform to the host country's regulatory requirements and adapt to local norms and cultural values (Shams & Huisman, 2012).

Shams and Huisman (2012) take from Prahalad and Doz's (1987) global integration versus local responsive tradeoff and apply it to the structure of IBCs. They argue that by looking at the tradeoff between curriculum, staffing and research at an IBC, one can say what type of subsidiary it is based on the Jarillo and Martinez (1990), and Taggart (1998) typology. They suggest if the curriculum and the staff are sent from the home institution, the IBC is receptive. If the staff of the IBC is recruited locally and the curriculum adapted, then the IBC would be more autonomous. Figure 10 shows their proposed model to analyze IBCs:

Figure 10. The Shams and Huisman (2012) model to analyze IBCs



Source: Adapted from Shams and Huisman (2012, p. 120)

The closer the X, Y, and Z axes (curriculum, research, and staffing respectively) are to 0, the more globally integrated the IBCs is. The researchers note that the framework is flexible, can be expanded, and that it needs further testing (Shams & Huisman, 2012).

Wilkins and Huisman (2014) question to what extent does a consumer's image of the home institution and its branch campuses influence their overall perceptions of a branch campus

attractiveness. They look at how the images of an institution and its branches held by other stakeholders influence the consumer buying behavior.

Firms may achieve a competitive advantage when expanding abroad by exploiting their brands and reputations, or ownership advantages (Dunning, 1980). Well-known universities possess strong brands and reputations and potential consumers (students) and other stakeholders (parents, employers, organizations) can recognize this. Items like campus architecture and location, as well as its age are part of a university's corporate identity (Melewar & Storrie, 2001). Position in rankings greatly influences the reputation of universities. Reputation encompasses an organization's set of qualities and traits that stem from its historical deeds, the assessment of its performance, and the perceptions held by stakeholders, all cultivated through a process of legitimization (Amado Mateus & Juarez Acosta, 2022). However, these ranking positions are often relatively stable, suggesting that it is harder for lower-ranked institutions to move up in the standings. (Wilkins & Huisman, 2011). Media coverage and personal recommendations, particularly from friends and family, can also have an impact on the consumer (Wilkins & Huisman, 2014).

Wilkins and Huisman (2014) surveyed students at international schools in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) and asked them to which extent they believe their overall impressions of foreign branch campuses operating in the United Arab Emirates were influenced by the features of the home and UAE campuses. Their results showed that consumers will judge the branch campus based upon the merits of the home institution, rather than the quality of the branch campus itself. However, it does not influence their buying behavior. Stakeholders' opinions of the branch campus show more influence on the buying behavior of the individual. The researchers suggest that consumers value other stakeholders' opinions; hence consumer choices are affected by their perceptions of other stakeholders' organizational (or product) images. Consumers might act in this way so that they can receive recognition when people important in their lives acknowledge that they made the "right" purchase decisions. As a result, they will gain respect and satisfy their personal esteem needs. The researchers conclude that MNCs (and HEIs) cannot rely only on their ownership advantages of strong corporate brands and successful operations in their home countries to acquire positive perceptions of their foreign operations among potential consumers abroad.

In summary, the literature shows that the main motivation of HEIs to create IBCs is market seeking as they appear to be used as an additional source of revenue and to increase the institution's prestige and reputation. The main location advantages in the choice of where to create an IBC is influenced by the market potential and privileges granted by the host country. By entering a market via an IBC, institutions can diminish the conflicts that can occur with joint

ventures and franchises, as well as provide better quality assurance for its programs thus reinforcing their internalization advantages. (e.g., Guimón, 2016, Lane & Kinser, 2011; Wilkins & Huisman, 2014).

2.2.2 Implementation in the Host Country

Once a HEI has made the choice to create an IBC, several studies examine how to do so. These will be discussed in the next few paragraphs.

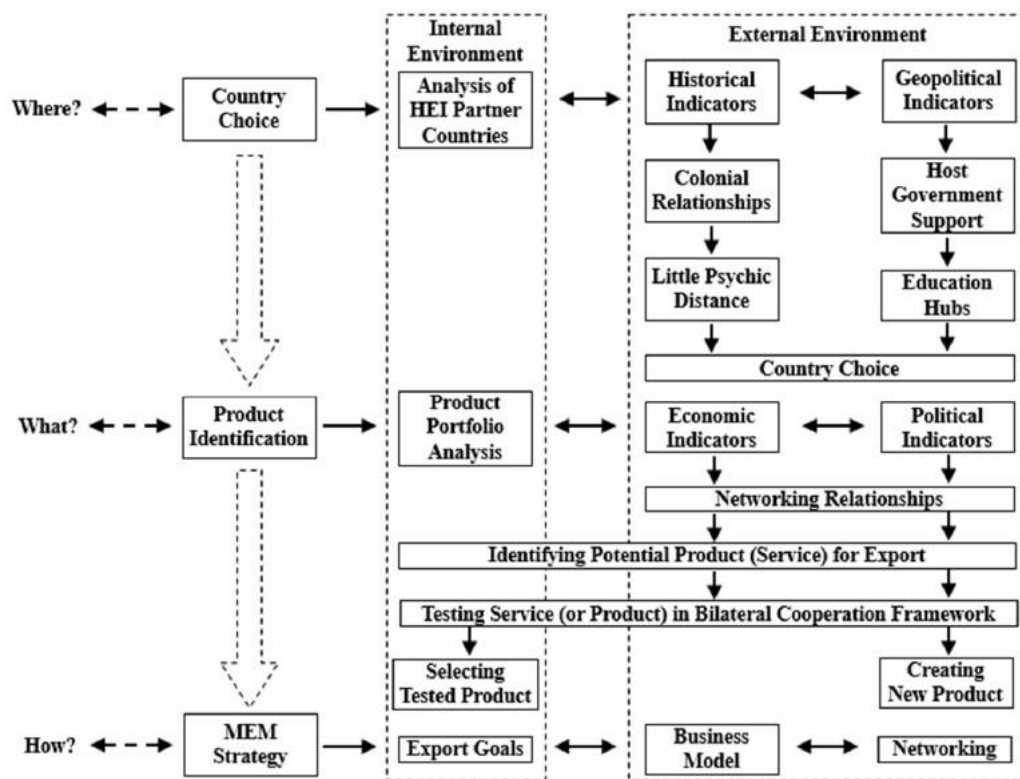
Healey and Bordogna (2014) explain that the creation of an IBC is the market entry mode equivalent of FDI (see Figure 2.1). With multinational education, the center of gravity is moving away from the home university. They argue that if an arrangement under which a university in Country A provides an educational qualification to a student in Country B, it ceases to be transitional when the degree is no longer awarded by the home university. This happens when the local partner (whether an IBC, franchise, or validation) is recognized by its Ministry of Education as having the right to award its own degrees. In Malaysia, a few former U.K. and Australian franchises are now degree-warding universities. Sunway University, Taylor's University and KBU International College are examples of this transition.

The researchers end by arguing that as universities move from transnational to multinational, the university stakeholders should go from being mononational to becoming multinational. The stakeholders include owners, managers, employees, students, regulators, government, and employees. Following the trend in global business, as HEIs become increasingly multinational, managerial decision-making processes and stakeholder interest will become more complex (Healey & Bordogna, 2014).

Girdzijauskaitė et al. (2019a) investigate ways of creating and managing IBCs as an entry into the foreign education market. They state that where business and HEI behavior most resembles each other is in the internationalization of their activities, including the selection and priority of foreign market entry mode. The factors that determine the entry mode choice include the various levels of control, resource commitment, and risk. (Anderson & Gatignon, 1986; Blomstermo et al., 2006; Goi, 2016; Madichie & Kolo, 2013). The researchers analyzed IBCs from HEIs in the United States, the United Kingdom, Sweden, Malaysia, Australia, and Estonia, and implanting in Australia, Singapore, Qatar, Russia, Finland, Vietnam, and Cambodia. The market entry modes included fully owned subsidiaries, strategic alliances, and joint ventures with a partner in the host country. According to their findings, the most important factors for establishing an IBC is brand development and government support. An IBC as an entry mode on certain markets appears to be more about brand positioning, rather than increasing the income of HEIs.

Girdzijauskaitė et al. (2019b) recognize that universities are often compared to multinational corporations and that there is a lack of academic knowledge concerning IBCs as is still a relatively new phenomenon. The researchers review several international business theories and models that can be applied to the internationalization of higher education (e.g., OLI paradigm). Drawing from their literature review, the authors propose a three-stage decision model for establishing an IBC. The framework consists of three horizontal blocks: country choice, product identification and market entry mode strategy. Figure 11 outlines the decision model.

Figure 11. A decision model for establishing an IBC



Source: Girdzijauskaitė et al. (2019b, p. 441)

For the first block, country choice, HEIs should take in account their existing partner countries. Successful relationships with partners provide valuable information of a foreign market in identifying the needs for product choices. In the second block, a current portfolio analysis is done to identify what programs could be exported to the host country. The third block deals with the implementation mode and the managerial decisions such as the staffing policy and work organization. The researchers suggest that HEIs could apply this model to better develop their international strategies, especially for the establishment of an IBC (Girdzijauskaitė et al., 2019b).

Villó Sirerol et al. (2021) review the rise of IBCs in Europe with a focus on the Spanish market. Only one Spanish institution operates IBCs. IESE Business School, part of the University of Navarra, has three campuses abroad (though only two are listed by C-BERT). All of the IBCs appear to focus on executive training. The São Paulo campus opened in 2000 in association with ISE Business School, its local partner. The New York campus opened in 2007 and offers short-term program in global business management. The Munich campus was inaugurated in 2015 with several program that are geared towards executive education and custom programs for MNCs (IESE, 2023).

Regarding the creation of IBCs in Spain, only five foreign institutions have done so (three American and two French). Berklee College of Music opened its campus in Valencia in 2011 and offers nine programs aimed at the Valencian market. However, it does offer five short courses for first year students from the home institution in Boston that want to spend a year abroad. Saint Louis University (SLU) first entered the market in the 1960s through a joint program with the Universidad Pontificia de Comillas before establishing itself as a university in 1967 (SLU-Madrid, 2023). It currently offers 16 fully accredited undergraduate and two graduate degrees that can be completed entirely in Madrid. Schiller International University opened a campus in 1967 and has nine programs. All schools deliver their programs in English (Villó Sirerol et al., 2021).

Ecole de Supérieure de Commerce de Paris (ESCP) launched its campus in Madrid in 1988 and offers 11 business programs that are taught in French or English, with some courses in Spanish and German. Toulouse Business School (TBS) has a campus in Barcelona which it acquired when it took control of la Escuela Superior Europea de Comercio (ESEC) in 2004 (though it helped create ESEC in conjunction with the Barcelona French Chamber of Commerce and Industry in 1995 [TBS, 2023]). TBS' various bachelor's and master's degree programs are taught in English and Spanish (Villó Sirerol et al., 2021).

Villó Sirerol et al. (2021) show that the market entry mode into Spain is a mix of partnership and greenfield investments. Despite the low presence of IBC in Spain, they suggest that the country could become a transnational university hub.

In brief, the global arena for education is complex and institutions may make the choice to go abroad more for reputation and brand positioning (ownership advantages) than for financial gains. HEIs may choose host countries based on previous experience with local partner intuitions (location advantages) and enter via an alliance with a local education provider or as a wholly-owned IBC (internalization advantages). The programs offered will vary, but all will be taught in English though some classes may be proposed in another language (Girdzijauskaitė et al., 2019a, 201b; Healey & Bordogna, 2014; Villó Sirerol et al., 2021).

2.2.3 Adaptation by Established IBCs

The level of local adaptation versus global integration is an important aspect of IBC organization (Shams & Huisman, 2012) and can influence the relationship with the home institution. A number of articles explore issue and are discussed in the following paragraphs.

Edwards et al. (2014) note that the organization structure of IBCs is aligned with the subsidiaries of multinational corporations. Based upon Bartlett and Ghoshal's (1989) model of MNCs and their degree of local adaptation versus global integration, the authors develop a framework for IBCs based on four types of campuses: *the multidomestic branch campus*, *the international branch campus*, *the global branch campus*, and *the transnational branch campus*. These four campuses are in line with the autonomous strategy, quiescent strategy, receptive strategy, and active strategy of subsidiaries, respectively (Jarillo & Martinez, 1990; Taggart, 1998).

The *multidomestic branch campus* has high pressure of local responsiveness and low pressure for integration. Each branch is focused on the local context and has few connections with the home institution. The strategy is similar to Perlmutter's (1969) polycentric firm. Knowledge is developed, utilized, and retained within each unit and the majority of the staff is locally hired. Academics at each campus have considerable autonomy. However, the researchers did not find an example of this type of branch campus (Edwards et al., 2014).

The *international branch campus* is one where the pressure for integration and for local responsiveness are weak. The parent institution knowledge and experience are developed at home, then transferred to the branch campus. The home institution has a clear hierarchy and the branch campus is expected to take a lesser role. Academics at the branch have a teaching role only, where research is limited to the home campus. Staff members may fly in from the parent institution for short periods of time and the experience at the branch is structured to be like that of the home campus. Curtin University of Technology Malaysia is an example of this type of IBC as all academic content and intellectual property are provided by the home institution in Australia. Also, assessment and moderation are controlled strictly by the parent university. The researchers state that this arrangement aligns with MNCs that conduct all their research and development at the headquarters. (Edwards et al., 2014).

The *global branch campus* approach is producing standardized products with a centralized strategy. There are strong pressures for global integration and weak pressures for local responsiveness. The role of the campus is to implement the institute's strategy and decisions. Typically, this strategy involves an HEI that has more than one IBC. Local operations often look alike and are commonly simplified versions of the home institution. Staff from the home campus will usually be assigned leadership positions at the branch and the types of exams and the branding will be the same at all branches. A campus of this type is not likely to see itself as

institution of the host country, but it will be expected to comply with the local laws and policies. For example, IBCs in Malaysia are required to teach Islamic Studies to Muslims or Ethics to non-Muslims. (Edwards et al., 2014). ESMOD, a French fashion design school, is an institution that uses this type of campus strategy for their 13 IBCs (Cross-Border Education Research Team, 2023).

The *transnational branch campus* has strong pressures from both global integration and local responsiveness. There is a flexibility to adapt to local markets without losing sight of the goals of the parent institution. A *transnational branch campus* is likely to be a multicentered with both the parent and the branch campuses having leadership in different areas of teaching and research. The home institution may not even use the term “branch campus”, but the home campus as simply one that is part of the campus network. The researchers note that University of Nottingham in the United Kingdom, Malaysia, and China uses this type of branch campuses (Edwards et al., 2014).

In essence, institutions choose their branch campus organization based on their priorities in relation to centralized control, as opposed to local autonomy and control (Edwards et al., 2014). Figure 12 highlights the different IBCs organizational structures.

Figure 12. Organization structure of IBCs aligned with subsidiaries of MNCs

		Global Integration	
		Weak	Strong
Local Adaptation	Strong	The Multidomestic Branch Campus <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Few connections with parent • Focused on its local context • Lots of autonomy 	The Transnational Branch Campus <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Flexibility to adapt to local market • Parent & offshore campuses may have leadership in different areas of research and teaching
	Weak	The International Branch Campus <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Knowledge & expertise transferred from the parent • Appendage of the institution • Experience is structured to be the same as the home institution 	The Global Branch Campus <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Role is to implement parent company's strategy & decisions • Common exams, branding, and student records expected

Source: Adapted from Edwards et al. (2014, pp. 184-186)

Institutions may start with one strategy and transition to a different one. Bartlett and Ghoshal (1989) found several international companies that moved from one strategy to a transnational one over time as the environment changed. As that happens, the subsidiaries may take on more

responsibility and secure a specialist role on behalf of the whole MNC, but it does not necessary depend on the headquarters confirming these roles (Birkinshaw & Hood, 1998). As the relationship changes, it is difficult for the headquarters to remain in control of their subsidiaries and to influence their strategies (Doz & Prahalad, 1991). Ghoshal and Nohria (1989) view the headquarter-subsidiary relationship as complex interorganizational network (what they termed a “mixed motive dyad”) where the perceptions and interest of the two parties are often not aligned. Conflict arises when higher levels of headquarter control leads to lower levels of cooperation between headquarters and the subsidiary (Birkinshaw et al., 2000).

In relation to higher education, the potential for conflict between the home campus and their branches may emerge even if the latter is dependent on the former for the curriculum and program delivery. Smith (2009) found that an Australian campus in the United Arab Emirates faced conflict during the initial stage due to a lack of clarity of the academic’s role on both campuses, as well as the quality assurance process. Shams and Huisman (2012) posit that because the branch campus is often perceived as a means of delivery by the home institution, conflict arises between the standardization of the curriculum versus academic freedom of the branch campus. Edwards et al (2014) suggest that home institutions need to allow branch campus leadership to participate in the institution’s strategic decision process to limit the conflict.

Salt and Wood (2014) compare U.K. universities and MNCs by looking at staffing issues confronting U.K. IBCs. As the labor market in the United Kingdom becomes more multinational, U.K. universities may need to acquire some of the staff mobility characteristics of commercial MNCs. The researchers state the university experience of staff mobility is likely to be closest to that of a knowledge-intensive service firm, since its product is knowledge rather than a material good and provides clients fee-based services. Like a knowledge-intensive service firm, their international reputation depends on how effectively they move expert staff to deliver their services. There is an initial reliance on expatriates in new market areas that must quickly be complemented by local knowledge.

The researchers address two main questions – How far are U.K. universities becoming like MNCs with respect to international staffing; and are there lessons for universities from the experience of MNCs – by using two previous detailed surveys of the international recruit and staff mobility policies of MNCs. They conclude that there is no single template of international human resource development for neither MNCs nor universities, but that the experience of the former provides some pointers for the future human resource requirements of university overseas campus development (Salt & Wood, 2014).

U.K. universities are to a limited extent becoming like an MNC in terms of staffing but they lack the infrastructure, also universities have different approaches to career development than MNCs.

How medium to long term human resources implications on IBCs need to be managed is a lesson taken from MNC experience (Salt & Wood, 2014).

Healey (2018) discusses the I-R framework developed by Prahalad and Doz (1987) and its application to IBCs outlined by Shams and Huisman (2012). There are parallels between the challenges faced by MNC foreign subsidiaries and international branch campuses. The greater extent the offering of the IBC is aligned with that of the home institution, the more the institution can gain economies of scale, while minimizing the cost of quality assurance. This may be considered an efficiency seeking motivation (Dunning, 1988; Guimón, 2016). Healey (2018) takes the three variables – faculty, curriculum, and research - from the Shams and Huisman model (2012) and argues that the localization of these variables will depend on the objectives and relative power of the main stakeholders.

An IBC that chooses a low degree of localization has the benefit of being associated with the home academic culture including its academic reputation and qualifications. However, the low degree has an impact on the costs of the offering which may be too expensive for local students, especially when compared to competitors, and provides a syllabus that is not adapted to the need of the students or does research that is unrelated to the needs of the county (Healey 2018). Table 2.5 provides a summary of the localization tradeoff.

Table 15. I-R tradeoff for IBCs

Low Localization	Degree of Localization	High Local Localization
Academic culture	<i>Faculty</i>	Local affordability
Academic equivalence	<i>Curriculum</i>	Local relevance
Academic reputation	<i>Research</i>	Local impact

Source: Adapted from Healey (2018, p. 633)

The research focused on nine IBCs from nine UK universities located in China, Malaysia, and the United Arab Emirates. The results identified five key stakeholders: The home university, the joint venture partner, the host government, competitors, and students (Healey, 2018).

The localization tradeoff varied depending on the variable. For the localization of faculty, there seems to be a significant degree of localization to satisfy all stakeholders. Healey (2018) suggests that the optional degree may be the lowest point which still satisfies that students have a U.K. experience and assures the home institution that it still controls the IBC. For the curriculum, none of the stakeholders have a preference that would move it out of alignment with the home university. The degree of localization for research, however, seems to be mixed. The host country would like research to focus on local issues, but joint venture partners have little interest

in research because it raises operating costs, and the home institution wants research to have an international scope.

He and Wilkins (2018) address two gaps in the IBC literature: the influence of institutional forces on IBC decision making and the mechanism for building legitimacy of IBCs. The researchers explore institutional influences and the notion of legitimacy at three Chinese international branch campuses in Southeast Asia. They find that legitimacy is established through three modes: legitimacy conformity, selective legitimacy conformity/nonconformity, and legitimacy creation.

Suchman, (1995) defines legitimacy as “a generalized perception or assumption that the actions of an entity are desirable, proper, or appropriate within some socially constructed system of norms, values, beliefs and definitions” (p. 575). Universities must achieve legitimacy in home and host countries if an IBC is to be successful (Wilkins, 2016). When a subsidiary of an MNC has a high dependence on local resources, there will be a greater pressure to adapt locally to achieve legitimacy (Yildiz & Fey, 2012). However, if institutional forces are not strong, the subsidiary will find alternative routes to achieve legitimacy. This will result in different strategies to build legitimacy in the host country and to overcome the liability of foreignness. The researchers note that MNCs and IBCs face two competing pressures of being globally integrated and responding to the local environment (Edwards et al., 2014). Shames and Huisman’s (2012) adaption of the I-R paradigm is referred to by the authors in addressing these pressures. However, the researchers also refer to Wilkins and Huisman’s (2014) adapted framework that looks at institutional influences in the home and host countries in the context of IBCs (He & Wilkins, 2018).

He and Wilkins (2018) did a qualitative study of three Chinese IBCs – Soochow University in Laos, Bangkok Business School in Thailand, and Xiamen University Malaysia Campus – to investigate the differences in institutional influences on the campuses. The results are listed in Table 16, if the institutional force was present, it is represented by a “+”, if not then a “-”.

Table 16. The institutional influences of three IBCs

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

Source: Adapted from He and Wilkins (2018, p. 192)

The researchers find that the strength of institutional forces of the host country, as well as levels of dependency on local resources will lead to different types of legitimacy building strategies. The three strategies are: legitimacy conformity, selective legitimacy conformity/nonconformity, and legitimacy creation. Legitimacy conformity is high dependence on local resources and strong institutional forces, selective legitimacy conformity/nonconformity is high dependence on local resources and weak institutional forces (or the inverse), and legitimacy creation is low dependence on local resources and weak institutional forces. These legitimacy strategies apply to Xiamen University Malaysia campus, Bangkok Business School, and Soochow University in Laos, respectively.

Jing et al. (2020) apply the I-R framework proposed by Shams and Huisman (2012) and Healey (2018) to do an in-depth case study of McGill University – Japan. The site only offers the MBA Japan (MBAJ), a weekend-based professional curriculum established by McGill University in Tokyo in 1998. McGill University - Japan is a wholly owned subsidiary of McGill University's Desautels Faculty of Management and admits around 30 students every year. After two years of study, students can obtain the same qualification as the students graduating from the home university in Montreal.

The results show that the McGill University - Japan has maintained a high degree of global integration with the home institution in Montreal in terms of staffing and curriculum, but like many other IBCs, it does not emphasize the importance of research in the offshore operation. Two

factors explain the lack of localized research for the MBAJ. First, since it is a program geared towards working professionals, students have more interest in acquiring knowledge and skills that they can apply to their job. Secondly, Desautels believes the program should prioritize teaching to meet students' learning objectives (Jing et al., 2020).

Wilkins and Huisman (2021) explore how late entry HEIs adapt their positioning and differentiating strategies for their IBCs and their business programs in the United Arab Emirates to gain a competitive advantage. They identify eight themes as depicted on the branch campus' websites (English version): education quality, institution reputation, student experience, career preparation, campus facilities, learning environment, institution size, network and experience, and subject specialisms. The two leading themes were education quality and institutional reputation. The IBCs put strong emphasis on accreditation, position in the rankings, history and heritage, and the global industry experience of its lecturers. Their findings show that institutions will mimic the communication strategy of other local campuses to address the liability of newness and the liability of foreignness. Most institutions discuss their stability and ability to deliver high quality programs to completion due to their size and experience or due to their financially-strong UAE partners. The researchers find focusing on a targeted market segment is the most effective differentiation strategy. In essence, late-comer IBCs in the United Arab Emirates position themselves in the same way but differentiate themselves by pursuing different target markets.

Hickey and Davies (2022) aim to identify key characteristics of successful IBCs and to establish a conceptual framework based upon a systematic literature review on IBCs, but with a focus on British IBCs. Their literature concerning motivations of HEIs in creating IBCs is consistent with other studies that the revenue of an IBC is important, but also that they are created to improve the HEI's international profile and the brand of the institution (Wilkins & Huisman, 2012). Choosing of an IBC over other forms of higher education internationalization is linked to the notion of control, both in terms of quality assurance and brand protection, and may be viewed as internalization advantages (Dunning, 1980; Healey, 2018).

At the end of 2020, there were 45 U.K.-led IBCs open. The largest and most established were Xian Jiotong Liverpool University, the University of Nottingham in China and Malaysia, Heriot Watt University in Dubai and Malaysia, and Middlesex University in Dubai, Mauritius, and Malta (Bennell, 2020; Cross Border Education Research Team, 2023) After studying these cases, the authors outline five factors that leads towards a conceptual framework for institutions contemplating the creation of an IBCs: strategic factors, leadership factors, academic factors, financial factors, and operational factors (Hickey & Davies, 2022).

There appears to be a link between the success of an IBC and its integration within the institutional strategy of the sending institution. The presence of IBCs is a prominent feature of both the University of Nottingham and Heriot Watt University's strategies. The IBCs are not seen as different or of lesser importance than the home campus. Research also suggests that the stronger understanding of that a home institution has of the political and regulatory environment of IBC host countries, the less susceptible the venture is to risk and failure (Healey, 2018).

For leadership factors, institutions that wish to create IBCs need senior managers who can balance home and country requirements and who can deal with the challenges of working across borders. Institutional leaders also need to take a positive approach to managing the different stakeholders associated with the IBCs. This includes, but not limited to, students and staff, parents, host governments, and local businesses (Hickey & Davies, 2022).

The main item for academic factors is the balance in the I-R tradeoff as discussed by Shams and Huisman (2012) and Healey (2018). Wider student experience outside of teaching and learning may be a key element in the success of an IBC (e.g. social life, recreation, etc.). For the financial factors, it is known that IBCs require significant financial and organizational investment for the home institution and that there is no guarantee of success. Having a sustainable business model and having strong relationships with local stakeholders seems to be a key. For the operational factors, it appears to be similar to the academic ones: there needs to be a proper balance between relying on the home institution for administration and supporting activities and the ability to recruit and manage locally (Hickey & Davies, 2022). Table 17 outlines the researchers' framework for establishing a successful IBC.

Table 17. Hickey and Davies' (2022) framework for establishing an IBC

	Lower Chance of Success	Higher Chance of Success
<i>Strategic</i>	Standalone 'project' separate from the university strategy	Integrated with the home campus strategy
	No knowledge of interest in political or regulatory framework in the host country	Strong understanding of political and regulatory landscape in the host country
	Complete dependence on, OR no engagement with, the host country government or third parties	An appropriate level of support from the host country government or third parties
	Quick decisions to develop an IBC based on circumstances	Careful consideration of all market entry models, including other forms of TNE
<i>Leadership</i>	No previous IBC/TNE knowledge in the university or IBC leadership	Previous experience of IBC/TNE in the university or IBC leadership
	Limited or narrow stakeholder management focus	Significant focus on internal and external stakeholder management
	IBC governance dominated by the home campus	Local representation with an IBC governance regime
<i>Academic</i>	Exclusive focus on teaching	Rounded approach with a focus on teaching, research, and the student experience
	Program content and pedagogy dominated by either the home campus OR the local context	Program content and pedagogy influenced by both the home campus AND the local context
	Narrow academic offer, at one level in limited subject areas	Programs offered at a range of levels and disciplines
<i>Financial</i>	Requirement for short term on investment	Long term financial return horizons
	Financial returns the dominant factor in establishing the IBC	Financial returns one of the many reasons for establishing the IBC
<i>Operational</i>	Reliance on the home campus staff beyond the initial set-up period	Intention to source some staff locally
	Supporting services provided exclusively by the home campus OR locally	Appropriate balance between the home campus integration and the local provision of some services

Source: Adapted from Hickey and Davies (2022, p. 8)

In summary, IBCs face the tradeoff between global integration and local responsiveness once they become implanted in a host country. Edwards et al. (2014) outlines four types of campuses that correlate to the degree of this tradeoff: *the multidomestic branch campus, transnational*

branch campus, the international branch campus, and the global branch campus. Campus organization is based on the home institution's priorities regarding centralized control, as opposed to local autonomy and control. Researchers suggest that this arrangement focuses on staff, curriculum, and research (Healey, 2018; Shams and Huisman, 2012). Studies show that of the three, research is the less locally responsive (Healey, 2018; Jing et al., 2020). IBCs will also mimic the positioning of other local competitors in order to overcome liabilities issues in the host country but may focus on separate target markets (Wilkin & Huisman, 2021). Finally, Hickey and Davies (2022) provide a framework that addresses five factors that may lead to the successful implantation of an IBC.

Current and Future IBC development

Lastly, Wilkins (2021) provides an IBC development review from the years 2000 to 2020. The purpose of his review is to what extent, based on published research and data, are the objectives, needs, and expectations of IBCs stakeholders being satisfied. He defines the stakeholders as HEIs, students, and host governments. He states that the creation of IBCs has slowed, but several are planned for the early 2020s indicating that this form of transnational education remains attractive for many institutions. Wilkins notes that research on IBCs comes in many different areas including institutional strategy, national education policy, teaching and learning, managerial and staffing issues, and quality assurance. He recognizes that the most comprehensive literature review to date is the one published by Escriva-Beltran et al. in 2019. However, he also argues that a lot of research on IBCs is provided in grey literature, such as reports published by government and regulatory bodies in home and host countries. His review builds upon Escriva-Beltran et al.'s work (2019) by using diverse sources in the grey literature, as well as scholarly journals.

Concerning institution objectives, earning profit was the most common motive for HEIs that established IBCs before 2010. However, since then the motives appear to be driven more by prestige and developing a global brand than increasing revenue (He & Wilkins, 2018). As a result, most institutions now budget between five to 10 years to reach a break-even point, and therefore realize that losses in the short term can be substantial. Student experience and satisfaction at IBCs appears to be relatively high when it comes to program content and interaction with professors and other students, even if quality assurance is one of the key challenges for IBCs (Healey, 2015). Most transnational higher education hubs, such as Dubai, Malaysia, Qatar, and Singapore now have well-developed quality assurance agencies that are run by the state. It should be noted that these hubs usually receive funding from the host

country, so it makes sense that there is a greater importance placed on quality assurance (Wilkins, 2021).

It is difficult to generalize about IBCs as they have diverse objectives, ownership structures, modes of operations, and access to financial resources, also because HEIs rarely publish objectives related to their IBCs in the public domain. Finally, Wilkins (2021) addresses that many institution leaders claim that IBC ownership enhances the institution's global status and reputation. He concludes that the higher education market is complex and unpredictable, but new IBCs will emerge in the years to come.

2.2.1 Higher Education Institutions as Professional Service Firms

Institutions of higher education may be classified as professional service firms (PSFs) (Lovelock & Gummesson, 2004; von Nordenflycht, 2010). There is a need to better understand the internationalization of HEIs as service firms (Javalgi et al., 2009). However, existing empirical literature on market entry strategies of educational services is scarce (Czinkota et al., 2019; Lovelock & Gummesson, 2004).

Czinkota et al. (2009) assert that U.S. business schools are service firms when researching the internationalization of institutional MBA programs. The authors conclude that business schools, regardless of size or ranking, are opting for foreign direct investment in nations with greater market potential and are increasingly favoring a higher investment mode over alternative entry methods. When business schools identify a potential market, their decision to pursue either a joint venture or establish a wholly owned subsidiary may enhance the prospects of long-term success in the international market. This is especially true for institutions that have a differentiated product, the necessary international experience, and the motivation to go abroad as perceived by the school's management.

Thomas et al. (2014) analyze business schools through the PSF lens to highlight management and leadership issues facing school administration. The researchers studied five institutions located in Europe and South America. They identify six organizational features and challenges: individual professionals, professional competencies, shared power, intangibility, standardization/customization, and trust. Individual professionals need to have certain autonomy to define problems and find solutions (which are sometimes customized ones) based on their professional competencies. Since they are often experts in their domain, individual professionals may easily transfer their intangible knowledge to another firm, therefore giving them strong bargaining power with management. There is a mutual trust that the professional individual will uphold the reputation, appearance, and the ethical code of the firm in exchange

for financial rewards or other incentives from the administration. They conclude that the main characteristics and challenges of business schools tend to follow those of PSFs. Business school deans must attract, manage, and retain the best academics; enhance the standing of the institution via rankings, accreditations, and other signs of quality; as well create conditions of informality and autonomy among faculty which is “consistent with the expectations of a professionalized workforce” (Thomas et al., 2014, p. 227).

Javalgi and Grossman (2014) also contend that higher education institutions are in the service business and focus their research on the internationalization of U.S. MBA programs. The authors state that, since the U.S. MBA programs face saturation on the domestic market, there is a greater need for schools to expand abroad to sustain growth. They find that the most important variables for internationalization are management attitudes towards going abroad, international teaching experience of the business school faculty, and foreign market attractiveness. However, school size and accreditation did not influence the choice to enter a new market.

Though these studies contribute to the empirical evidence of HEIs as PSFs, they are limited in scope due to their focus on U.S. institutions. Czinkota et al. (2009) call for more research to better understand the internationalization of education services based in other countries. With the rise of PSFs in the global arena, organizations such as business schools provide opportunities for theoretical and empirical research that should be explored (Javalgi & Grossman, 2014).

Conclusion for Chapter 2

The review of the literature on the globalization of higher education institutions through the creation of international branch campuses highlights the significant relevance of this topic within the realm of international management. While extensive research has been conducted on IBCs, it's worth noting that much of it has been approached from an educational perspective, rather than from an international business one. This gap in the literature presents a compelling opportunity to explore the multifaceted dimensions of IBCs within the context of international business operations. Moreover, empirical research on this subject remains relatively scarce (Escriva-Beltran et al., 2019).

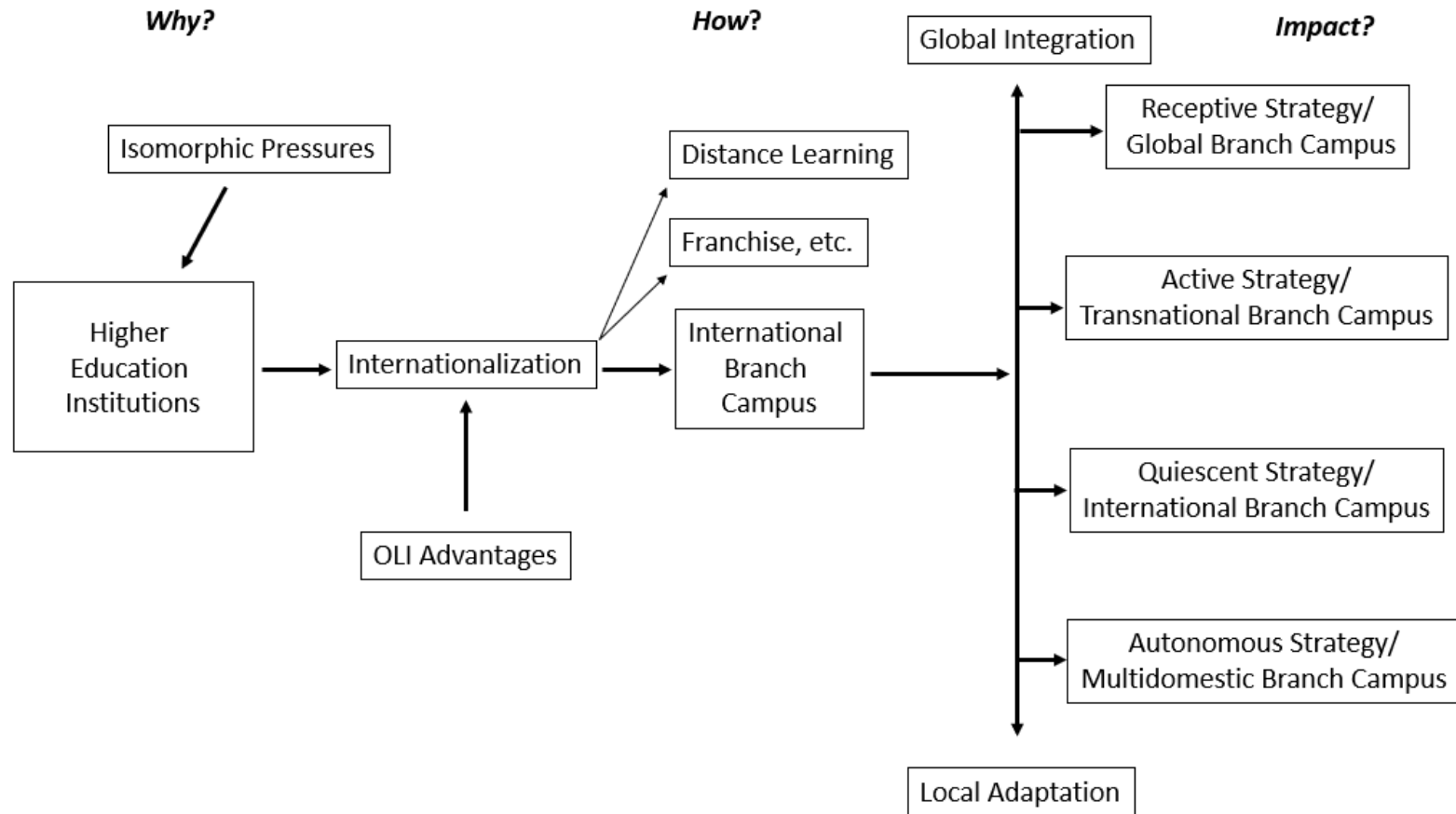
International branch campuses are the last stage in transnational education and hold great risk, both financial and reputational, for the home institution (Healey, 2015). Despite this, there are more than 300 IBCs around the world and growth is expected to continue (Cross Border Research Team, 2023; Wilkins, 2021). IBCs are often compared to foreign subsidiaries of multinational corporations (Girdzijauskaite & Radzeviciene, 2014; Healey, 2015; Lane & Kinser, 2011; Shams & Huisman, 2012), but more studies from an international business perspective are needed (Escriva-Beltran et al., 2019).

Within the existing body of literature, several prominent theories and frameworks have been employed to examine the phenomenon of IBCs. Among these, two stand out as particularly influential: the OLI paradigm (Dunning, 1980) and the I-R framework (Prahalad & Doz, 1987; Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989). These concepts delve into the decision-making processes behind the establishment of IBCs, including why institutions opt for this approach over other forms of transnational education and how seamlessly they integrate these campuses within their home institutions. Additionally, the concept of institutional isomorphism has gained traction, shedding light on the various pressures and forces that educational institutions encounter as they strive to internationalize.

Adding another perspective, higher education institutions have been likened to professional service firms, as exemplified by the studies of Czinkota et al. (2009), von Nordenflycht (2010), Thomas et al. (2013), and Javalgi and Grossman (2014). This lens provides a unique angle to understand the strategic management and operational intricacies involved in running IBCs and other international initiatives within the context of higher education. Empirical evidence on HEIs as PSFs is limited and there is a need for more research on the subject (Czinkota et al., 2009; Javalgi & Grossman, 2014).

In the next chapter, we explain our methodological choices that will allow us to explore this topic more.

Figure 13. Conceptual Framework



PART 2. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND PRESENTATION OF THE EMPIRICAL STUDY

Introduction to Part 2

Part 1 was devoted to the literature review with the analysis of existing research on the subject of interest and the recognition for a greater focus on international branch campuses in the context of international business research. Based on our examination, we identified several research questions. Part 2 of our dissertation outlines the research methodology and the profiles of the five organizations used in our study. In Chapter 3, we present our epistemological stance, substantiate our choice of case study methodology, and clarify our strategy for data collection and analysis. Chapter 4 provides organizational details of the case institutions, as well as the development of their international branch campuses. Table 3 outlines the research design and the basic structure for Part 2.

Table 3.0 The research design and case presentation framework

Chapter 3. Research Methodology	3.1 Qualitative Research Case study research design	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The research paradigm • Interpretivist epistemological orientation • Multiple case study design <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Exploratory case study (five interviews) ○ Multiple case study (EM Normandie, ESCP, ESSCA, OMNES Education, Epsilon Business School, 33 interviews) ○ Three interviews with higher education experts • Focus on schools that are members of the <i>Conférence des Grandes Ecoles</i> and have international branch campuses
	3.2 Data Collection and Analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Purposeful sampling for case selection • Semi-structured interviews with the home campus and the branch campus' management • Secondary data • Content analysis with NVivo • Development of single cases • Cross-case analysis
Chapter 4. Study Context and Case Presentations	4.1 French Higher Education and International Accreditations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Overview of French Higher Education • AACSB, EQUIS, and AMBA
	4.2 Presentation of the Case Studies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • EM Normandie, ESCP, ESSCA, OMNES Education, Epsilon Business School

CHAPTER 3. Research Methodology

The purpose of this chapter is to present the research paradigm supporting our research as well as to introduce the research strategy and empirical techniques applied. First, we will explain the research paradigm. Then, we will discuss the epistemological positioning and methodology of our study. Finally, we will describe our data collection and data analysis procedures.

3.1 Qualitative Research

In this section, we present the epistemological stance shaping our research and outline the methodological approach employed for gathering and analyzing the empirical data.

3.1.1 The Research Paradigm

According to Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999), the research process has three major dimensions: ontology, epistemology, and methodology. For the authors, the research paradigm is a system of interrelated practices and thinking that defines the nature of inquiry along these three elements.

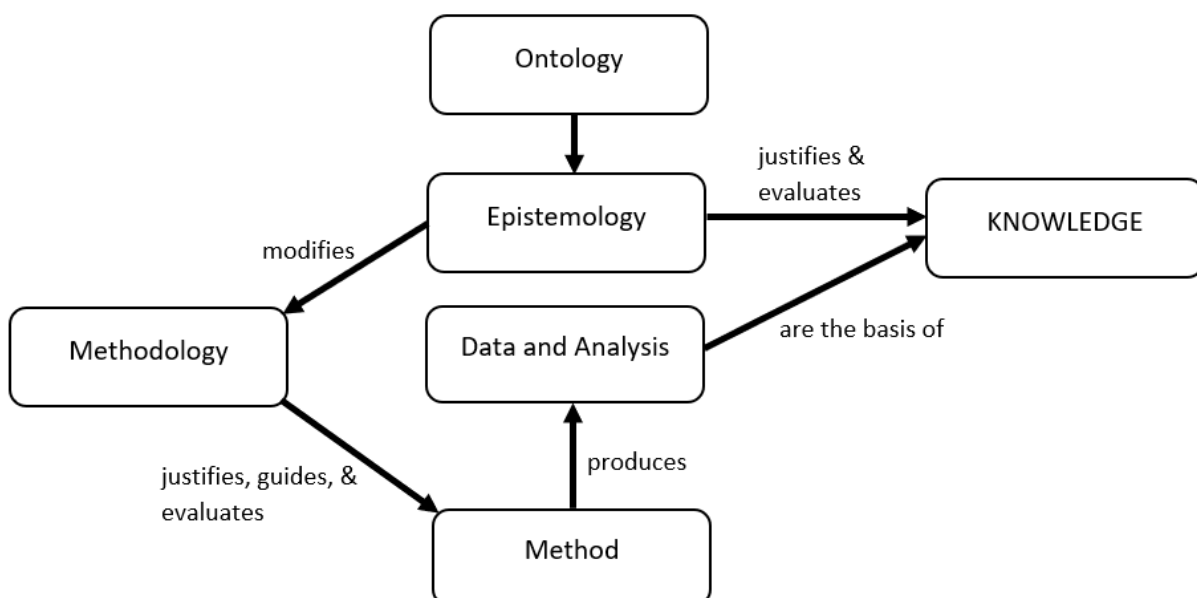
The term paradigm originates from the Greek term *paradeigma* (παράδειγμα) which means pattern, example, or sample. In his book *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions*, Kuhn (1996) defines the word paradigm as “an integrated cluster of substantive concepts, variables and problems attached with corresponding methodological approach and tools” (as in cited in Flick, 2009, p. 69). Guba and Lincoln (1994) view it as “a basic system or worldview that guides the investigator, not only in the choices of method, but in ontologically and epistemologically fundamental ways” (p.105).

Ontology can be defined as “the study of being” and is concerned with “what kind of world we are investigating, with the nature of existence, with the structure of reality as such” (Crotty, 2003, p. 10). Guba and Lincoln (1989) state the ontological assumptions are those that respond to the questions “what is there that can be known?” or “what is the nature or reality?” (p. 83). Whether reality exists independent of the researcher or whether it exists on its own has been a long running debate for philosophers. There are usually two classifications for ontology: *realist* and *relativist*. Realist ontology considers that reality exists independent of the observer and operates according to natural laws that often take a cause-and-effect form. Relativist ontology assumes that there exists many, socially constructed realities unbridled by natural laws (Guba & Lincoln, 2005; Rashid et al., 2019).

According to Crotty (2003), epistemology is a “way of understanding and explaining how we know what we know” (p. 3). It is concerned with providing a philosophical basis for what kinds of knowledge are possible and to ensure they are acceptable (Maynard, 1994; Saunders et al., 2015). The choice of epistemology affects the choice of methodology. Epistemology is usually characterized as being either *objective* or *subjective* (Rashid et al., 2019). Objectivism holds that reality exists independently of consciousness – in other words, there is an objective reality “out there” (Grey, 2014, p. 20). Research is about discovering the objective truth meaning that researchers should not be influenced by their feelings or values. In contrast, for *subjectivism* truth does not exist and the meaning is “interpreted” from the subject’s interactions with the world. Therefore, different valid accounts of the world can exist (Grey, 2014, p. 20).

Methodology is “the strategy, plan of action, process or design lying behind the choice and use of particular methods and linking the choice and the use of methods to the desired outcome” (Crotty, 2003, p. 3). Methodology depends on the ontological and epistemological assumptions about the state of reality and the best ways of gaining access to those realities. The differences in these assumptions will affect how data is collected and how it is treated (Hussain et al., 2013). Figure 14 shows the relationship between ontology, epistemology, and methodology in the research process.

Figure 14. The relationship between ontology, epistemology, and methodology



Source: Adapted from Carter and Little (2007, p. 1317)

3.1.2 The Epistemological Perspective within the Research Paradigm

The epistemological perspective or research philosophy is an important element for determining which research design is going to be applied and why (Li et al., 1999). That is to say that people's beliefs about the world will impact the research design and procedures (Collis & Hussey, 2003). Within business research, three main positionings or orientations exist: positivism, interpretivism, and constructivism. These approaches have been extensively discussed in the previous literature (e.g. Alvesson & Skölberg, 2009; Prasad, 2015). As summarized by Allard-Poesi and Perret (2014), "the aim of positivism is to explain reality, whereas interpretivism seeks, above all to understand it, and constructivism essentially constructs it" (p.14).

3.1.2.1 Positivism

Positivism can be described as embracing any approach which applies the scientific method to human affairs (Grix, 2010). Positivist researchers assume that reality is independent of the observer, but it can be studied, measured, and explained in a scientific manner. The ontology of positivism is *realism* meaning that reality exists and is driven by natural laws (Hussain et al., 2013). The epistemology of positivism is *objectivism*. The social world reflects an independent reality that provides the foundation for human knowledge. The researchers observe, without interference, what this reality is through research procedures. The methodology for positivist research is quantitative experimentation where proposed hypotheses are empirically tested under controlled conditions (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). From the positivist point of view, valuable knowledge should satisfy four criteria (Allard-Poesi & Perret, 2014, pp. 14-15):

- *Verification*: the researcher should test his theory on empirical grounds to validate it.
- *Degree of confirmation*: every proposition is considered probable and can be confirmed with statistics.
- *Refutation*: a confirmed theory can be disproved if a researcher can show that it is not true.
- *Logical consistency*: scientific methods must follow a formal, deductive logic.

The strengths of positivism are clarity, precision, rigor, standardization, and generalizability. However, it fails to differentiate social sciences from natural sciences, seeing humans as natural objects and ignoring their uniqueness and individuality (Ernest, 1994).

3.1.2.2 Interpretivism

The interpretive approach seeks to understand values, beliefs, and meaning by extracting *verstehen* (empathic understanding, rather than *erklären* or causal explanation) from human activities and experience (Feest, 2010). The research is guided by the scholar's wish to

understand (and interpret) the social reality by building elaborate descriptions of the phenomenon under study (Hussain et al., 2013). The reality is therefore socially constructed through the individual's interpretations (Prasad, 2015). Interpretivism adopts a *relativist* ontology arguing that the meaning exists in relation to culture, society, or historical context, and is not absolute (Ernest, 1994). A single phenomenon may have several meanings or interpretations because reality is complex, local, specific in nature, and multi-layered. The epistemology of the interpretive orientation is *subjectivism*. Interpretive researchers presume that knowledge is personal and unique and is built through the interaction of actors participating in the social context under study. The methodology is usually done through qualitative inquiry, since interpretivist researchers do not agree that quantitative methods alone can be adequately used in understanding social behaviors (Hussain et al., 2013). Interpretivists stress the importance of trustworthiness in their four main validity criteria (Lincoln & Guba, 1985):

- *Credibility*: if we assume that the world is made up of multiple realities, it is important to show that the reconstructions that have been made for both processes and results, are credible for the constructors of those realities.
- *Transferability* of working hypotheses only between similar contexts.
- *Dependability*: it is possible that, when recreating an inquiry in similar context, the outcomes can vary, depending on the change factors.
- *Confirmability*: the key issue is the characteristic of the data and not the researcher's objectivity.

The main strength of interpretivism is that it permits one to study different social areas in a great level of depth. However, due to its subjective nature, the approach allows considerable room for bias on behalf of the researcher. Primary data generated cannot be universally generalized as it is impacted by the scholar's viewpoint and values (Taherdoost, 2021).

3.1.2.3 Constructivism

The third approach, constructivism, is associated with interpretivism (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Harrison et al., 2017). The main difference between the two orientations concerns the way the researcher can create knowledge (Allard-Poesi & Perret, 2014). For interpretivists, the goal is to understand the meaning of the reality given by the actors by focusing on their intentions and motivations. For constructivists, "knowledge and truth are created, not discovered by mind" (Schwandt, 1994, p. 236). Knowledge production entails the construction of reality by the actors studied. The produced knowledge is unique to the actors and evolves over time. The ontological, epistemological, and methodological aspects are the same as for interpretivism, including the approach's strengths and weaknesses. Table 18 summarizes the three orientations.

Table 18. A summary of the epistemological viewpoints

	Positivism	Interpretivism	Constructivism
Epistemological questions			
<i>What is the status of Knowledge?</i>	Realist hypothesis The object has its own essence	Relativist hypothesis The essence of the object is multiple	Relativist hypothesis The essence of the object cannot be attained or does not exist
<i>What is the nature of reality?</i>	Interdependence of subject and object Determinist hypothesis: The world is made up of necessities	Dependence of subject and object Intentionalist hypothesis: The world is made up of possibilities	Dependence of subject and object Intentionalist hypothesis: The world is made up of possibilities
<i>How is knowledge generated?</i>	Discovery	Interpretation	Construction
<i>The research question</i>	“For what reasons”	“What motivates actors to”	“To what end does”
<i>Main issue</i>	Explanation	Understanding	Construction
<i>What is the value of knowledge?</i>	Degree of confirmation Refutability Logical consistency	Credibility Transferability Dependability Confirmability	Adequacy Teachability

Source: Adapted from Allard-Poesi & Perret (2014, pp. 14- 15)

3.1.2.4 Methodology within the Research Paradigm

The research methodology is an approach that transits from the underlining assumptions to the research design, and the data collection (Thomas, 2011). The most common classifications are quantitative and qualitative. The terms refer to the notion about how one sees the world and the purpose of research, but also to the research methods used to collect and analyze data (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006).

Quantitative research was originally developed in the natural sciences to study its phenomena. Numerical data are used to obtain information about the subject under study in a formal, objective, systematic process. There are four types of quantitative approaches (Creswell & Creswell, 2018):

- *Descriptive*: seeks to describe the current status of an identified variable.
- *Correlational*: attempts to determine the relationship between two or more variables.
- *Causal-comparative/quasi-experimental*: attempts to establish a cause-effect relationship among the variables.

- *Experimental*: uses the scientific method to establish a cause-effect relationship among a group of variables. Often called true experimentation.

Qualitative research was developed in the social sciences for researchers to study social and cultural phenomena (Myers, 2020). One is not necessarily better than the other and can often be mixed in research. The choice depends on the context, the purpose, and the nature of the study in question. Creswell and Crewell (2018) outline five qualitative approaches to inquiry:

- *Narrative*: collects stories, documents, and group conversations about the experiences of one or two individuals.
- *Phenomenology*: a way to study an idea or concept that holds a common meaning for a small group of individuals (3-15 people).
- *Grounded theory*: seeks to generate or discover a general explanation for a social process, action, or interaction of individuals in a particular setting.
- *Ethnographic*: describes and interprets the patterns of values, behavior, beliefs, and language of a group (typically more than 20 people).
- *Case Study*: the study of a group (case) within its actual context and setting.

Stake (1995) describes three major differences between quantitative and qualitative approaches: the explanation and understanding as the purpose of the investigation, the role of the researcher in the inquiry, and how knowledge is discovered and constructed. Table 19 shows the major differences between the two methods.

Table 19. The differences between quantitative and qualitative approaches

Orientation	Quantitative	Qualitative
<i>Assumptions of the world</i>	A single reality, i.e. can be measured by an instrument.	Multiple realities
<i>Research Purpose</i>	Establish relationships between measured variables	Understand a social situation from the participants' perspectives
<i>Research methods and processes</i>	-Procedures are established before the study begins; -A hypothesis is formulated before the research can begin; -Deductive in nature.	-Flexible, changing strategies; -Design emerges as data are collected; -A hypothesis is not needed to begin research; -Inductive or abductive in nature.
<i>Researcher's role</i>	The researcher is ideally an objective observer who neither participates in nor influences what is being studied.	The researcher participates and becomes immersed in the research/social setting.
<i>Generalizability</i>	Universal context-free generalizations	Detailed context-based generalizations

Source: Adapted from Thomas (2011, p. 304)

3.1.2.5 Deduction, Induction, or Abduction

Linked to the quantitative and qualitative approach is the way the research will be conducted. In management science, there are two paths for conducting research: testing and exploring. The chosen path will guide the way the researcher performs his inquiry. Testing is based on deduction, while exploring is associated with induction and abduction (Charreire-Petit & Durieux, 2014).

Deduction most often falls under the quantitative approach. Deductive research logic begins with theory and is aimed at testing arguments with statistical instruments. Under the qualitative approach, the researcher may use induction or abduction rationale. For inductive research logic, the researcher explores the lived experiences of the actors in the field to move from facts to generalizations to verify a tested theory (Charreire-Petit & Durieux, 2014).

Abduction occupies the middle ground. It generates ideas and tentative theories that serve as hypothetical concepts (Thomas, 2011). Unlike induction, abduction accepts existing theory, but contrary to deduction it is flexible enough to allow a less theory-driven research process. An outcome of abductive research is a framework that provides a tentative idea of what a theory can

look like (Rashid et al., 2019). Table 20 outlines the differences between the three logics.

Table 20. The differences between abduction, deduction, and induction

	Abduction	Deduction	Induction
<i>Aim</i>	To understand social phenomenon in terms of social actor's motives & understanding	To test theories, to eliminate false ones, & to corroborate the survivor	To verify by searching for the facts & to establish description of the patterns.
<i>Start</i>	Related theories, observations of everyday accounts	Deduce hypothesis from a tentative theory	Tested theory
<i>Finish</i>	Tentative theory/framework	Hypothesis testing/theory testing	Theory verification & generalization
<i>Researcher stance</i>	Inquiry from inside	Inquiry from outside	Inquiry from outside
<i>Researcher account</i>	Respondent's view explained by researcher	Researcher's viewpoint	Researcher's viewpoint

Source: Adapted from Rashid et al. (2019, p. 4)

3.1.3 Our Research: An Interpretivist Stance Through Multiple Qualitative Case Study Research Using an Abduction Approach

The nature of the research and its context influence the choice of our theoretical positioning in the research paradigm. In our research, we seek to understand the relationships of higher education institutions with their international branch campuses. We aim to understand the measures taken to manage the branch campuses as well as the motivations for their creation by the different actors at the schools. It is about understanding context-dependent social processes, which is consistent with the interpretivist position (Rashid et al., 2019).

The methodology of our doctoral dissertation is qualitative rather than quantitative. Qualitative research is an established tradition in business research and it is often used to gain insights into organizations (Creswell & Poth, 2016). In contrary to quantitative studies, qualitative approaches search for the meaning and the understanding of processes in unique situations, rather than statistical analysis (Giordano, 2003). It is particularly suitable to explore new or little-known phenomenon and for understanding the behaviors and functions of individuals and/or organizations (Ghauri, 2004). This will be done through the case study method. Case studies (single or multiple) are among the qualitative methods most frequently used in the field of management (Ghauri et al., 2020).

Our analysis is based on abductive logic. The literature review provided us with theoretical “building blocks” that will be used for our data analysis and theoretical discussion of the empirical evidence (Dubois & Gadde, 2002; Miles & Huberman, 1994).

We will now explain how this orientation guides the scientific knowledge creation in our research on higher education institutions and their international branch campuses.

3.1.3.1 An Interpretivist Stance

Our research is focused on understanding the “how” and “why” of higher education institutions management of the relationships with their international branch campuses. The interpretive position is the best approach to do this because it allows us to understand the differences that exist between people in real life experiences (Saunders et al., 2015). We focus on the meaning from the perspective of the actors participating in the social phenomenon, which allows us to provide interpretive explanations (Rashid et al., 2019). We will discover and explore how people make sense of their environment, how they understand other people’s activities, and how they perceive the interpersonal-social relations in the context that surrounds them (Ruban & Babbie, 2014).

As reality is meaningful and dependent on the individual’s experience and context, many interpretations of reality are possible. Thus, it leads us to a process of understanding the meaning of a reality, rather than predicting a future one (Martinet, 1990). In order to reach the reality in a specific context, we concentrate on providing a detailed description of the studied phenomenon, in accordance with Geertz’s (1973) principle of thick description. This means we provide a cultural context and meaning to human actions and behavior, as opposed to *thin description* which is a factual account without any interpretation (Geertz, 1973). Table 21 summarizes the interpretivist positioning in our research.

Table 21. The interpretivist positioning in our research

Assumptions	Interpretivist Approach	Our Research
Ontology (nature of reality)		
Nature of reality	Reality is socially constructed through the individuals' interpretations; time, place, and context specific; multiple meanings, thus multiple realities exist.	We interviewed people from different schools and their IBCs, implicated in the management and coordination of the home institution and the IBCs. We searched for the meaning of the relationships based upon their experiences.
Nature of social beings	Individuals act proactively on their environment.	Institutional managers take decisions that affect the coordination of the home campus and the IBCs.
Epistemology (nature of knowledge)		
Truth	Truth is subjective.	The meaning of action is influenced by the managers' decisions for the IBC and its relations/coordination with the home institution. We interviewed personnel directly implicated in the home institution-IBC relationship.
Scientific knowledge	Researchers attempt to provide a contextually bounded understanding of the phenomenon. Scientific knowledge is subjective, content bound, and relative to the referenced theoretical framework.	
Relationship between the researcher and the research subject	The researcher participates and becomes immersed in the research/social setting.	The researcher proposes the interpretation(s) of the meaning by conducting interviews with key people at the higher education institutions and through school documents.
Causality	Multiple causes exist.	Managers at the home institution and at the IBCs in various countries belong to different networks and their actions and decisions are diverse (influenced by experience, resources, relationships, etc.).
Methodology		
Typical Method	Qualitative, small samples, in-depth investigations.	The analysis of home institution-IBC relationships of higher education institutions is a complex phenomenon requiring in-depth qualitative research.

Source: Elaborated by the author

3.1.3.2 Qualitative Multiple Case Study Research

Qualitative research involves an interpretive approach to the world; meaning studying actors in their natural settings and attempting to comprehend the sense that they give it (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). In order to understand how higher education institutions manage the relationships with their IBCs, we conducted qualitative case study research. Case study research is an effective approach to investigate complex issues in real-world settings (Patnaik & Pandey, 2019). Furthermore, since the management of international branch campuses involves cross-border relationships, the study “is particularly well suited to international business research, where data is collected from cross-border and cross-cultural settings” (Ghauri, 2004, p. 111).

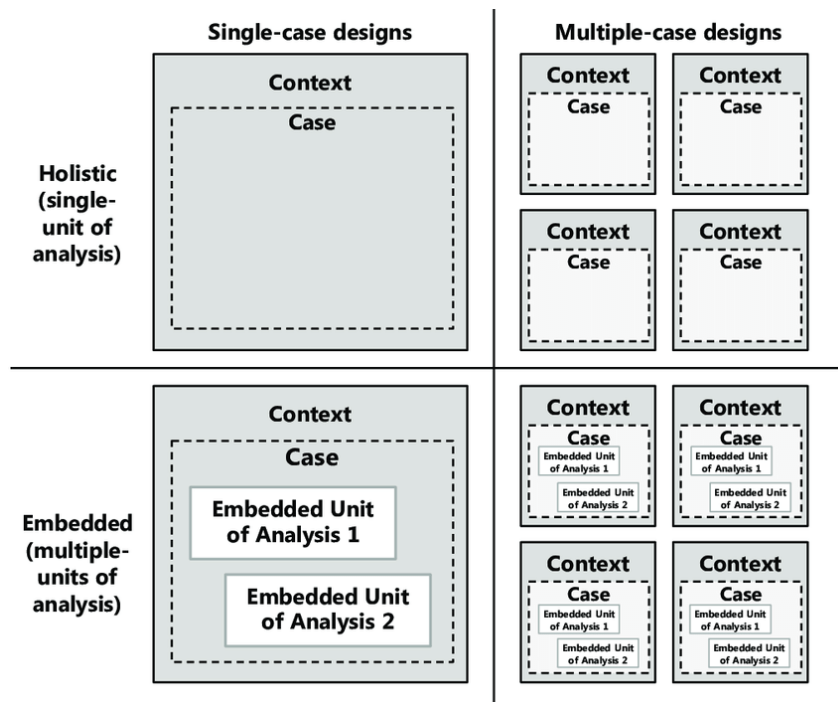
Moreover, given the limited empirical studies on international branch campuses, our case study approach allows us to analyze, contribute, and to advance knowledge in the field by further understanding the relevant mechanisms of the relationships between higher education institutions and their international branch campuses. The qualitative case study is a good technique when the researcher has identified cases with boundaries and seeks to provide an in-depth understanding of the cases or a comparison of several cases (Creswell & Creswell, 2018), especially when the boundaries of the phenomenon and the context are not clearly defined (Yin, 2018).

Yin (2003) defines a case study as “an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident” (p. 13). He further states that case studies are the preferred method when “how” and “why” questions are being posed and when the researcher has little control over the events. Case studies are also richly descriptive because they are grounded in deep and varied sources of information that can shed light on the complexity of the phenomenon being studied (Patnaik & Pandey, 2019). In our research, we seek to understand how the relationships operates between higher education institutions and their international branch campuses. This addresses the call for more contextual studies in international business (e.g., Michailova, 2011; Welch et al., 2011), as well as the call for more empirical studies on international branch campuses (e.g., Beecher & Streitwieser, 2017; Escriva-Beltran et al., 2019; Girdzijauskaite & Radzeviciene, 2014).

Seeking to make our empirical analysis more robust, we chose a multiple case study design. By using several cases, we increase the strength of the evidence, as well as limit the bias in the obtained results (Yin, 2018). The comparative case study method is appropriate for the objectives of our study. The purpose of our study is understanding how higher education institutions manage their IBCs.

The unit of analysis helps the researcher define what is being studied in addition to what aspects are being studied. The unit of analysis outlines the breath of the study, as well assists with the comparison of cases (Yin, 2018). Since we are studying how HEIs manage the relationships with their IBCs, the unit of analysis is the relationship. Therefore, we are using a holistic multiple case study design. Figure 15 shows the four types of case study designs.

Figure 15. The types of case study designs

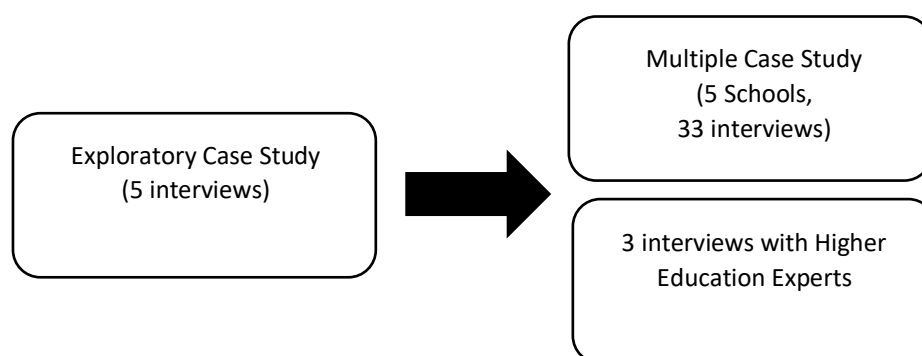


Source: Yin (2003, p. 40)

For the multiple case study approach, Yin (2018) distinguishes between literal replication (where the cases are designed to corroborate each other) and theoretical replication (where the cases are designed to cover different theoretical conditions). We chose a literal replication design as we seek to generate insights between the case organizations and their actions and strategies. The design poses certain limits for the generalization of the results, but it allows researchers to analyze inter-related factors within complex situations (Yin, 2018).

Figure 16 shows the adopted case study design. We first conducted five exploratory interviews with managers at five different schools. The interviewees were either directly involved in their school's management of IBCs or were involved in the internationalization process of the school. The goal of the exploratory process was to address the relevant topics of interest and to hone the interview guide (our main data collection instrument) before moving on to the actual cases (Merriam, 1998; Stake, 1995).

Figure 16. The adopted case study design



Source: Elaboration of the author

3.1.3.3 An Abductive Approach

The goal of our research is to provide insights that may bring new or additional interpretations of the studied phenomenon (Dubois & Gadde, 2002). The abductive approach allows us to go “back and forth” between the empirical observations and the theory to expand our understanding of the phenomenon and the theory. Our objective is to enrich the literature by analyzing how HEIs oversee the relationships with their IBCs by explaining the methods and the rational from the point of view of five institutions. We draw insights from institutional isomorphism, the OLI paradigm, and the I-R paradigm to identify key theoretical constructs explaining the headquarter-subsidiary coordination.

3.1.3.4 Trustworthiness: Criteria for Validity

The question of validity remains an important issue for any research design, whether it be quantitative or qualitative. For qualitative research there has been a recent shift towards pluralist criteria, meaning that the quality criteria can vary depending on the epistemological approach being followed (Welch & Piekkari, 2017). For interpretivists, the standard criteria set by Lincoln and Guba (1985) remains the dominant one. They suggest four criteria for developing the trustworthiness of a qualitative inquiry, especially for case studies: *credibility*, *transferability*, *dependability*, and *confirmability*. These criteria represent parallels to the positivists’ criteria for case studies of *internal validity*, *external validity*, *reliability*, and *objectivity*, respectively (e.g., Eisenhardt, 1989; Yin, 2018).

Credibility refers to the ability of the researcher to justify the fit between research actors’ view and the researcher’s representation for the study. Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggest several techniques to address credibility, such as prolonged engagement, member checking, peer debriefing, and triangulation. Prolonged engagement means spending sufficient time in the field to learn or to understand the culture, social setting, or the phenomenon of interest. This may be

done by spending adequate time observing the aspects of the setting, speaking with a range of people, and developing relationships with the members of the culture. Concerning the institutions we researched, we were unable to spend time on the campuses due to several reasons (distance, time constraints, and a global pandemic). Despite this, we easily built rapport and trust with the various people interviewed for this research. We also engaged in member checking, a practiced deemed by Lincoln and Guba (1985) as “the most critical technique for establishing credibility” (p. 219). To establish this level of credibility, the researcher sent the transcribed interviews to all participants for verification, opportunities for corrections, or questions. The transcripts were shared only with the specific participant in order to ensure confidentiality. The author also engaged in peer debriefing, which is “a process of exposing oneself to a disinterested peer in a manner paralleling an analytical session and for the purpose of exploring aspects of the inquiry that might otherwise remain implicit in the inquirer’s mind” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985: p. 308). This allowed the researcher to become more aware of his posture towards the data and the analysis. Finally, we paid particular attention to data source triangulation (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Miles & Huberman 1994; Yin, 2018). The data came from different actors from the home campus, as well as the IBCs, and was supplement by secondary material.

Transferability refers to the generalizability of the study. In qualitative research, it can be difficult to talk about the generalization of findings but the researcher can provide thick descriptions to allow the reader to draw conclusions about the transferability of the result to other contexts (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Thick description refers to the detailed account of field experience in which the researcher makes explicit the patterns of cultural and social relationships and puts them in context (Holloway, 1997). It is particularly essential in cross-border studies where the researcher seeks to immerse the reader in the context despite the distance and cross-border differences (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

To have dependability, the conducted research needs to be clearly documented in order to leave an audit trail (Welch & Piekkari, 2017). We properly archived our raw data (interview records, interviews transcript, and consulted secondary data) to help trace our research process.

The last criterion, confirmability, is concerned with establishing that the data represents the information that the participants provided and that the interpretations of that data are not imagined by the researcher. For confirmability to be achieved, the findings must reflect the voice of the participant and not the biases of the researcher. Table 22 summarizes our criteria of validity.

Table 22. Our criteria of validity

Criteria of Validity	Research Procedures
Credibility (Internal Validity)	Data Collection <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prolonged engagement • Confidentiality • Member checking • Data source triangulation Data Analysis <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Peer debriefing
Transferability (External Validity)	Data Collection <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Purposeful sampling Result Reporting <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Thick description Results Reporting <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Comparison of insights with theoretical framework • Constant comparison across cases
Dependability (Reliability)	Data Collection <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Systematic data recording Results Reporting <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Audit trail of the research process
Confirmability (Objectivity)	Results Reporting <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reflexivity of the participants' voices • Defining in detail the context Data Analysis <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Examine the interaction between the case and its context • The use of NVivo

Source: Elaboration of the author

3.2 Data Collection and Analysis

This section explains the data collection and analysis process. First, we discuss our choice of French business schools as our specific research object. Second, we present our case selection process. Then, we describe the sources of data and the overall research procedures. Finally, we discuss how the data analysis was conducted.

3.2.1 French Business Schools: A Specific Research Object

In order to address our research question of how higher education institutions manage the relationships with their international branch campuses, we chose to focus on French business schools. French business schools train almost 3,000 students abroad every year, with IBCs being their preferred delivery method and are the French academic institutions that have the

most campuses abroad. (Cross-Border Education Research Team, 2023 Ramanantsoa & Delpech, 2016).

3.2.1.1 Case Selection

Case selection is one of the most important decisions and criticism that a researcher is faced with, particularly when he opts for conducting a case study (Ghauri et al., 2020). The clarification of the sampling is a guarantee of transparency and strengthens the validity of the research results (Patton, 1990). We opted for purposeful sampling, which is a technique widely used in qualitative research for the identification and selection of information-rich cases for the most effective use of limited resources (Patton, 1990). Several purposeful sampling strategies are possible, as indicted in Table 23.

Table 23. Purposeful sampling strategies

Type of Sampling	Purpose
Extreme	Learning from unusual manifestations of the phenomenon of interest.
Intensity	Cases that manifest the phenomenon intensely, but not extremely.
Maximum variation	Picking a wide range of variation on dimensions of interest.
Homogeneous	Reduces variation, simplifies analysis.
Typical	Illustrates what is typical, normal, average.
Stratified	Illustrates particular subgroups of interest; facilitates comparisons.
Critical	Permits logical generalization and maximum application to other cases.
Snowball	Identifies cases from people who know what cases are rich.
Criterion	Picking the cases that meet some identified criterion.
Theory-based	Finding manifestations of a theoretical construct of interest to elaborate and examine the construct.
(Dis)confirming	Deepening initial analysis, seeking exceptions, testing variation.
Opportunistic	Following new leads during fieldwork, flexibility.
Random	Reduces judgment within a purposeful category.
Politically important	Attracts attention to the study (or avoids it by eliminating sensitive cases).
Convenience	Saves time, money, and effort. Poorest rationale; lowest credibility.
Mixed	Triangulation, flexibility, meets multiple interests and needs.

Source: Adapted from Patton (1990, pp. 182-183)

We chose the theory-based sampling, which means the cases were selected on the basis of theoretical premises rather than statistical ones in order to study examples that represent the phenomenon of interest (Patton, 1990).

In preparation for our data collection, we first conducted five exploratory interviews with five French business schools. The interviewees were either directly involved with the internationalization process of the school and/or were associated with the management of an IBC. The goal of the exploratory process was to address the relevant topics of interests and to

hone the interview guide before moving on to the actual cases. The meetings allowed us to investigate several aspects about the pressures of internationalization and the creation of international branch campuses.

As discussed by Stake (1995), it is important to choose cases that can probe a phenomenon and identify recurrences that lead to theory development. Hlady-Rispal (2002) follows this by stating that the selection of cases should share common characteristics in order to identify recurring phenomena. We chose to study French business schools that are part of the *Conférence des Grandes Ecoles* (CGE) network. Focusing only on schools that are accredited members of the CGE gave us reassurance that all the institutions in the probe met the professional criteria as set forth by the CGE. The next step was to see which of these schools have international branch campuses. The Cross-Border Education Research Team (C-BERT) is an organization that tracks international branch campuses throughout the world and provides a database of IBCs listed by exporting countries. Cross referencing the C-BERT database with the CGE list yielded eight French business schools with IBCs. Further investigation into the remaining 30 schools from the CGE list and their websites found that three additional schools have IBCs, making a total of 11 French business schools having at least one international branch campus.

In qualitative research, the number of cases depends on the complexity of the issues studied and the depth of data collected from the different units (Yin, 2018). Eisenhardt (1989) suggests that between four and 10 is often sufficient. However, the number of cases is not the key issue as long as the researcher is able to describe and understand the context of the study (Dyer & Wilkins, 1991).

Data collection was difficult at the beginning, as IBCs are strategic and shrouded in commercial secrecy (Healey, 2015). A few interviews were completed via personal contacts of the researcher before being rejected by several schools. We composed a one-page summary of our research topic outlining the aims and goals of the dissertation (See Appendix 1). We then contacted other schools with the help of our dissertation adviser. The result was four schools that were willing to do interviews, with a fifth one that wanted to remain anonymous.

The selected schools are members of the CGE and have at least two IBCs, providing us with the opportunity to explore the perceptions and actions of key actors in their experience dealing with the relationships between the home campus and the IBCs.

3.2.1.2 Data Sources and Research Procedures

Following Mezias et al. (1999), we conducted interviews with managers at both the home campuses and the IBCs in order to acquire a more holistic understanding of the studied phenomenon and to double-check the data (for a similar data collection technique, see Beddi,

2013; Fan et al., 2012, and Chung et al., 2014). This allows us to see the perspectives from the headquarters (home campus), as well as the subsidiary (IBC), therefore giving us a better understanding of the relationships between the two.

At the home campus or headquarters level, we interviewed key managers at various administrative positions that dealt with the international development and coordination of the school. This provided a multifaceted explanation of the rationale for an IBC and how it fits into the overall school strategy.

For the IBC or subsidiary level, we interviewed the campus directors, and occasionally other important staff that dealt with IBC operations. This gave us a global overview of the subsidiary activities, their dealings with the other IBCs, and their relationships with the home campus. Thus, addressing a call for multiple subsidiary analysis within a single MNC (e.g., Athreye et al., 2014; Boussebaa, 2015) for a different understanding of intra-firm coordination.

A total of 33 semi-structured in-depth interviews were conducted with the five case organizations (plus three interviews with higher education experts) between September 2018 and December 2020. Table 24 and Table 25 provide an overview of the collected data.

Table 24. An overview of the five cases

School/Experts	Total number of Interviews
Exploratory	5
EM Normandie	7
ESCP	7
ESSCA	7
OMNES Education (formerly INSEEC)	6
Epsilon Business School	6
Higher Education Experts	3
Total:	41

Source: Elaboration of the author

Table 25. The list of the interviews

	Interviewee	Duration	Method
	EM Normandie		
1	Director of International Affairs	68 minutes	Video Conference
2	Director of the Oxford and Dublin campuses	74 minutes	Video Conference
3	Director of Research	63 minutes	Video Conference
4	Manager of the Dublin campus	49 minutes	Video Conference
5	Associate Dean of Faculty - Paris, Oxford, Dublin campuses	51 minutes	Video Conference/Telephone
6	Dean of Faculty	60 minutes	Video Conference
7	Director of International Development	48 minutes	Video Conference
	ESCP		
8	Dean and Executive President of ESCP	47 minutes	Telephone
9	Dean for Academic Affairs and International Relations; Acting Dean for ESCP Warsaw	34 minutes	Telephone
10	Dean of ESCP Madrid	46 minutes	Telephone
11	Dean of ESCP Berlin	39 minutes	Telephone
12	Dean of ESCP Turin	78 minutes	Telephone
13	Dean of Faculty for ESCP	63 minutes	Telephone
14	Dean of ESCP London	46 minutes	Telephone
	ESSCA		
15	Director of Studies - ESSCA Shanghai	96 minutes	Video Conference
16	Associate Dean for Research	66 minutes	Video Conference
17	Director of ESSCA Budapest	67 minutes	Video Conference
18	Director of ESSCA Shanghai	60 minutes	Video Conference
19	Director of International Relations	69 minutes	Video Conference
20	Vice Dean of ESSCA	51 minutes	Video Conference
21	Dean of ESSCA	79 minutes	Video Conference
	OMNES Education (Formerly INSEEC)		
22	Director of OMNES Education San Francisco	68 minutes	Video Conference
23	Director of OMNES Education London	57 minutes	Telephone
24	Director of IFG Executive Education & Director of Academic Innovation	56 minutes	Video Conference
25	Director of IFG Afrique	84 minutes	Video Conference
26	Director of International Relations	54 minutes	Video Conference
27	Director of CREA Geneva	46 minutes	Video Conference
	Epsilon Business School		
28	Former Academic Dean of the United States campus	47 minutes	Video Conference
29	Academic Dean of the United States campus	97 minutes	Face to Face
30	Academic Dean of the Chinese campus	62 minutes	Video Conference
31	International Office Manager	38 minutes	Video Conference
32	Former Dean of the Chinese campus	63 minutes	Video Conference
33	Dean of Faculty; Manager of the South African campus	55 minutes	Video Conference

Table 25 (Continued)

	Interviewee	Duration	Method
	Higher Education Experts		
34	Former Head of International Relations/Mentor AACSB International	48 minutes	Video Conference
35	Former Head of International Accreditations	34 minutes	Face to Face
36	Associate Vice President of Global Engagement	45 minutes	Video Conference

Source: Elaboration of the author

The strength of qualitative research is the in-depth insights (Piekkari et al., 2009), so we chose open-ended questions to learn the most about the actors' views and opinions. The interview questions were semi-structured thereby allowing the interviewees to express their own opinions on the "main" questions, backed up with more detailed questions as necessary (Yin, 2018). Semi-structured interviews were used to understand the "what" and the "how" but also to explore the "why" (Saunders et al., 2015). Following the guidelines of Miles and Huberman (1994), we explained to the interviewees our study objectives and the data collection process. We ensured the confidentiality of the conversations in order to encourage them to speak freely. We used an interview guide to help collect the same information for the five cases (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Yin, 2018). The guide was divided into five sections 1) user profile, 2) overview of the home campus and its IBCs, 3) motivations for creating an IBC, 4) the relationships between the home campus and the IBCs, and 5) the impact and results of the IBC (See Appendix 2).

The first questions dealt with getting to know the interviewee, their position in the school, how long they have held this position, and their previous experience. This allowed us to build trust, as we explained our research objectives before starting, as well as asking if the conversation could be recorded (all interviewees welcomed the recording). We then discussed their view of the school's international strategy. This was followed by specific questions about the operations of the IBC, (e.g., the number of staff and students, types of programs offered, and level of research, the risks and benefits of having IBC, and management autonomy). The questions asked did not change, but sometimes information about the day-to-day operations at the IBC was more detailed when speaking to the managers of the actual IBC, than with the home campus. We then continued with the other questions as outlined in the interview guide. In brief, the guide's first and second set of questions allowed us to understand the school's international strategy, have an overview of the IBCs, and how the IBCs is being used within the school. The third set of questions dealt with the motivations for French business schools to internationalize their activities and their choice of creating an IBC in a specific location. The fourth set of questions dealt with the relationships between the IBC and the home campus, as well as the one

between the IBCs. Finally, the last set of questions addressed the impact and the results of the IBCs. The answer concerning the financial results of the IBC is the only one where the respondents seemed to be more reserved. This is most likely linked to Healey's (2015) statement of IBCs being shrouded in commercial secrecy.

Only two interviews were held face-to-face. The rest were carried out via Skype, Zoom, Microsoft Teams, or telephone due to distance, limited time, and COVID-19. On average, each interview with the business schools lasted one hour, while the ones with industry experts endured for 42 minutes. Most interviews were carried out in English as the respondents were proficient in the language. However, three interviews were conducted in French for the respondents were more comfortable discussing the questions in their native language. Each of these interviews were transcribed in French, then translated to English, and double-checked for accuracy by a professional translator. All interviews were recorded and fully transcribed as well.

The primary data gathered from the interviews was supplemented with secondary information to allow data triangulation as suggested by Yin (2018). We collected information from the schools' websites, online documents, press releases, and news articles found via search engines. We also conducted three interviews with experts in the field of international education. All multiple sources of evidence were triangulated to assure corroboration of the findings and to strengthen the construct validity of the study (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Yin, 2018). For instance, the schools' websites provided more detailed information concerning the governance structure of the schools, as well as an enriched description of the programs offered at the institutions. Online news articles and press releases yielded details for IBC openings and closures, in addition to accreditation earnings or renewals. The secondary sources allowed us to complement and reinforce the data gathered from the interviews.

3.2.2 Data Analysis Procedure

In this section, we will explain how the data analysis was conducted. First, we will outline the methodology for the conducted content analysis. Then, we will describe the processes of intra-case and cross-case analysis.

3.2.2.1 Process of Coding and Interpretation

To analyze the data, we follow Yin's (2018) pattern-matching method of analysis. The analysis compared empirical patterns with theoretically expected patterns discussed in the literature review and as expressed by participants interviewed in our study. We proceeded in the following way: we imported all the interview transcripts into NVivo, a qualitative data analysis software that is useful for coding and organizing large amount of data for interpretation and analysis. We then classified the individual transcripts into cases. Next, we coded each transcript based on the

pattern of responses from the actors. The emerging codes were categorized as subthemes, then categorized as the themes of the study.

To increase the internal validity, we analyzed our textual data in the systematic way. The developed coding schemes are presented in Appendix 3. We distinguished the following themes: 1) firm identity and context, 2) the international branch campus and its relationships, and 3) contributions of the branch campus to the institution. The first block contains elements about how the institution is organized, as well as its international strategy, and the motivations to internationalize. While analyzing the second block on international branch campuses, we identified the subthemes about the IBC and its curriculum, location choice, and the perceived risks and benefits of having an IBC. We also distinguished the subthemes of the relationships between the IBC and the home campus, the connection amongst the IBCs, and the association of the IBC in the local network. The last block deals with the contribution of the IBC to the institution focusing on the subthemes of the results of having an IBC and the recommendations for creating one.

In the next step of the data analysis, we did a horizontal reading of each question to illuminate the data in every category and to spawn potential responses to our research questions. We were attentive to the different perceptions from managers at the home campus, as well as the ones at the IBC, especially concerning the term “branch campus”. As we advanced through the process, the initial codes were adjusted and new ones emerged. Common themes were identified and matched across the five case institutions. Finally, we compared this empirical evidence with the extant theory to produce a theoretical interpretation of the phenomenon being studied. Table 26 highlights the codification system.

Table 26. Codification system

Themes	Subthemes	Codes
Institution identity and context	Institutional organization	Organization of international activities, multicampus strategy, matrix organization, global business school, coordination, meeting topics and agenda, communication means used by the institution, centralized vs decentralized activities
	International strategy	Satellite campuses, recruit international professors, Pan-European, online learning, language immersion, internationalization at home intercultural awareness, increase visibility on the international market, glocalization, emphasize student mobility, corporate partnerships, coherence with accreditation, attract international students, academic partners network
	Motivations to internationalize	School mergers and acquisitions, responding to market saturation, responding to business demand, rankings and accreditations, pressures to internationalize, need for student global mobility and mindset, mimicry, market expansion, increase revenue stream, improve linguistic skills, enhance school image and reputation, desire by administration, demand of target market
The international branch campus and its relationships	IBC overview	Use of permanent professors, use of local lecturers, the physical campus building, student cohorts, strong local partner, research at the IBC, obtaining local accreditations, legal structure, incubators goals of IBC, day-to-day operations, campus visits, assuring international placements, administrative staff
	Reasons for locations	Within the European Union, presence of large corporations, limited competition, existing linkage, differentiation, close to technology parks, brand and prestige
	Curriculum at the IBC	Specializations, short-term programs, program creation, Master in Management (PGE), improve English proficiency, exposure to local language, bachelor, 80% harmonized - 20% local content
	Perceived risks of having an IBC	Quality control, losing the school DNA, location becomes unpopular, impact on accreditations, geopolitical and social factors, financial loss, change in partner collaboration
	Perceived benefits of having an IBC	Increase brand awareness, good for accreditations, ensure quality, easier to manage, cultural exposure, attractive to students, attractive to partner schools, attractive to parents

Table 26 (Continued)

Themes	Subthemes	Codes
The international branch campus and its relationships (continued)	Relationship with the home campus	Trust-based, regular interaction, occasional physical meetings, autonomy, faculty mobility, course coordination
	Connection with other IBCs	Sharing of best practices, regular interaction, informal exchange, indirect communication, sharing of local network, time zone challenges
	Association with the local network	Other institutions, lecturers, businesses, alumni, administration
The contributions of the branch campus to the institution	Results of having an IBC	Impact on the ranking of the institution, impact on the image and reputation of the institution, impact on international accreditations, goals in 5 years, financial performance of the IBC
	Recommendations for creating an IBC	Understand the local market, human resources, be ready for a long-term investment, value of location, purpose and organizational fit, key academic partner, deploy someone from the home campus, right balance of local adaption and home campus standards, start with one program, quality control

3.2.3 Intra-Case and Cross-Case Analysis

This sub-section explains how we utilize knowledge from the individual case studies and how we explore the similarities and differences based on our theoretical foundations.

3.2.3.1 Intra-Case Analysis: Exploring and Explaining

In order to make sense of the data collected, Miles and Huberman (1994) describe three major phases of data analysis: data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing and verification. The first phase, data reduction, refers to “the process of selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting, and transforming the data that appear in written up field notes or transcriptions” (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 10). This means transforming the data so it can be made intelligible in terms of the issues being addressed and reporting the results in a meaningful way. Data display is the second phase and is “designed to assemble organized information into an immediately accessible, compact form so that the analyst can see what is happening and either draw justified conclusions or move on to the next step of the analysis” (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 11). A display can be an extended piece of text, a diagram, a chart, or a matrix that provides a new way of arranging and thinking about the textually embedded data. We adopt this model to conduct our analysis and to present our findings.

For the research results, we develop a presentation of each individual case according to the descriptive framework stemming from the literature review and the plan outlined in the interview guide. It is important to link the presentation of the results to the research question for theoretical interpretations and for drawing valid conclusions (Miles & Huberman, 1994). First, we focus on the motivations of why the studied schools created an IBC. Then we focus on how the home campus controls and coordinates their IBCs. Finally, we focus on the success of the IBC and school’s performance. These elements help us understand how higher education institutions manage the relationships with their international branch campus. This analytical strategy lets us organize our findings to the key concepts of interest and helps us identify the appropriate explanation for the studied phenomenon (Yin, 2018). Table 27 shows the association between the results presentation and analysis.

Table 27. Results presentation and analysis based on the specified research question

Part of the case	Research questions addressed
Institution identity and context	1. Why do higher education institutions choose to create international branch campuses?
The international branch campus and its relationships	2. How can higher education institutions control and coordinate their international branch campuses?
Contributions of the branch campus to the institution	3. What are the contributions of international branch campuses for higher education institutions?

Source: Elaboration of the author

We pay particular attention to the systematic coding, systematic case description, and the data analysis by following the previously defined frame of study. We also considered the different points of views from the interviews at both the home campus and IBCs levels. Due to the large amount of data, selectiveness in the reporting of the results was strictly used to focus on the noteworthy aspects of our study. We acknowledge the issues that do not fit the dominant patterns and try to explain them in a neutral way. We use examples and quotes as much as possible in the results to ensure that the findings are aligned with the actor's experience, and to increase the trustworthiness of the analysis (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

To enlarge the internal validity of the study, we discuss both empirical evidence and the links with the related theoretical aspects (Cuervo-Cazurra et al., 2016). We developed five individual intra-case analysis with detailed descriptions of each case including the main conceptual issues identified in the literature. The cases were analyzed as interdependent research studies, thus preserving the integrity and potential unique combination of the intra-case patterns.

Finally, in the conclusion section of every intra-case analysis we highlight the key observations for each case. This allows us to reexamine the key findings and the patterns found for the individual cases. Miles and Huberman (1994) reinforce that "it is critical to have understood the dynamic of each case before proceeding to cross-case explanations" (p. 207). In the next subsection, we explain the cross-case comparison to come to conclusion drawing.

3.2.3.2 Cross-Case Analysis

In order to have a better understanding of the studied phenomenon, a comparative analysis is conducted. Following a literal replication design, the focus of the data analysis was to find common patterns among the cases rather than the differences. The cross-case comparison was carried out by analyzing the data in relation to the following questions 1) What are the

motivations for creating an IBC 2) How are the IBCs controlled and coordinated? 3) What are the key success factors of IBCs? 4) What is the impact of IBCs on the home institution?

We then go from the identified cross-case pattern to a more abstract conceptualization (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The comparison of emerging themes from the cases and the existing theory through an abduction process enable us to pull from the empirical findings and to elaborate the theories used in our conceptual framework. The targeted theoretical contributions in explaining how higher education institutions manage the relationships with their international branch campuses. The study also advances our understanding of the isomorphic pressures facing higher education institutions today and the rational for creating international branch campuses over other forms of transnational education.

To conclude, we provide an overview of our research design in Table 28.

Table 28. Research design

Step	Method	Details
Preparation for the Data Collection	Pilot case study	Exploratory analysis with five practitioners in international education and/or IBC management to address the relevant research topics and to hone the interview guide.
Case Selection	Purposeful sampling for identification and selection of information-rich cases related to the studied phenomenon	<p>Cross-referenced the CGE list with the C-BERT to find which French business schools have IBCs (8). Searched the websites of the 30 remaining schools to find three other schools that have IBCs but are not listed by C-BERT.</p> <p>Contacted schools by email personally or through personal contacts with a one-page description of the research project. Continued this search process until we found relevant schools to cover the phenomenon and that accepted to participate in the study.</p>
Data Collection	<p>Semi-structured interviews with key actors at the headquarters and subsidiary level, and industry experts.</p> <p>Analysis of secondary data (company websites, internal document, etc.)</p>	<p>36 interviews averaging 53 minutes in length.</p> <p>Coding the data with NVivo software</p>
Data Analysis	Development of singles cases	<p>Detailed description of each individual case with the use of interview transcriptions and secondary data.</p> <p>Put the empirical evidence in parallel with the theoretical constructs</p>
	Cross-case analysis	Conducting the cross-case analysis to identify common patterns
	Development of propositions	Systematic comparison of the empirical evidence and the extant theory to establish the basis of propositions.

Conclusion to Chapter 3

In Chapter 3 we presented an overview of the research design and the positioning for our dissertation research. We adopted an interpretivist stance because it allows us to understand the differences that exist between people in in-depth life experiences (Saunders et al., 2015). We want to discover and explore how people make sense of their environment and the interpersonal-social relations in the context they are surrounded in (Ruban & Babbie, 2014).

To analyze the studied phenomenon, we opted for a multiple case study replication design in order to obtain detailed qualitative data (Yin, 2018). The five case study organizations are French business schools that are members of the *Conférence des Grandes Ecoles* and that have more than one international branch campus. Each school has first-hand knowledge in the creation and management of an IBC, thus providing direct experience concerning the studied phenomenon. Our research also adds to the empirical data relating to IBCs and answers a demand for more investigations into this subject, as little is known about the management of international branch campuses by their home institutions (Healey, 2015). The investigation of this topic via five French business schools contributes to the originality of our study.

In the next chapter, we will look at the study context and introduce each of the five case studies. The aim is to highlight the elements linked to the motivations to create IBCs, how they are managed, and the overall impact they have on the home institution.

CHAPTER 4. Study Context and Case Presentations

In this chapter, we will discuss the context of our research before presenting the case studies. First, we will give an overview of the French higher education system. Secondly, we will review the major accreditation agencies, on both the national and international level. This is followed by the presentation of each case study and a brief history per institution. We will then examine their statute and governance before discussing the structure and the program offering of their IBCs.

4.1 French Higher Education and International Accreditations

Higher education in France is unique when compared to other national education systems (Power, 2003). In the following section, the French higher education system will be explained to highlight these differences. The state of transnational education in France is next, followed by a discussion of French international branch campuses. Finally, we will examine national and international accreditations that are related to French business schools.

4.1.1 An Overview of French Higher Education

The higher education system in France is comprised of both universities and *Grandes Ecoles* (literally 'great schools' in English). The *Grandes Ecoles* generally offer professional education, mainly in engineering and business, while the universities provide higher education in the arts, sciences, and some professional fields (Power, 2003; Watkins & Tse, n.d.).

The first French universities were created in the Middle Ages. The University of Paris came into being during the 12th century because of the growth of the Parisian schools that were grouped together on the hill called the Montagne Sainte-Geneviève. These schools provided instruction in four areas: law, theology, medicine, and liberal arts (Sorbonne, 2018; Tronchet, 2015). Other universities were soon founded in the provincial regions, such as Toulouse (1220), Montpellier (1289), and Orleans (1306). Universities continued to be created and to grow on through the Renaissance (Tronchet, 2015).

However, in the 18th century, the royal power felt a need to create more specialized institutions to serve the needs of the State. These schools, or *Grandes Ecoles*, were created to train the students to be civil servants, engineers, and military personnel for the major bodies of the French government (Tronchet, 2015). First was the founding in 1747 of the *Ecole des Ponts et Chaussées* (The School of Bridges and Highways), followed by the *Ecole du Génie Militaire* (The Army Corps School of Engineers) in 1748 (Power, 2003). The creation of the *Grandes Ecoles* has been a continuous process, with some schools being founded in the 20th century. The *Ecole*

Nationale d'Administration (the National School of Administration, or ENA), for example, was created in 1945 to train future government employees for positions in post-World War II France (Tronchet, 2015).

The screening process for the *Grandes Ecoles* is very competitive. The selection takes place either through a set of written and oral exams that is prepared over one or two years in special preparatory classes known as *classes préparatoires aux grandes écoles* (CPGE), or *classes prépas* (preparatory classes). A student may also enter directly after the *Baccalauréat* (the French high school diploma) based on his academic file, though this is a less common route. Students may also join the *Grandes Ecoles* after a university degree and top-ranked schools also recruit students from outside of the *classes préparatoires* system (Power, 2003; AGREA, 2018; Watkins & Tse, n.d.).

French business schools, known as *Ecoles Supérieures de Commerce* (Higher Schools of Business, or ESCs) were created to educate the children of bourgeois families in the aspects of business management and were supported by the regional Chambers of Commerce and Industry (CCI). The CCIs were created in 1803 by Napoleon to sustain the development of both private companies and the regional economy (Carton et al., 2018). The private ESCs were known for their smaller class size and a lower teacher-to-student ratio than the larger public universities. However, the ESCs were considered a second choice after engineering schools that were historically and socially more attractive. The oldest ESC still existing in France is ESCP founded in Paris in 1819 (Carton et al., 2018).

Originally, ESCs were not considered a *Grande Ecole* because they did not require an entrance exam, nor did they require preparatory classes to study for the concours. The *Ecole des Hautes Etudes Commerciales de Paris* (HEC Paris) became the first to do both around the beginning of the 20th century in order to increase its reputation and to differentiate itself from other French business schools. More business schools soon followed suite (Tronchet, 2015).

It was not until the end of World War II that French business schools obtained the status of *Grande Ecole*. In a 1947 decree, the French state grouped all the business schools under one network known as the *Ecoles Supérieures de Commerce d'Administration des Entreprises* (Higher Schools of Business Administration, or ESCAE). All schools had a common final examination and issued common diplomas. Three schools – HEC Paris, ESSEC, and HEC Nord (today known as EDHEC) – chose not to join this network. ESCP left the network in 1969, followed by other schools over the years leading to the dissolution of the ESCAE network in 1991 (Ecoles-Commerce, 2018).

Inspired by ESCAE and American business schools, Gaston Berger - the director of higher education at the Ministry of National Education - created in 1955 the *Instituts d'Administration*

des Entreprises (the Institutes of Business Administration, or IAE). The goal was for French universities to offer business management education like American universities do with their business schools. The IAEs were originally designed to train students with degrees in engineering, law, arts and humanities, and science in business administration with evening classes over a one-year period. Seen as a public option for business schools, the IAE network today includes *instituts* based in 38 public universities throughout the French territory (IAE France, 2018).

As the ESCAE began to decline, another network was soon created: the *Conférence des Grandes Ecoles* (CGE). The CGE is an association that was launched in 1973 to bring a collaboration among the *Grandes Ecoles* concerning reflections on higher education, research, and best practices. The association was originally composed of 12 *Grandes Ecoles*, but today boasts 238 institutions in the fields of engineering, business management, architecture, design, political science, as well as other disciplines (CGE, 2017). To qualify for membership, a school must be accredited by the *Ministère de l'Enseignement Supérieur, de la Recherche et de l'Innovation* (Ministry of Higher Education, Research and Innovation); offer a master's degree; and go through an audit. Being in the CGE is seen as a symbol of quality. There are currently 38 French business schools in the CGE (l'Etudiant, 2023). Table 29 lists the 2023 ranking of these institutions.

Table 29. The CGE ranking of French business schools

Position	School	Position	School
1	HEC Paris	20	EM Normandie
2	ESSEC	21	Institut Mines-Télécom
3	ESCP	22	Burgundy School of Business
4	EDHEC	23	ISC Paris
5	emlyon	24	EDC Paris Business School
6	SKEMA	25	Paris School of Business
7	IESEG	26	ESC Clermont Business School
8	NEOMA	27	ESDES
9	Audencia	28	INSEEC
10	Toulouse Business School	29	ESCE
11	KEDGE	30	IPAG
12	Montpellier Business School	31	South Champagne Business School
13	Excelia	32	ICD
14	Grenoble EM	33	ISG
15	ICN	34	ISTEC
16	ESSCA	35	Brest Business School
17	Rennes School of Business	36	EBS Paris
18	EM Strasbourg	37	IDRAC
19	EMLV	38	ESC Pau

Source: Adapted from l'Etudiant (2023)

4.1.1.1 Transnational Education in France

A study by Ramanantsoa and Delpech (2016), in conjunction with France Stratégie (a government policy analysis body), attempts to provide a current state of affairs about French HEIs and their internationalization efforts. According to the report, French HEIs possess 140 physical locations abroad. This includes 62 franchises, 40 IBCs, and 38 joint ventures. About 330 French degrees are delivered with partner institutions abroad, while at least 138 distance learning programs are followed by students outside of France. The countries hosting the highest numbers of French programs are Morocco, Vietnam, China, Lebanon, and Tunisia (Ramanantsoa & Delpech, 2016).

French business schools train almost 3,000 students abroad with IBCs being their preferred delivery type. These IBCs provide services for either the school's own students or to professionals via executive education programs (Ramanantsoa & Delpech, 2016).

4.1.1.2 International Branch Campuses in France

According to the C-BERT listing in March 2023, there are nine French business schools that have IBCs. ESCP has five IBCs; SKEMA has four; emlyon and Toulouse Business School (TBS) have three each; ESSEC, EDHEC and INSEAD have two each; and HEC Paris and INSEEC have one IBC each. There are also a handful of French schools and universities that have an IBC but are not business schools: *l'Ecole Supérieure des Arts et Techniques de la Mode* (ESMOD) with 13 IBCs, *l'Ecole Nationale Supérieure d'Architecture de Nantes* (ENSA Nantes), the Université-Paris Sorbonne, and the Université-Paris Dauphine each with one IBC (Cross-Border Education Research Team, 2023). Table 30 highlights these campuses.

Table 30. French international branch campuses

ESMOD 1 ESMOD, Jakarta 2 ESMOD, Kuala Lumpur 3 ESMOD, Dubai 4 VAKKO ESMOD Fashion Academy, Istanbul 5 ESMOD, Tunis 6 ESMOD, Damascus 7 ESMOD, Beirut 8 ESMOD, Beijing 9 ESMOD, Guangzhou 10 ESMOD, Moscow* 11 ESMOD, Oslo, Moteskolen AS 12 ESMOD, Seoul 13 ESMOD, Sousse# 14 ESMOD, Tokyo	SKEMA Business School 1 SKEMA, Brazil 2 SKEMA, China 3 SKEMA, USA 4 SKEMA, South Africa
	Toulouse Business School 1 TBS, London (closed in 2021) 2 TBS, Casablanca 3 TBS, Barcelona
	EDHEC Business School 1 EDHEC, London 2 EDHEC, Singapore
	HEC Paris 1 HEC Paris, Qatar
ESCP 1 ESCP, Berlin 2 ESCP, Turin 3 ESCP, Madrid 4 ESCP, London 5 ESCP, Warsaw 6 ESCP, Dubai#	ESSEC 1 ESSEC Africa (Morocco) 2 ESSEC Asia-Pacific (Singapore)
	INSEAD 1 INSEAD, Abu Dhabi 2 INSEAD, Asia (Singapore)
OMNES Education (formerly INSEEC) 1 OMNES Education, London 2 Monaco# 3 Geneva# 4 San Francisco# 5 Abidjan# 6 Barcelona# 7 Munich#	Université Paris-Sorbonne 1 Paris-Sorbonne Abu Dhabi
	ENSA Nantes 1 ENSA Nantes Mauritius
Emlyon 1 emlyon, Casablanca (closed in 2023) 2 emlyon, Shanghai 3 Asia-Europe Business School, Shanghai	Université Paris-Dauphine 1 Université Paris-Dauphine, Tunis

Source: Adapted from C-BERT (2023)

Further investigation on the websites of the business schools noted by C-BERT led to a modification of the listing. TBS closed their London campus in 2021, while emlyon closed theirs in Casablanca in 2023 (AFP, 2023; Bousquet, 2022). OMNES Education has campuses that are not listed by C-BERT: Shanghai, San Francisco, as well as Monaco, Geneva, Barcelona, and

* On the C-BERT listing but is not promoted on the school's website.

Not yet on the C-BERT listing but is promoted on the school's website.

Munich (via the acquisition of the International University of Monaco, CREA Geneva, and EU Business School, respectively). There are three business schools that do not appear on the list that also have IBCs: ESSCA with campuses in Budapest and Shanghai; EM Normandie with campuses in Oxford, Dublin, and Dubai; and ICN with a campus in Berlin. Another school, KEDGE, claims to have campuses in China and Africa, but these sites are listed as *campus associées à international* (international associated campuses) on their website, and are in fact partner institutions (KEDGE, 2022). INSEAD was removed from the list as is not included in the *Classement de Grandes Ecoles de Commerce* (French business school rankings) anymore. Table 31 summarizes the French business schools and the creation date of their IBC(s).

Table 31. French business schools with IBCs

	School ⁶	IBC	School	IBC
1	SKEMA	Suzhou, China (2009) Raleigh, NC USA (2010) Belo Horizonte, Brazil (2017) Stellenbosch, South Africa (2019) Montreal, Canada [#] (2019) Nanjing, China [#] (2020)	6 emlyon	Shanghai (2007) Asia-Europe Business School, Shanghai (2015)
2	EDHEC	London (1998) Singapore (2011)	7 ESCP	London (1973) Berlin (1973) Turin (2004) Madrid (2007) Warsaw (2016) Dubai [#] (2022)
3	OMNES Education (Formerly INSEEC)	London (2009) Monaco ^{*#} (2010) Geneva ^{*#} (2014) San Francisco [#] (2015) Abidjan [#] (2019) Barcelona ^{*#} (2022) Munich ^{*#} (2022)	8 HEC Paris	Qatar (2010)
			9 ESSCA	Budapest [#] (1993) Shanghai [#] (2007)
4	ESSEC	ESSEC Asia-Pacific, Singapore (2005) ESSEC Africa, Morocco (2016)	10 EM Normandie	Oxford [#] (2014) Dublin [#] (2017) Dubai [#] (2022)
5	TBS	Barcelona (1995) Casablanca (2001)	11 ICN	Berlin [#] (2019)

Source: Adapted from C-BERT (2023)

⁶ Though included in the C-BERT listing, INSEAD was left out as it is not listed in the Grandes Ecoles business school ranking.

* Acquisition

Not yet on the C-Bert listing but is promoted on the school's website.

4.1.2 Accreditations

Accreditations are important for business schools because they provide a comprehensive framework for quality assurance, boost global recognition, and nurture connections with the business world (Carton et al., 2018). We will first look at the national accreditations before discussing the international ones that are linked to French business schools.

4.1.2.1 National Accreditations

Higher education in France falls under the *Ministère de l'Enseignement Supérieur, de la Recherche et de l'Innovation* (Ministry of Higher Education, Research and Innovation, or MESRI). MESRI grants a visa to three-year or five-year business and management programs that are audited every five years. The visa allows a school to have a *diplôme visé par l'Etat* (a State recognized degree) as part of the European cycle of the LMD classification (Licence, Masters, Doctorate)⁷. Official state recognition gives schools the opportunity to enter into agreements with the best international universities. A school must have obtained state recognition before requesting to have its diploma certified as a *degree of excellence*. For this request, business schools are evaluated by an agency called the *Commission d'Evaluation des Formations et Diplômes de Gestions* (Evaluation Commission for Management Training and Diplomas, or CEFDG) which includes academics in management science, as well as professionals. The agency assesses business programs and gives its conclusions to MESRI, which then decides whether to certify the diploma. A program may receive the *grade de licence* (an accreditation for a three-year degree) or the *grade de master* (an accreditation for a five-year degree). This accreditation allows these degrees to be recognized by all public institutions and are valid for a maximum of five years before they must be renewed (Blanchard & Crespy, 2023).

Another agency, the *Haut Conseil de l'Evaluation de la Recherche et de l'Enseignement Supérieur* (High Council for the Evaluation of Research and Higher Education, or HCERES) is an independent entity that evaluates universities and research units and publishes their results. Their reports provide an analysis of the strengths and weaknesses of the institution evaluated, accompanied by the recommendations made by the committee of experts. The results of the report are seen as a sign of quality for the school concerning its research and teaching initiatives (Carton et al., 2018).

⁷ A result of the Bologna Process that seeks to bring more coherence to higher education systems across Europe. The process established the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) to facilitate student and staff mobility (European Commission, n.d.).

4.1.2.2 International Accreditations

There are three main international accreditation organizations for business schools: AACSB, EQUIS, and AMBA (Carton et al., 2018).

AACSB

The *Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business* (AACSB) is the oldest of the main accreditation agencies being founded in 1916 by 17 leading American universities⁸. AACSB (2023a) defines that the purpose of the organization is to:

Foster engagement, accelerate innovation, and amplify impact in business education. This mission is aligned with AACSB's accreditation standards for business schools. AACSB strives to continuously improve engagement among business, faculty, institutions, and students so that business education is aligned with the needs of business practice. (p. 7)

The organization was originally known as the *American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business* and only accredited its first non-U.S. school in 1968 when the University of Alberta earned certification. By 1995, only two other non-U.S. schools (both Canadian) had been admitted. (Durand & McQuire, 2005).

For the next five years, AACSB put in place a deliberate strategy to expand abroad due to three major factors: 1) the saturation of the North American market, 2) the growth of business education outside of North America, and 3) the realization that globalization was necessary to maintain its position as a dominant force in business school accreditation market (Durand & McQuire, 2005). The organization changed its name to the *International Association for Management Education* (IAME) to reflect the new strategy. It initially collaborated with the *European Foundation for Management Development* (EFMD) to develop joint standards and perhaps joint accreditation procedures. This cooperation failed due to the fact that "AACSB potentially saw EFMD as being their spearhead into Europe. The Europeans were not really willing to hand over to the AACSB the responsibility for setting the standards in Europe" (Durand & McGuire, 2005, p. 179).

With the end of the collaboration with EFMD, the organization changed its name back to AACSB (but now standing for the *Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business*) and launched a pilot project with a small set of non-North American institutions that offered high quality

⁸ Columbia University, Cornell University, Dartmouth College, Harvard University, New York University, Northwestern University, Ohio State University, Tulane University, University of California at Berkeley, University of Chicago, University of Illinois, University of Nebraska, University of Pennsylvania, University of Pittsburgh, University of Texas, University of Wisconsin-Madison, and Yale University (NMU, 2023).

business degrees in France (ESSEC Business School), the Netherlands (Erasmus University), the United Kingdom (the University of Warwick), Mexico (ITSEM), and Hong Kong (the Chinese University of Hong Kong). The goal of the project was to show the quality of AACSB standards and acknowledge the differences in educational systems, therefore reinforcing the legitimacy of the organization in management and academic communities (Durand & McQuire, 2005). As of August 2023, there were 1,004 accredited institutions in over 60 countries that are AACSB-accredited (AACSB, 2023b).

EQUIS

The *European Quality Improvement System* (EQUIS) was created in 1997 by EFMD, a global not-for-profit organization based in Brussels. The objective of EQUIS is to raise the standard of management education worldwide (EFMD, 2023). It was created at a time when there was an increased competition among non-U.S. business schools who were looking for accreditation as a means of gaining a strategic advantage. It also directly challenged the internationalization efforts of AACSB (Durand & McQuire, 2005). Schools are evaluated on three main criteria: connections with practice; ethics, responsibility, and sustainability; and internationalization. As of November 2023, there were 218 institutions in 45 countries that are EQUIS-accredited with the majority based in Europe (116) (EFMD, 2023). Though the EQUIS accreditation is for the whole institution, EFMD also has the EPAS accreditation that is awarded to a specific business or management program within the school. In 2020, EFMD rebranded the EPAS label as EFMD Accredited. Institutions may seek to be EFMD Accredited before attempting to earn EQUIS accreditation. There are more than 120 programs that are EFMD Accredited (EFMD, 2023).

AMBA

The *Association of MBAs* was created in 1967 by eight U.K.-based business school graduates who launched the *Business Graduate Association* (BGA) with a mission to improve the quality of education received in graduate business schools in the United Kingdom. At the end of the 1980s it changed its name to the *Association of MBAs* with a focus on accrediting MBAs programs at business schools. The organization is committed "to raising the profile and quality standards of business education internationally, for the benefit of Business Schools, MBA students and graduates and alumni, employers, communities and society " (AMBA, 2023a, para. 3). It is mainly an accreditation service for Master of Business Administration (MBA) and Doctor of Business Administration (DBA) programs. As of November 2023, there were 304 AMBA-accredited schools in 60 countries (AMBA, 2023b).

All three accreditations are awarded on a three-year or five-year basis and are renewable after an audit by the organization. There are subtle differences among each of the accreditation agencies. AACSB evaluates a school's mission, strategic management, student support

systems, teaching staff, teaching leadership, and communal impact. They look at mainly business and accounting programs. EQUIS puts more emphasis on pedagogy and innovation. AMBA certifies MBA and DBA programs based on the course curriculum, teaching faculty, strategy, and student interaction (Edmium, 2020). To hold all three accreditations is known as having the *triple crown*. As of June 2023, only 124 business schools in the world hold this distinction (MBA Today, 2023). The next section is dedicated to presenting our case studies.

4.2 Presentation of the Case Studies

This section aims to describe the case studies and gives an organizational profile of each school. We consider each organization separately. Table 32 outlines the key characteristics of the institutions.

Table 32. Key characteristics of the case studies

Institution and Key Figures	
EM Normandie	
Foundation Date of the School	1871
Number of Students	6,500
Number of Permanent Faculty	115
Accreditations	AACSB, EQUIS, AMBA
IBCs	Oxford, Dublin, and Dubai
ESCP	
Foundation Date of the School	1819
Number of Students	9,200
Number of Permanent Faculty	200
Accreditations	AACSB, EQUIS, AMBA
IBCs	London, Berlin, Turin, Madrid, Warsaw, and Dubai
ESSCA	
Foundation Date of the School	1909
Number of Students	7,000
Number of Permanent Faculty	157
Accreditations	AACSB, EQUIS, AMBA
IBCs	Budapest and Shanghai
OMNES Education⁹	
Foundation Date of the School	1975
Number of Students	40,000
Number of Permanent Faculty	345
Accreditations	AACSB, AMBA
IBCs	London, Monaco, Geneva, Lausanne, Barcelona, Munich, Abidjan, and San Francisco

⁹ Formerly INSEEC.

Table 32 (Continued)

Institution and Key Figures	
Epsilon Business School¹⁰	
Foundation Date of the School	2009
Number of Students	10,000
Number of Permanent Faculty	190
Accreditations	AACSB, EQUIS, AMBA
IBCs	United States, Brazil, China, South Africa, and Canada

Source: Elaboration of the author

4.2.1 Case Study 1: EM Normandie

In this section, we present a brief history of EM Normandie. Then, we discuss the statute and governance of the organization. Finally, we examine the school's IBCs and their program offerings.

4.2.1.1 A Brief History of EM Normandie

In 1871, The *Ecole Supérieure de Commerce du Havre* (ESC Le Havre) was founded by Jules and Jacques Siegfried as a result of the Le Havre Chamber of Commerce and Industry's desire to train the staff working for local businesses and industries in methods of global trade, since Le Havre is a major port in France. The school's first promotion only had 26 students (EM Normandie, 2022).

A century later, in 1977, the Chamber of Commerce and the Port of Le Havre Authority created the *Institut Portuaire d'Enseignement et de Recherche* (the Port Institute of Education and Research, or IPER), with the mission to train executives and CEOs from the international port community in administration and management of port structures (EM Normandie, 2022).

In 1982, the Chambers of Commerce of Caen and Le Havre jointly decided to form the Groupe ESC Normandie and consequently to open a second campus in Caen called *Sup Europe Centre d'Etudes Supérieures Européennes de Caen* (the Caen Sup Europe Center for Higher European Studies, or Sup Europe CESEC). This was followed by the school joining the *Conférence des Grandes Ecoles* in 1988 (EM Normandie, 2022).

In 2004, the Groupe ESC Normandie decided to merge the three entities - ESC Le Havre, IPER, and Sup Europe CESEC – under the brand *Ecole de Management Normandie* (EM Normandie).

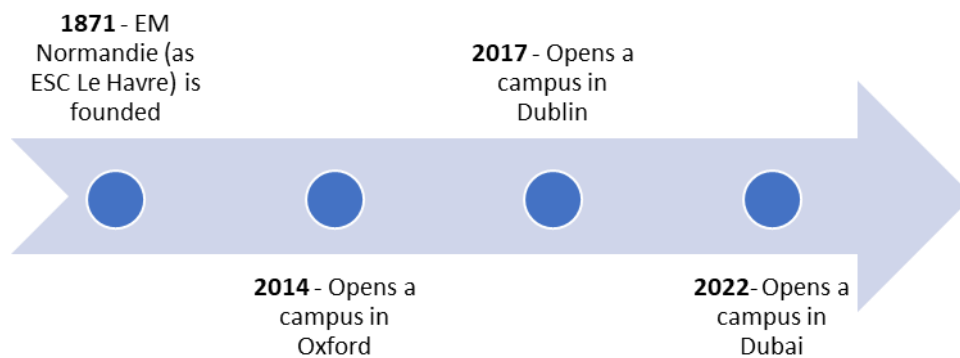
¹⁰ The name of the institution has been changed for confidentiality reasons.

In 2007, EM Normandie officially changed its status and became a non-profit organization under the French Law of 1901¹¹ (EM Normandie, 2022).

In 2013, the school opened a new campus in Paris to reinforce links with major French and international companies, as most are based in the Ile-de-France region. In 2014, it opened a new campus in Oxford to provide a solution to students who wanted to study abroad but stay within the structure of school. It was also awarded AACSB accreditation the same year. In 2016, EM Normandie earned EQUIS accreditation followed by the creation of a new campus in Dublin in 2017. Since Dublin hosts several tech giants like Apple, Google, Amazon, and Microsoft and is a member of the European Union, it was a way to link students with high tech companies and to circumvent potential issues with the Brexit referendum (EM Normandie, 2022).

In 2022, EM Normandie opened a campus in Dubai, UAE. The goal of the campus is to welcome 600 students, with 70% being from the Persian Gulf region. The remaining 30% will be for students from the French campuses. At the end of 2022, the school earned the AMBA accreditation. In 2025, EM Normandie plans to open a site with the University of Massachusetts Boston College of Management (EM Normandie, 2023a).

Figure 17. Key IBC dates for EM Normandie



Source: Elaboration of the author

¹¹ The French law 'Loi de 1901' allows any group of individuals to set up a legally-recognized association with a limited amount of paperwork and without expensive dues. Associations can make a profit, but only for re-investment or to cover costs (Légifrance, 2023).

4.2.1.2 Statute and Governance of EM Normandie

EM Normandie is a stand-alone non-profit association under the French Law of 1901, operating under a private law contract. Full managerial responsibility is exercised by the dean of the school whose duties include the implementation of the policies approved by the Board of Trustees (*le Conseil d'Administration*). The board is made up of representatives from the school, regional institutions, and local companies (EM Normandie, 2023b).

Assisting the Board of Trustees is the Strategic Orientation Committee which is composed of representatives from the economic and academic world that helps the school in its academic and strategic thinking (EM Normandie, 2023b).

The Executive Committee (*le Comité Exécutif* or COMEX) defines and makes decisions on the school's strategic issues, for which they set policies and procedures in accordance with the orientations decided by the Board for Trustees (EM Normandie, 2023b). Table 4.4 lists the members of the EM Normandie's Executive Committee.

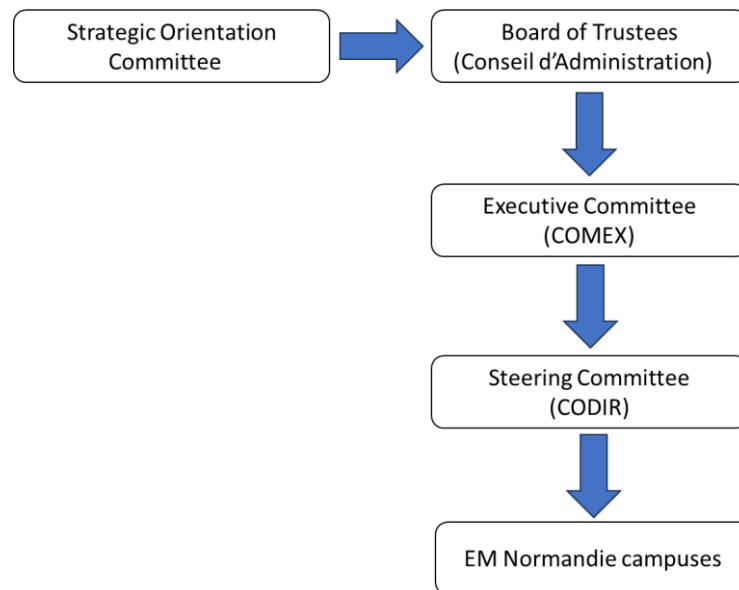
Table 33. The Executive Committee of EM Normandie

Dean	Director of Strategic Management and Performance
General Secretary	Director of Programmes
Dean of Faculty	Director of International Affaires
Director of Digital Transformation	Director of Brand and Experience of EM Normandie
Director of Admissions	

Source: Adapted from EM Normandie (2023b)

The Steering Committee (*le Comité de Direction* or CODIR) oversees the day-to-day running of the institution and the implementation of the overall policies. It is comprised of several members of the school, including the members of the Executive Committee, the directors of the different campuses, and other managers (EM Normandie, 2023b). Figure 18 highlight the governance structure of EM Normandie.

Figure 18. The governance structure of EM Normandie



Source: Elaboration of the author

4.2.1.3 The IBC Structure of EM Normandie and Program Offering

The Dublin campus is an associate campus of EM Normandie; however, the Oxford campus is an independent branch. It is owned and operated by EM Normandie U.K. Limited which is registered in England and Wales. EM Normandie U.K., Limited is a wholly owned subsidiary of its parent organization Ecole de Management de Normandie (EM Normandie U.K., 2019). The campus in Dubai is located in Dubai Knowledge Park which is owned by the TECOM Group (DKP, n.d.). The legal structure of EM Normandie Dubai is unknown at this time.

The programs offered at EM Normandie's IBCs focus on the delivery of the Bachelor in International Management, the Bachelor of Business Administration, and the Master in Management (PGE)¹². Students usually study at the campuses for one semester and at different years of the programs.

For the Oxford campus, the offering focuses more on the PGE program:

“”We are running from the first year, second year, third year, fourth year of the PGE – the Grande Ecole program and we have fifth year specialization in banking, finance and FinTech...taught by full time professors...as well as local adjuncts.” (Director of International Affairs)

¹² Programme Grande Ecole (PGE) is the classic curriculum at a French business school which grants a diploma at the five-year master's level (Darmon, 2008)

The Dublin campus offers the Bachelor in International Management, the Master in Management, and a MSc Digital Marketing and Sales.

“We deliver, at the moment, an undergraduate second-year program, and master’s first-year program. So the model that we have at the moment is that we have the students for one semester only. And then they come back to one of our French campuses.” (Campus Director, Dublin)

The Dubai campus offers the Bachelor in International Management, the Bachelor of Business Administration, and the Master in Management (EM Normandie, 2023c).

ESCP is the next case that will be presented.

4.2.2 Case Study 2: ESCP

In this section, we begin with a short history of ESCP. Secondly, we review the statute and governance of the school. Lastly, we discuss IBCs of the institution and their program offerings.

4.2.2.1 A Brief History of ESCP

The *Ecole Supérieure de Commerce de Paris* (ESCP) was founded in 1819 by Germain Legret and Amédée Brodart, two former French soldiers, under the name the *Ecole Spéciale de Commerce et d’Industrie* (though it changed its name to ESCP shortly thereafter). It is considered the world’s oldest business school. (ESCP, 2023a). In 1869, the school came under the control of the Paris Chamber of Commerce and Industry. The school continued to grow and, in 1890, the French education minister officially recognized the school’s diploma, making it a *Grande Ecole d’Etat* (a top-ranking French school), essentially paving the way for it be recognized as a *Grande Ecole de Commerce* with the creation of the *Conférences de Grandes Ecoles* in 1973.

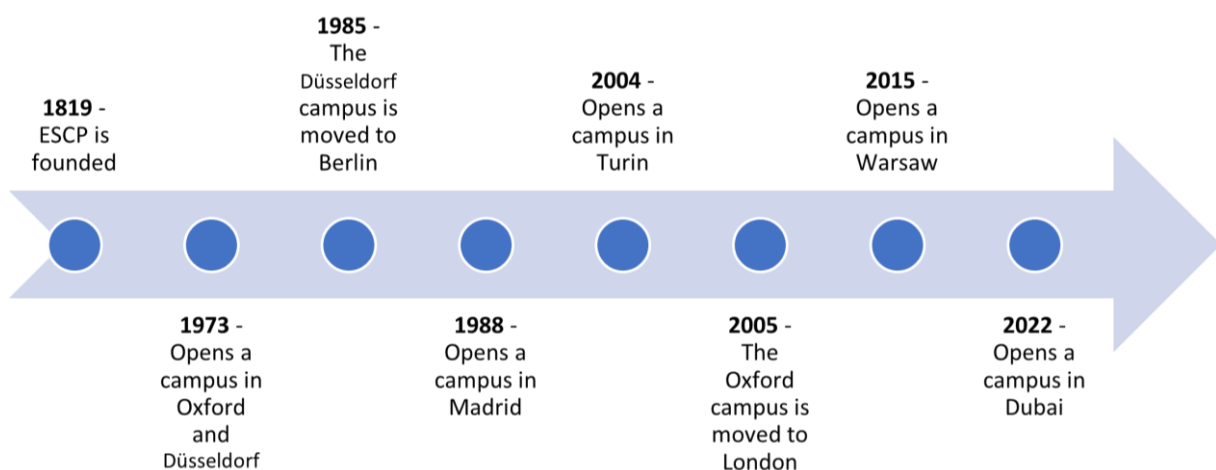
That same year, the notion of a multi-campus business school came into play with the creation of campuses in Oxford in the United Kingdom and Düsseldorf, Germany. This was done via its sister school the *Ecole Européenne des Affaires de Paris* (European School of Management, or EAP. ESCP merged with EAP in 1999). The school (via EAP) continued to deepen its European presence by moving the Düsseldorf campus to Berlin in 1985 and creating a campus in Madrid, Spain in 1988.

In 1998, the institution was awarded two international accreditations EQUIS and AMBA. In 2002, the school was awarded AACSB accreditation, making it one of the first business schools to earn the *triple crown* accreditation.

In 2004, ESCP opened its fifth campus in Turin, Italy. This was followed by the relocation of the Oxford campus to London in 2005. In 2015, the school opened its sixth campus in Warsaw, Poland via a strategic alliance with Kozminski University. In 2018, ESCP changed its statute to *Établissement d'Enseignement Supérieur Consulaire* (Consular Higher Education Institution, or EESC) giving it more autonomy and less dependence on the Paris Chamber of Commerce and Industry (ESCP, 2023a).

In 2022, the institution opened its first campus outside of Europe when it signed an agreement with the Dubai International Financial Centre (DIFC) Academy and the University Leadership Council to host a campus there (ESCP, 2023b).

Figure 19. Key IBC dates for ESCP



Source: Elaboration of the author

4.2.2.2 Statute and Governance of ESCP

ESCP is registered as an EESC. This statute allows the school to acquire capital and bring in investors. However, the Chamber of Commerce and Industry (CCI) must remain the majority shareholder with at least 51% and no other investor may hold more than 33% of the capital. In addition, the school cannot pay dividends to its shareholders (Mignot, 2019). ESCP's main shareholders are the Paris CCI, the ESCP Alumni Association and the ESCP School Foundation (ESCP, 2023c).

The European Executive Committee (COMEX) defines and makes decisions on the school's strategic issues. It is a matrix structure of management with federal directors, responsible for European functions and overall unity, and campus directors, responsible for a local campus and its development (ESCP, 2023c). Table 4.5 highlights the members of ESCP's executive committee.

Table 34. The Executive Committee for ESCP

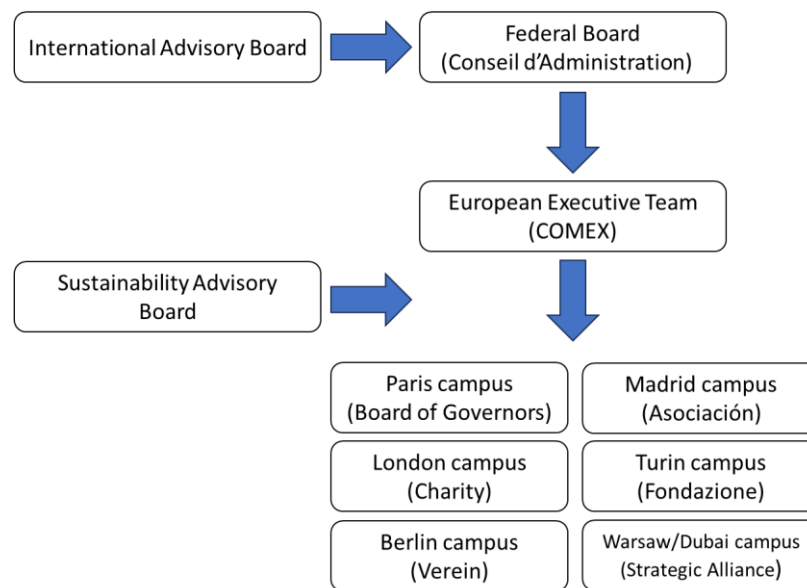
Federal
Dean and Executive President
Executive Vice-President in charge of Global Development, Partnerships and Accreditation
Executive Vice-President in charge of Academic Affairs and Student Experience
Executive Vice-President in charge of Executive Education and Corporate Relations
Dean of the Faculty
Chief of Staff and Director for Institutional Affairs, Governance and Legal Affairs
Associate Dean for Research
Associate Dean for Sustainability
Campus
ESCP Berlin Campus Dean
ESCP London Campus Dean
ESCP Madrid Campus Dean
ESCP Turin Campus Dean
ESCP Warsaw/Dubai Campus Dean

Source: Adapted from ESCP (2023c)

There is also a Board of Trustees (*le Conseil d'Administration*) that approves policies to be carried out by the COMEX. It is made up of an executive director, members of the CCI, campus representatives, faculty representatives, the dean of faculty, a student representative, a staff representative, an alumni representative, and a representative from the school's foundation (ESCP, 2023c).

Finally, there is the International Advisory Board and the Sustainability Advisory Board. The International Advisory Board consists of international business and academic leaders that help the school in its academic and strategic thinking. The Sustainability Advisory Board is based on the Berlin campus and is comprised of research, business and organization experts that advise ESCP concerning issues in sustainable business and management (ESCP, 2023c). Figure 20 shows the governance structure of ESCP.

Figure 20. The governance structure of ESCP



Source: Elaboration of the author

4.2.2.3 The IBC Structure of ESCP and Program Offering

Most campuses are non-profit entities registered in the host country:

- The London campus is a Charity
- The Berlin campus is a Verein
- The Madrid campus is an Asociación
- The Turin campus is a Fondazione

However, the Warsaw campus is a strategic alliance with Kozminski University, one of the oldest private institutions in Poland. The Dubai campus is a cooperation agreement with Dubai International Financial Centre (DIFC) Academy and the University Leadership Council (ESCP, 2023b).

ESCP's main degrees are the Bachelor in Management, the Master in Management, and the MBA in International Management. All programs are multi-campus, and to graduate, students must study on at least two campuses:

"When one student is at ESCP, he or she cannot become a graduate and will not be graduated if he or she hasn't been studying on federal campuses. That's the basic rule. You can't be an ESCP graduate if you haven't been learning on federal campuses."
(Dean and Executive President, ESCP)

This strategy is also reinforced by the campuses outside of Paris:

“The students are all normally rotating as well as some faculty members. Students are moving from one campus to another every semester. The bachelor students are staying in the same campus for a whole academic year, but they are repeating every academic year from one campus to another one.” (Dean, ESCP Madrid)

The school offers a doctoral program on the Paris and Berlin campuses, and 28 Master of Science (MSc) programs that may be earned on one or more campuses. The Dubai campus specializes in Big Data and Business Analytics and offers a MSc in the subject (ESCP, 2023b).

Our next section will discuss the ESSCA case.

4.2.3 Case Study 3: ESSCA

In this section, we present a brief history of ESSCA. Then, we discuss the statute and governance of the organization. Finally, we examine the school's IBCs and their program offerings.

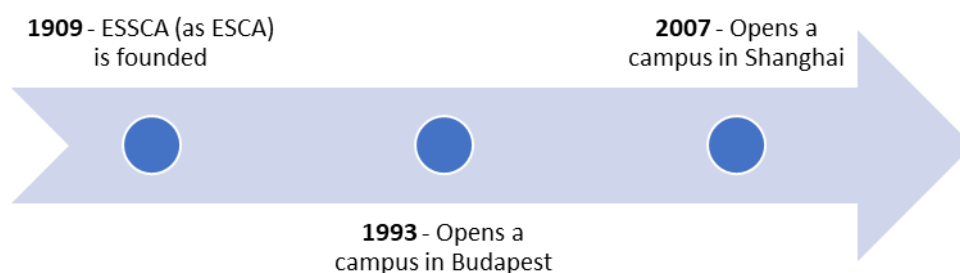
4.2.3.1 A Brief History of ESSCA

In 1909, Paul Baugus, the dean of the law faculty at the *Université Catholique de l'Ouest* (Catholic University of the West) founded the *Ecole Supérieure de Commerce d'Angers* (the Anger Higher School of Business, or ESCA). The school continued to grow and, in 1943, it changed its name to *Ecole Supérieure des Sciences Commerciales d'Angers* (the Angers Higher School of Commercial Sciences, or ESSCA) (ESSCA, 2023a).

In 1975, they gained recognition from the French government, followed by the school joining the *Conférence des Grandes Ecoles* in 1977. With continual growth, the institution decided to open a campus in Paris, as well as create a branch in Budapest, Hungary in 1993 (ESSCA, 2023a).

In the early 2000s, ESSCA enlarged its campuses in Angers and Budapest by moving into new buildings in 2001 and 2003, respectively. In 2007, the school opened a new campus in Shanghai, China. ESSCA was awarded AACSB accreditation in 2014. In 2016, the school opened three new campuses in Aix-en-Provence, Bordeaux, and Lyon, as well as earning EQUIS accreditation. In 2017, it was awarded the AMBA label making it a *triple-crown* institution. In 2022, ESSCA opened a new campus in Strasbourg receiving its first cohort in September of the same year (ESSCA, 2023a).

Figure 21. Key IBC dates for ESSCA



Source: Elaboration of the author

4.2.3.2 Statute and Governance of ESSCA

ESSCA is an association under the French Law of 1901, but also holds the label *Etablissement d'Enseignement Supérieur Privé d'Intérêt Général* (Private Higher Education Establishment of General Interest, or EESPIG), which distinguishes French private higher education establishments that are committed to the success of their students. Full managerial responsibility is exercised by the dean of the school whose duties include the implementation of the policies approved by the Board of Trustees (*le Conseil d'Administration*). The board is made up of representatives from the Catholic University of Angers, the regional Chamber of Commerce and Industry, and the ESSCA Alumni Network (ESSCA, 2023b).

In addition to the Board of Trustees, there is the International Advisory Board, which is comprised of various business leaders and international scholars. In order to guarantee coherence and coordination between these two boards, both are headed by the chairman of the Board of Trustees. The International Advisory Board meets once a year to address critical issues in the school's development strategy (ESSCA, 2023b).

The Executive Committee (COMEX) defines and makes decisions on the school's strategic issues, for which it sets policies and procedures in accordance with the orientations decided by the Board for Trustees (ESSCA, 2023b). Table 35 shows the members of ESSCA's Executive Committee.

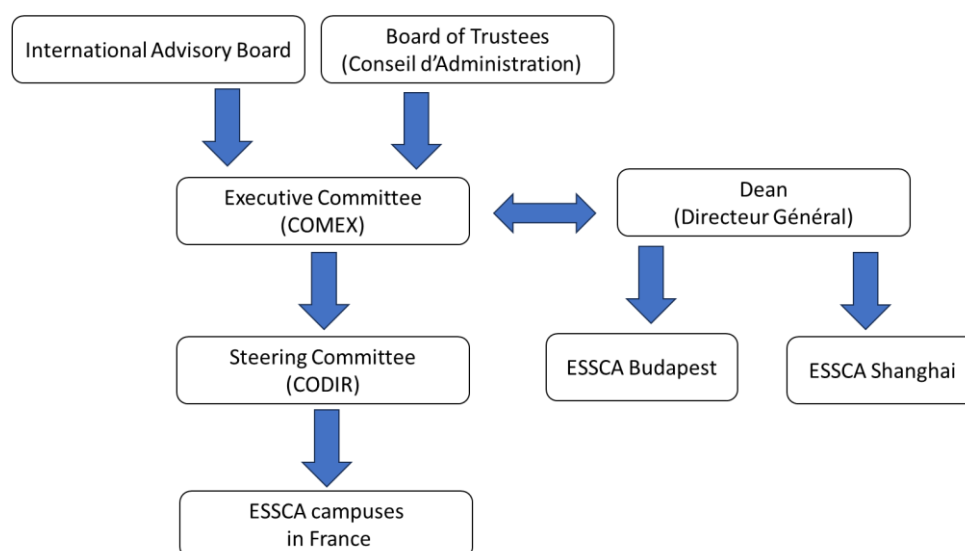
Table 35. The Executive Committee for ESSCA

Dean	Director of Executive Education
Vice-Dean	Director of Recruitment and Admissions Services
Dean of Faculty	Director of Corporate Relations
Director of Programs	Director of General Secretary Services
Director of International Relations	Director of Operations
Director of Communication and Public Relations	Director of Student Experience

Source: Adapted from ESSCA (2023b)

The Steering Committee (CODIR) supervises the day-to-day running of the institution and the implementation of the overall policies. It includes the members of the COMEX as well as the directors of the campuses in Angers, Aix-en-Provence, Bordeaux, Paris, Lyon, Strasbourg, Budapest, and Shanghai (ESSCA, 2023b). Figure 22 highlights the governance structure of ESSCA.

Figure 22. The governance structure of ESSCA



Source: Elaboration of the author

4.2.3.3 The IBC Structure of ESSCA and Program Offering

The Budapest campus operates as a foundation with close ties to Corvinus University. The Shanghai campus is an independent branch operated by HKESSCA HK LIMITED working with Shanghai International Studies University (ESSCA, 2023c).

The purpose of the Budapest and Shanghai campuses is to offer students from ESSCA and partner universities classes in English for its core programs, as well as specialized ones focusing on Central Europe or Asia. For the Budapest campus:

“We offered semester long programs, which means that all of the French students....who studied at the French campuses could make a decision to spend one semester at our Budapest campus, and we were offering second year, third year, fourth year programs...We proposed all of our courses and all of our trainings in English, which opened the possibility for the partner universities and schools to send the non-French speaking students to an ESSCA campus.” (Director, ESSCA Budapest)

Concerning the programs on the Shanghai campus:

“ESSCA's flagship program [PGE], we offer the second year, the third year, the fourth year, and the fifth year here on the grounds.... We offer different specializations in the master 1 program. We now host two Master of Science here on the ground. One is in luxury marketing; one is in digital marketing.” (Director of Studies, ESSCA Shanghai)

OMNES Education, formerly known as INSEEC, is discussed in our next section.

4.2.4 Case Study 4: OMNES Education

In this section, we begin with a short history of OMNES Education. Secondly, we review the statute and governance of the school. Lastly, we discuss IBCs of the institution and their program offerings.

4.2.4.1 A Brief History of OMNES Education

In 1975, the *Institut des Hautes Etudes Economiques et Commerciales* (the Institute of Advanced Economic and Commercial Studies, or INSEEC) was founded in Bordeaux by French businessman José Soubiran. The school grew at a fast pace, opening campuses in Paris and Lyon in 1983 and 1990, respectively. In 1988, the school founded the *Ecole de Commerce Européenne* (the European School of Business, or ECE) on its Bordeaux campus, then opened it in Lyon (OMNES Education, 2023a).

In 1994, INSEEC acquired the MBA Institute, a Franco-American Business School established in Paris in 1982, that provided an American education and prepared French students to study for MBA programs in the United States. The school continued with its acquisitions in 1996 when it took control of *Sup de Pub*, a communications institution also located in Paris (OMNES Education, 2023a).

In 2003, INSEEC, now known as the INSEEC Groupe, was bought by Career Education Corporation, a leading American company in education based in Chicago. The school became a *Grande Ecole* when it joined the *Conférence des Grandes Ecoles* in 2008. The following year, INSEEC opened a campus in the United Kingdom in the Regent Park area of London. In 2010, INSEEC acquired the International University of Monaco (IUM). Two years later, INSEEC bought *ESC Chambéry* from the regional Chamber of Commerce and Industry and turned it into its fourth French campus (OMNES Education, 2023a).

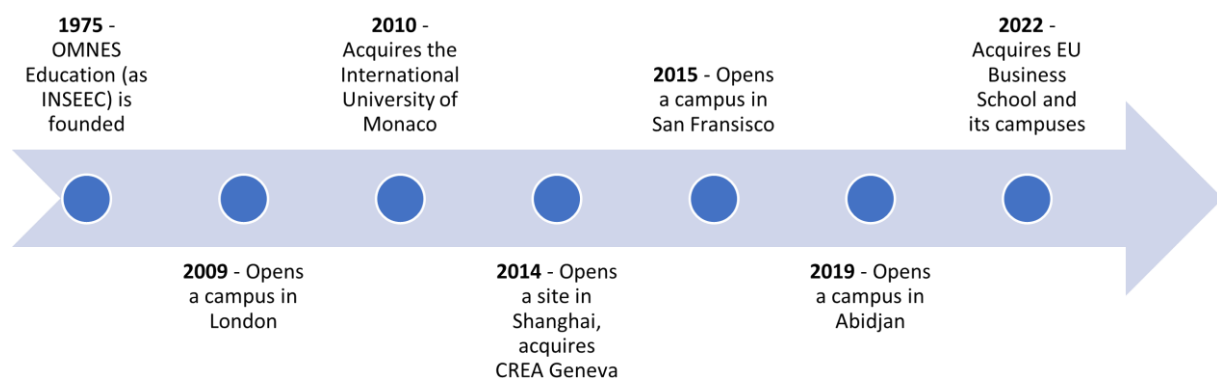
In 2013, the INSEEC Groupe was bought by APAX Partners and BPI France. The following year, INSEEC acquired CREA Geneva, a Swiss-based communication school. A campus was created in San Francisco in 2015. In 2016, APAX Partners bought five French schools from the

American group Lauréate International, namely: EBS, ESCE, ECE, IFG and the CEPC (Peltier, 2016). With the acquisition of the new schools, the INSEEC Groupe decided to change its name to INSEEC U. and also acquired the school *Hautes Etudes Internationales et Politiques* (the School of Advanced International and Political Studies, or HEIP), an institution that focuses on political science, diplomacy, and international relations with campuses in Paris, Lyon, and London. INSEEC was also awarded AMBA accreditation the same year through IUM. In 2017, CREA Geneva opened a branch in Lausanne (OMNES Education, 2023a).

In 2019, the international private equity firm Cinven acquired INSEEC U. from APAX Partners with BPI France staying on as a minority investor. In 2021, INSEEC U. rebranded itself as OMNES Education. IUM was awarded AACSB accreditation in September 2021. In 2022, OMNES Education bought EU Business School, an international business school founded in 1973 with campuses in Geneva, Barcelona, and Munich (OMNES Education, 2023a).

Currently, OMNES Education is comprised of 15 schools (in management, communication, engineering, and political science and international relations) with campuses in Paris, Lyon, Bordeaux, Chambéry, London, Geneva, Monaco, San Francisco, Barcelona, Munich, and Abidjan (OMNES Education, 2023a).

Figure 23. Key IBC dates for OMNES Education



Source: Elaboration of the author

4.2.4.2 Statute and Governance of OMNES Education

OMNES Education is an association under the French Law of 1901. The school is managed by the executive chairman, the general manager, and the deputy general manager who are advised

by the Supervisory Board that consists of two international business leaders. Their purpose is to focus on the strategic orientation of the institution (OMNES Education, 2023b).

The executives and the Supervisory Board (COMEX) are also advised by two Advisory Boards, one being academic and one being international. Each board consists of various international scholars and business managers (OMNES Education, 2023b). Table 36 lists the members of the Executive Committee for OMNES Education.

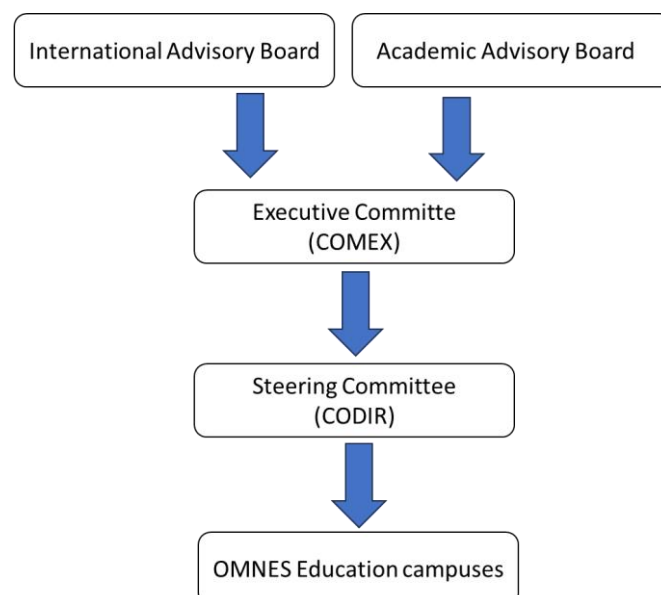
Table 36. The Executive Committee for OMNES Education

Executive President	Director of Bachelor INSEEC and the Lyon campus
Director of MSc INSEEC and the Bordeaux campus	Deputy Director of the Group
Director of IT and Group Transformation	Director of Strategy and M&A
Director of ESCE and the Coeur Défense campus	Academic Director
Director of Human and Social Engagement	Director of Growth
The Supervisory Board	

Source: Adapted from OMNES Education (2023b)

The Steering Committee (CODIR) supervises the day-to-day running of the institution and the implementation of the overall policies. It includes the COMEX, as well as school and program directors (OMNES Education, 2023b). Figure 24 shows the government structure of OMNES Education.

Figure 24. The governance structure of OMNES Education



Source: Elaboration of the author

4.2.4.3 The IBC Structure of OMNES Education and Program Offering

Due to the growth and acquisitions of OMNES Education, it is difficult to know the structure of all the foreign branch campuses. However, according to the managers of the London, San Francisco, and Geneva campuses, these branches are private limited companies registered in the host countries.

Each of the campuses has different specializations and is used within the OMNES Education structure. The San Francisco campus has a focus on short-term programs in innovation and entrepreneurship that:

“Range from one week to ten weeks, maximum. And we have undergrads as young as second year students up to executives, so executive MBA programs. So we simply can design and deliver programs here that we can never imagine doing in France...providing the experience that you can't provide in France.” (Director, OMNES Education San Francisco campus)

The London campus offers a variety of courses in business management, engineering, finance, political science, advertising, and luxury due to its popularity within the OMNES Education network:

“We, for example, we have a large number of engineering students across the programs every year...And over the last three years, we've run and developed a successful program for third-year international relations students from our political science school.” (Director, OMNES Education London campus)

The other campuses provide a variety of degrees. The CREA Geneva and Lausanne offer bachelor and master programs, as well as executive education. IUM offers a Bachelor in Business Administration (BBA), several master degrees, an MBA, a DBA, and executive training. The campus in Abidjan is focusing more on executive education in the Ivory Coast and the surrounding areas. The Geneva, Munich and Barcelona campuses offer bachelor, master, and MBA programs taught in English as part of the EU Business School acquisition (OMNES Education, 2023a).

Our last case deals with Epsilon Business School and it will be presented in the next section.

4.2.5 Case Study 5: Epsilon Business School

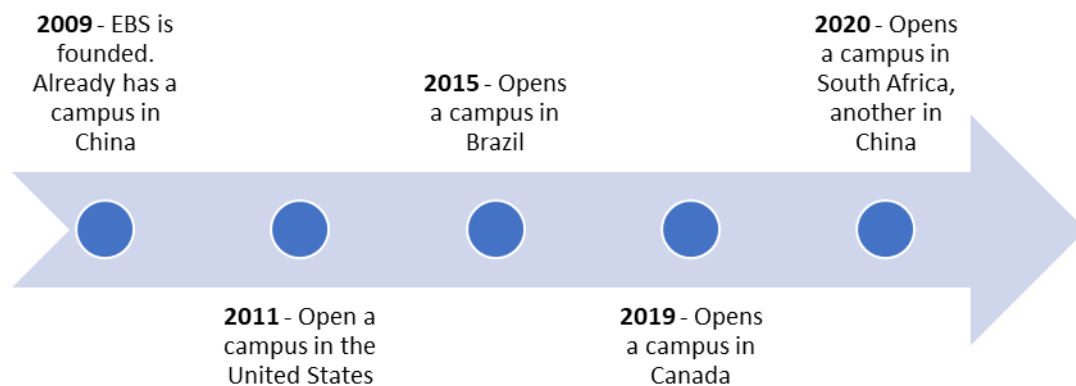
Firstly, we present a brief history of Epsilon Business School. Then, we discuss the statute and governance of the organization. Finally, we examine the school's IBCs and their program offerings.

4.2.5.1 A Brief History of Epsilon Business School

In 2009, Epsilon Business School (EBS) was created from the merger of two French business schools. It already had a campus in China via one of the merger schools. In 2011, it opened a new campus in the United States and was also re-accredited for EQUIS. The school opened a campus in Paris in 2012 and was re-accredited for the *Conférence des Grandes Ecoles* the following year.

In 2014, the institution was awarded AACSB accreditation. A new campus was opened in Brazil in 2015 and the school became *triple crowned* in 2016 after earning the AMBA accreditation. A center dedicated to innovation and artificial intelligence opened in Canada in 2019. In 2020, the institution created two new campuses in South Africa and China.

Figure 25. Key IBC dates for Epsilon Business School



Source: Elaboration of the author

4.2.5.2 Statute and Governance of Epsilon Business School

EBS is an association under the French Law of 1901, the school is managed by a General Assembly (GA) and Board of Trustees. Managerial responsibility is exercised by the dean of the school whose duties include the implementation of the policies approved by the two previous mentioned entities.

The school is also advised by an International Advisory Board and a Research Advisory Committee. Both contain international business leaders and leading academics with the goal of counseling the school on its international strategic development.

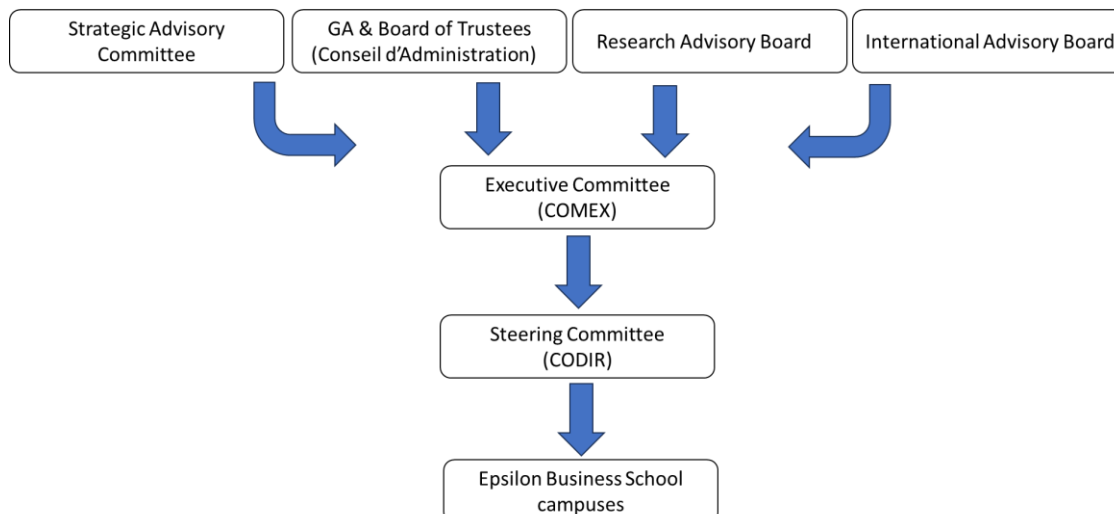
The Executive Committee (COMEX) deals with the operational and strategic aspects of EBS over the medium and long term. Table 37 lists the members of EBS' executive committee, while Figure 26 spotlights EBS' governance structure.

Table 37. The Executive Committee for Epsilon Business School

Dean & Executive President
Chief of Staff to the Dean/Director or Marketing and Communication
Vice Dean of School Themes (AI, Design, Geopolitics, Law)
Director of Innovation and Learner Experience
Chief Financial Officer
Director of Programs, International and Student
Director of Human Resources and Organization
Dean of Faculty and Research
Director of Accreditations, Quality & Corporate Social Responsibility
Director of the Corporate Office

Source: Adapted from Epsilon Business School (2023¹³)

Figure 26. The governance structure of Epsilon Business School



Source: Elaboration of the author

¹³ Source to be left anonymous.

4.2.5.3 The IBC Structure of Epsilon Business School and Program Offering

The IBCs are registered nonprofit entities in the host country. Each rents the facilities from and works closely with a partner university that is located near a regional technology park. The IBCs offer the BBA, Master in Management (PGE), MBA, and several master specialization programs. Studying abroad is required by EBS students, with an emphasis on using EBS' foreign campuses as explained by the International Office Manager:

"With our Programme Grande Ecole, students need to have at least one-year international experience in order to graduate. With our BBA program, they need to have at least one-year experience to graduate... particularly with our international campuses, because that really opens up the best amount of places for students to be able to study abroad, because as they're staying within EBS, we don't need to respect a balance of flows as you may have to do with a partner university."

The branch campuses may offer different programs at distinct times in the students' curriculum as explained by the director of the EBS American campus:

"There's the PGE program. Programme Grande Ecole is one of the flagship degrees that's offered in EBS. And within that program, students have the option to mobilize in their second year. So many of them choose the American campus, and Brazil of course, and China to pursue their international studies, which is a requirement for the degree. There is a large ... The lion share of students come in that population. But we also have the MScs, the Master programs and the BBA."

In brief, each case has its own unique history but shares similarities in its statute and governance structure. Most of the case branch campuses focus on offering courses for either the Master in Management or the BBA, to students from the home institution at various periods in their academic planning.

Conclusion to Chapter 4

The French higher education system is different in comparison to other national education structures, as it is divided into two main groups: universities and *Grandes Ecoles*. Though French universities have been around since medieval times, the *Grandes Ecoles* did not appear until the 18th century (Power, 2003).

The focus of our research is on French business schools that are members of the *Conférence des Grandes Ecoles* (CGE) and that have at least one international branch campus. This addresses the call by Ramanantsoa and Delpech (2016) to better understand the international strategy of French higher education institutions. As the CGE is an association that has strict guidelines that schools must meet to gain membership, it provides a base on which to compare our five schools as they are all affiliated with the organization (CGE, 2023).

The higher education market is extremely competitive and institutions, like French business schools, may pursue international accreditations in order to gain their legitimacy and status in the field (e.g. Sohlo & Nätti, 2019, Zummuto, 2008). The three main accreditation agencies are AACSB, EQUIS, and AMBA. The accreditations are awarded on a three to five-year basis after a rigorous audit of the institution that has applied for the label. As of June 2023, there are 124 schools that are *triple crowned* which is around 1% of the business schools worldwide. Eighteen French business schools on the CGE ranking have earned this prestige¹⁴ (MBA Today, 2023). All the institutions used in our research are *triple crowned* except OMNES Education that does not have EQUIS accreditation.

There is almost a 200-year-old gap in the creation of the schools examined in our study ranging from 1819 to 2009. Despite the historical difference, all have similar governance structures that include a Board of Trustees that approve the policies of the institution and an Executive Committee that defines the strategy of the school in accordance with the policies and procedures set by the Board. Other entities, such as a Steering Committee or an International Advisory Board, may be involved to execute the decided policies or to advise the institution on its international orientation.

The international branch campuses of the five schools in this study appear to use their sites mainly for their own students on a semester basis. This allows the institution to give students an international experience by circumventing the problems that may arise with partner schools and avoiding visa issues that may stem from political policy like the Brexit referendum.

¹⁴ This does not include INSEAD which is also triple crowned.

In the next chapter, we will do an intra-case analysis of the five case studies based on our research questions.

PART 3. EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS AND THEORETICAL DISCUSSION

Introduction to Part 3

The third part of our research presents the empirical study. Our data analysis is based on intra and cross-case analysis. Chapter 5 provides the findings of each case using data tables and in-text quotations. The intra-case case analysis reinforces the internal and construct validity of our research. The analysis is conducted to understand how higher education institutions can manage the relationships with their international branch campuses. We align the empirical data and the theory to better comprehend the intra-case patterns.

Chapter 6 compares the findings of the five case studies to expose the points of similarities and differences, as well as to discuss the implications of our research for practitioners and researchers.

CHAPTER 5. Intra-Case Analysis

In this chapter, each case is analyzed as an independent unit. This is an important step to sustain the internal validity of the data analysis. The empirical evidence is constantly compared with extant theory (Yin, 2018). We provide the findings of each case in line with the theoretical framework and in the context of our research questions.

5.1 EM Normandie: Intra-Case Analysis

This section is organized as follows: we first describe the school's motivations for internationalization, followed by the reasons to create an international branch campus, then we focus on the coordination of IBCs, and finally we concentrate on the contributions of the branch campuses to the institution.

5.1.1 Motivations for Internationalization of EM Normandie

The motivations for institution to internationalize are competition between business schools, market saturation, market demand, rankings, and accreditations.

The French business school market is on the verge of market saturation (New Tank Education & Recherche, 2023), so institutions must find a way to grow.

“There is some kind of... isomorphism, like mimetic. When someone is doing something, everyone is pretty much adopting the same model...let's say, a race, a competition, to grow. And when there is a local market saturation, you need to go abroad... I think there is really a huge saturation in France, and we saw it with campuses in Paris. So many regional business schools opened a branch in Paris, then there is saturation, then we need to find other anchor points to keep on growing... So we need to have a certain number of students turnover in order to stay alive, to survive.” (Dean of Research)

“The competition in France between the business schools is quite fierce. So business schools are mimicking the strategic behavior of other business schools.” (Associate Dean of Faculty for the Paris, Oxford, and Dublin campuses)

“You don't have the choice. If you're not international, you die. It's really a question of survival for French business schools.” (Director of International Development)

Another reason to internationalize is from market demand especially from students, parents, and companies.

“Comes from the needs of companies, basically the markets. The students are going to work for companies that need these kinds of people, who are able to adapt to multicultural settings, who are able to speak English, are flexible, responsible. So the pressure is also to maintain this, to train students who are going to get a job in the future, to be marketable, bankable. That's also one of the pressures from the parents, and from the students.” (Manager of the Dublin campus)

Internationalization is not a choice anymore.

“Any student wants a school that is international nowadays.” (Director of International Development)

However, the main motivation for the institution to internationalize are accreditations and rankings.

“There is huge pressure from the international accreditations. If you want to have EQUIS or if you want to have AACSB and to a lesser extent AMBA, which is probably a little less about internationalization. Internationalization is a must, because one of the criteria of evaluation is the number of incoming, outgoing students, the number of incoming, outgoing staff members, the internationalization of your board, the internationalization of your faculty and so on and so forth. That is one big point of the accreditations and as you know today students, the first reaction they have is checking on a business school, is checking on the ranking. The ranking is based as part of it on their accreditations, and the accreditations are based as well on research and support and internationalization and so on. It is a must here again. Pressure comes from accreditations bodies for sure.” (Director of international Affairs)

“I'm not sure if the French people in the French business school industry would have organized international campuses without the pressure from the accreditations.” (Director of the Oxford campus)

There are several isomorphic pressures for the organization to internationalize (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Firstly, accreditation agencies were acknowledged by the managers as being the main motivation to go abroad. These agencies are known to have “power” over administrative decisions of business schools (McKiernan & Wilson, 2012). Fierce competition due to market saturation in the French market are causing schools to mimic the strategies of rival institutions in order to stay competitive. When schools face saturation on the domestic market, there is a greater need to go abroad to sustain growth (Javalgi & Grossman, 2014). Recognition from students, parent, and companies for the need to train students to work in a multicultural environment is another pressure. Ranking of schools and the ranking of research within them is

a normative pressure faced by business schools (McKiernan & Wilson, 2012). Table 38 highlights the isomorphic pressures facing the institution.

Table 38. Isomorphic pressures facing EM Normandie to internationalize

Coercive Isomorphism	Mimetic Isomorphism	Normative Isomorphism
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Accreditation agencies • Students • Parents • Companies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Competition, especially from other French business schools 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School rankings • Research rankings

Source: Elaboration of the author

5.1.2 Reasons to Create an IBC for EM Normandie

The institution views the importance of student mobility as one of the main reasons for creating IBCs. Mobility has become a critical part of their marketing strategy as students consider this option as an important factor when choosing an educational institution.

“Internationalization is a must. It is one of the affecters of choice for our students.”
(Director of International Affairs)

The school has more than 200 international partner universities in 60 countries where students may do exchanges in the last year of their program (EM Normandie, 2023). However, having IBCs is way of allowing the school more control.

“You're mastering all the quality processes on it, so you can definitely guarantee, and that is always the problem if you have a lot of partners.” (Associate Dean of Faculty for the Paris, Oxford, and Dublin campuses)

“It's easier to manage when it's your own company, your own campus. For many reasons, it's easier to manage. And it's more expensive, but it's easier to manage. For example, if you compare our partnership with...we need to discuss everything for the students, for the courses, for the teachers, for the visas, for everything. We have to discuss, and it's sometimes quite long and complicated.” (Associate Dean of Faculty for the Paris, Oxford, and Dublin campuses).

One of the main reasons that the institution created IBCs is to provide an opportunity for all of its students to study abroad.

“The idea of having Oxford and Dublin campuses enables us to provide the opportunity to all of our students, regardless of their academic standards or the quality of their

studies, giving them the opportunity of studying abroad, in an English-speaking setting.”
(Manager of the Dublin campus)

“Students who have a level which is not very high in English, for example, they would have the choice to go to Dublin.” (Director of International Development)

“Basically, the main idea of the Dublin campus is to get the students to improve, as efficiently as possible, their English proficiency. So we have local partners, with the British Study Center who delivers our English classes, we try to arrange social activities for students, but central to the program we deliver in Dublin is really the courses in English, mixed with high-level management classes delivered by English speakers.”
(Manager of the Dublin campus)

Each campus location has advantage: Oxford in terms of brand image and prestige, and Dublin as being located in the only native English-speaking country in the European Union. Concerning Oxford:

“Oxford is a brand in our business, in our industry.” (Director of the Oxford campus)

“Oxford...it’s a very famous name.” (Dean of Research)

“Oxford brings us a very good reputation, because of the reputation of Oxford.”
(Associate Dean of Faculty for the Paris, Oxford, and Dublin campuses)

For Dublin:

“Dublin is obviously the attractive business hub in Ireland. And with Brexit, we’ll see the perspective of Brexit, Ireland might be the only English-speaking country within the EU and that might be an advantage, at the end of the day, of having Dublin as a reserve for eventually, the evolution that could happen in Oxford.” (Manager of the Dublin campus)

“Dublin is an English-speaking campus, but it’s Europe in terms of politics.” (Director of Oxford campus)

Having an IBC is also a way to reassure parents of students that studying at Oxford or Dublin exposes their child to an international experience, but with the assurance of the institution’s standards. Roughly 80% of the students at the IBCs come for the campuses in France, which allows the school to give parts of the standard curriculum on these campuses.

“We are running from the first year, second year, third year, fourth year of the PGE – the Grande Ecole Program and we have a fifth-year specialization in banking, finance and FinTech.” (Director of international Affairs)

The specializations are geared around what each branch campus' locations are known for: Oxford for banking and finance; Dublin for financial technology and other high-tech orientations. These specializations play an important part in international student recruitment.

Accreditation is another reason for the institution to create IBCs. The right balance of internationalization among students and faculty is important for acquiring and maintaining accreditations, which with university rankings, are tools the market uses in comparing various educational choices (Wedlin, 2007).

"If you lose accreditation, you lose also market opportunities." (Director of International Development).

The establishment of IBCs by the school is a strategic choice that assures international placement of students intending to widen their experience while maintaining the quality standards the French curriculum offers. From the accreditation perspective, the IBCs leverage the internationalization requirement of the accreditation bodies while keeping students assured of an accredited international placement when away from the home campus.

The creation of IBCs has brought visibility and attractiveness to the recruitment of local and international candidates.

"The aim is to really attract more students even in France...it's always interesting for students and for accreditations to see that you have a campus abroad, even a very small campus." (Director of the Oxford campus)

Managers at the institution agree that the establishment of international campuses has become a necessary standard of business practice among schools that intend to survive the competition.

"You need to be international otherwise you don't exist, you don't remain on the market." (Director of International Development)

The ownership advantages for the institution are the product differentiation of having campuses in Oxford and Dublin, which is not the case for other French business schools, and the image that is created from the prestige of these campus sites. For the location advantages, the geographic proximity, the exposure to the English language, the Anglo-Saxon culture, as well as Ireland being a member of the EU are beneficial to the organization. Finally, the fact that having an IBC is easier to manage than partner institutions and that all students are able to attend the branch campuses, regardless of their academic level, provides the internalization advantages (Dunning, 1980). Table 39 outlines the OLI advantages of the institution.

Table 39. The OLI advantages of EM Normandie for creating IBCs

Ownership advantages	Location advantages	Internalization advantages
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increase brand reputation on the French market • Has a positive impact on accreditations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Oxford – very high academic reputation • Dublin – English-speaking, but still in the European Union • Geographic proximity to the home institution 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Easier to manager than university partnerships • Can send all students, regardless of their academic level

Source: Elaboration of the author

5.1.3 Coordination of IBCs by EM Normandie

The coordination of EM Normandie is very centralized. The strategic decisions are handled by the COMEX, while the execution and day-to-day operations are carried out via the CODIR.

The IBCs are still very dependent on the home institution but have some autonomy in the management of daily operations.

“On the day-by-day operations, of course we are funded and everything functions together with centralized services in France, so you couldn't really say it's 100% autonomy. But on the other hand, of course, as you're a little bit less in the focus, I think the day-by-day management is more flexible in a certain way.” (Director of International Affairs)

The managers of the different campuses and programs connect in a network either occasionally or regularly via a formal or informal exchange of ideas. Concerning the IBCs:

“There is a huge coordination between the program directors in the PGE, for example, to make sure that, for example, exams are the same, that the content is the same. There is a huge coordination, we also have a lot of professors traveling back and forth, coming from France to lecture on the campus in Oxford and so on, so there is always someone there. I think that is the really important thing, that, because very quickly you could feel quite disconnected in a certain way, and also in a negative way, feeling that actually your colleagues in France would forget you.” (Director of Oxford campus)

There is a constant digital collaboration amongst the different campuses to ensure the quality of the curriculum and student support.

“We always have people around, we have people as well from the support services, such as HR, coming over, we have people from the job insertion department, who are delivering the same conferences here. We actually always have colleagues from France

who are present along the year. Interactions happen several times on a day by day, I mean, I am always participating, now I am no longer in charge of the campus, but our boards have been present in program meetings, in any kind of coordination meetings, with Zoom. Always on the day-by-day means of communication has always been video conference." (Director of International Affairs)

There are also formal physical meetings for the school and its campuses to ensure the overall quality and strategy of the institution.

"Well, we have an annual staff meeting where everyone goes, wherever you come from. I think that is really important, that we have those moments where you feel part of the team and everyone goes, even our assistants. They have this once a year, then we have two faculty meetings a year, so every faculty member is going there twice a year. And then of course there are also pragmatic meetings on research or research seminars or as a director I also did a lot of board meetings then. I would say one board meeting out of three or four I'd be there physically present." (Director of International Affairs)

The coordination mechanisms of the organization may be grouped into two categories: personal and impersonal (Harzing, 1999). Personal mechanisms include formal networks such as the annual staff meeting, the biannual faculty meeting, and other work groups like the coordination between program directors. Impersonal mechanisms include guidelines put in place by the home institution and the ones set by the accreditation agencies. Table 40 highlights the key coordination mechanisms used by the school.

Table 40. Key coordination mechanisms used by EM Normandie to manage its IBCs

Classification of coordination mechanism		Key coordination mechanisms used by EM Normandie
Personal mechanisms	Personal centralized mechanisms	Resource dependence for the home campus
	Socialization and networks	Annual staff meeting Biannual faculty meetings Coordination meetings between program directors Research seminars Informal interpersonal communication Inter-campus visits by managers Inter-campus faculty exchange
Impersonal mechanisms	Bureaucratic formalized mechanisms	Strong guidelines from the home campus Strong guidelines from accreditation agencies
	Output oriented mechanisms	Individual performance evaluation

Source: Elaboration of the author based on Schmid et al. (2016) citing Harzing (1999) pp. 16-24 and pp. 186-189

Type of Subsidiary

Based on classification by Edwards et al. (2014), the institution may be considered as having a Global Branch Campus strategy because the role of the brand campuses is to implement the institute's strategy and decisions. Staff from the home campus are assigned leadership positions at both branches and the core programs offered and the branding are the same at all branches. Figure 27 shows the school's IBC strategy.

Figure 27. The IBC strategy of EM Normandie

		Global Integration	
		Weak	Strong
Local Adaptation	Strong	The Multidomestic Branch Campus/ Autonomous Subsidiary Strategy	The Transnational Branch Campus/ Active Subsidiary Strategy
	Weak	The International Branch Campus/ Quiescent Subsidiary Strategy	The Global Branch Campus/ Receptive Subsidiary Strategy <i>EM Normandie</i>

Source: Elaboration of the author based on Edwards et al. (2014, p. 184-186); Jarillo & Martinez (1990); Taggart (1998)

5.1.4 Contribution of the IBCs to EM Normandie

Though the school would not comment on the financial performance of the IBCs, it appears that one the most important impacts that the IBCs have on the institution concern its image and reputation.

“I think it adds to its international image and I think it adds to a certain extent as well to its academic image. Definitely. I think, and we see it at the recruitment fairs and so on. We see that people ask a lot of questions about Dublin and Oxford, its somehow like our gates to international, you see? That even without talking about partner schools, that we already have in a certain way our own homemade opportunities of internationalization. And it participated highly to the attractiveness of EM Normandie, definitely.” (Director of International Affairs)

They also have a positive influence on the schools ranking and accreditations because with the IBCs:

“It's the evidence in terms of the international presence of EM Normandie, it's the evidence that we can offer an international curriculum to our students.” (Director of the Oxford campus)

5.1.5 Key Conclusions of the EM Normandie Case

The school established IBCs primarily due to the importance of student mobility in internationalization. Mobility plays a critical role in its marketing strategy influencing students' choices when selecting an educational institution. IBCs offer control over quality processes and help demonstrate the institution's international identity. Specializations aligned with each campus location enhance student recruitment. Accreditation is essential for internationalization and maintaining market opportunities, making IBCs a strategic choice for the school.

The decision to create IBCs is strategic, ensuring international placements while maintaining quality standards. It also addresses the risk of market saturation in the French business education sector, where competition among schools drives the adoption of IBCs to remain competitive.

The establishment of IBCs significantly enhances the organization's visibility and attractiveness to both local and international candidates. It has become a standard practice for institutions aiming to thrive in a competitive market, reflecting the necessity of internationalization.

The school's coordination mechanisms are centralized, with strategic decisions made by the COMEX and daily operations overseen by the CODIR. While IBCs have some autonomy in daily operations, they remain dependent on the home institution. Coordination occurs through a

network of managers and regular meetings, with digital collaboration playing a significant role. Formal physical meetings and gatherings also contribute to overall quality and strategy.

IBCs have a substantial impact on the school's image and reputation. They enhance the institution's international and academic image and positively influence school rankings and accreditation. IBCs serve as evidence of the institution's international presence and its ability to offer an international curriculum, making the institution more attractive to prospective students.

5.2 ESCP: Intra-Case Analysis

This section is organized as follows: we first focus on the school's motivations for internationalization, then the rationale to create an international branch campus, followed by how the IBCs are coordinated, and finally we focus on the contributions of the branch campuses to the institution.

5.2.1 Motivations for Internationalization of ESCP

By default, the institution became international when it merged with its sister school EAP in 1999 (ESCP, 2023a). EAP already had established campuses in Oxford, Berlin, and Madrid at the time. The rationale for the campuses is explained:

“In the 1970s, the idea was that the Chamber of Commerce of Paris, which is the owner of the school, the CCI was really the owner, today, there's a slightly different structure but still the same. They saw the opportunity to export the Grande Ecole model outside France and tutoring French students in a multi-cultural environment. And mixing them with non-French students.” (Dean of ESCP Truini)

“It was just a decision the chamber wanting to create some schools educating the European multinational, multicultural manager. And back then the three, I would say, biggest countries, or let's say with the most economic power in the European community was the U.K., France and Germany. And the other campuses like in Madrid and Turin and Warsaw, they arrived later on.” (Dean of ESCP Berlin)

“It's easier sometimes for French institutions to offer English language degree-based programs in secondary location and to recruit and develop accordingly.” (Dean of the London campus)

The school leveraged the experience of EAP to transform the organization from a French business school to a European one.

"We went fast into internationalization, into the recruitment of international students, through the effect of having campuses, having the experience of recruiting local students in Germany. That's why then also, quite quickly it was decided to open a campus in Italy. Italy is a country where there is a potential to recruit students for business schools is very high. Competition there is not very strong. It was an opportunity that was identified quite early on. That helped ESCP to really internationalize very early and very fast." (Dean of Faculty)

"I think the motivation is that because ESCP was so far implemented more in continental Europe. But Europe is not the only continental point of view. You see Europe includes central and Eastern. That's why we look for another location and that's why we, a few years ago, we found that Poland is a very good location and also has potential and so that's why we have the chance because there was a partner there with Kozminski [University] they were the best in Central Europe and, and also in Eastern Europe in terms of ranking and also academic recognition." (Dean of Academic Affairs and International Relations)

Other motivations include recruiting students, building brand reputation, and increasing the revenue.

"My perception is that there is pressure, financial pressure. More than anything else. Most of French business schools used to be partly state owned, through the Chambers of Commerce. It's not the case anymore. They can be owned. They can have no money anymore. They have to find new sources." (Dean of Faculty)

"This is the highest pressure to move to the international scene for one to get better or to open up additional revenue resources and obviously also to be more competitive for your national market." (Dean of ESCP Berlin)

"For me there are two main motivations. The first one is recruitment. You are stronger to recruit internationally if yourself, you are really international. We know the French business schools; they have a growth objective. To grow they had to go beyond their internal market...the objective of internationalization was also to somehow to spread the quality of education and to enhance the reputation around the world." (Dean of Faculty)

There are several isomorphic pressures for the school to internationalize (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Institutional stakeholders want the organization to increase its revenues. This may be done by recruiting more national and international students and to educate them as European multinational, multicultural managers. This will also build brand reputation both at home and

abroad. Table 41 lists the isomorphic pressures faced by the institution.

Table 41. Isomorphic pressures facing ESCP to internationalize

Coercive Isomorphism	Mimetic Isomorphism	Normative Isomorphism
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• ESCP shareholders for better financial results• Students	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Competition, especially from other French business schools	

Source: Elaboration of the author

5.2.2 Reasons to Create an IBC for ESCP

The continued development of the institution serves to reinforce its position as a Pan-European business school. The school does not consider that it has branch campuses but sees itself as a network operating across different local environments:

“We are a network of academic institutions... The notion of branch implies that there is something like subsidiary type relationship... I challenge this, and certainly in the case of the ESCP, because it's more... five or six different campuses that we have. We have six different campuses, one of them having the lead, and certainly the control of governance over the others... the campuses are independently also recognized, assessed, and awarded higher educational recognition as a national university in each of those different countries.” (Dean of ESCP).

One difference currently is the Warsaw campus, which is a strategic alliance:

“It is very small campus actually, it's a new model that, because we actually collaborate with Kozminski University. So we are located there and also we use their professors.”
(Acting Dean of ESCP Warsaw)

The curriculum of the organization follows the concept of a “*network of academic institutions*” and the campuses within the school are referred to a federal campus rather than a branch campus. Students studying at the institution must rotate between these campuses:

“When one student is at ESCP, he or she cannot become a graduate and will not be graduated if he or she hasn't been studying on federal campuses. That's the basic rule. You can't be an ESCP graduate if you haven't been learning on federal campuses.”
(Dean of ESCP)

“Our bachelor program is three years, three countries. They spend one year in each country. For the master, it depends on the type of master. Our Master in Management

they have to spend at least... some students spend three years, others two depends at what level they enter the school.” (Dean of ESCP Madrid)

The ownership advantages for the institution are the product differentiation by developing European multinational, multicultural managers via its network of Pan-European campuses and its brand reputation. The institution uses its strong presence in Europe to offer English-based degree programs that allow students to move between campuses reinforcing its location advantages. Finally, the fact that having an IBC is easier to manage than partner institutions and the *Grande Ecole* model may be implemented on the campus provide the internalization advantages (Dunning, 1980). Table 42 outlines the OLI advantages of the school.

Table 42. The OLI advantages of ESCP for creating IBCs

Ownership advantages	Location advantages	Internalization advantages
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increase brand reputation • Develop European multinational, multicultural managers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Foothold on the European market • Easier to offer English language degree-based programs outside of France • Key partnership with Kozminski University 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Export the <i>Grande Ecole</i> model • Easier to manage than university partnerships

Source: Elaboration of the author

5.2.3 Coordination of the IBCs by ESCP

The school is managed by the European Executive Committee (COMEX) which includes the directors of the different campuses. However, there is a Board of Trustees that meets roughly four times a year to validate the strategy of the school. The COMEX meets at least once a month to make decisions on the federal level (e.g. across all campuses). These meeting are usually held in Paris but may be occasionally held online.

Each campus has its own committee that includes the dean of each campus and local representatives of that campus to implement the ideas discussed in the COMEX that meets weekly. Each campus also has its own Board of Trustees that usually meets twice a year and includes members of other campuses and local business leaders. For instance, the current Dean of the Warsaw campus sits on the Board of Trustees for both the Berlin and Madrid campuses.

There are two levels of control in the ESCP matrix: the federal level (the European level) and the local level, and a person's responsibility may be split between the two levels.

“There are people who have two hats because they have 80% federal activities and maybe 10% or 20% of national activities. For instance, my director of communication has 60% federal activity and 40% for Paris [campus].” (Dean of ESCP)

Faculty is also managed at the federal level:

“All my governance for the faculty management is totally European. The most important is called EFAC or European Faculty Advisory Committee. In my EFAC, we need that committee which is committed to faculty management. I have one representative who is also elected locally from every campus. I have one in Paris, Madrid, London, Turin and Berlin. In Paris I have seven in total, representing... Also elected by the faculty. Representing the school faculty of Paris. We are all working together to discuss those general topics regarding the faculty. As well as specific evaluation, promotion of different colleagues. Once a year we are analyzing all colleagues.” (Dean of Faculty)

Though ESCP considers itself a “network of academic institutions” Paris is still very much at the center.

“We have a ring and a star in the center. We have a star when the Paris campus is playing the role of head and then we are connected, all of us, with Paris.” (Dean of ESCP Madrid).

Concerning the notion of autonomy:

“If the question is could you operate independently, no. Would you be financially self-sufficient without the ESCP flow of students from federal programs? No. So there's a high degree of interdependency between these campuses and HQ.” (Dean of ESCP London)

“It is just like any subsidiary of a multinational company, or any organization in the world. Right? But that, within the approved budget, of course, I have a very good degree of freedom.” (Dean of ESCP Turin)

However, there is also a strong interaction between the campuses:

“There's a relationship with the other campuses that is quite obvious. There's a flow of students moving between our respective campuses. There are specific degree programs that are taught and delivered across two or more campuses. So there's a fairly constant process of exchange and cooperation.” (Dean of ESCP Berlin)

The personal coordination mechanisms of the institution include formal networks such as the European Faculty Advisory Committee, the annual staff meeting, the biannual faculty meeting, and other work groups like the coordination between the campus deans and the program

directors. Other work teams include federal level activities, as well as national level activities. Impersonal mechanisms include guidelines put in place by the home institution as decided by the COMEX, guidelines provided the local government bodies, as well as individual performance evaluations (Harzing, 1999). Table 43 shows the key coordination mechanisms used by the institution.

Table 43. Key coordination mechanisms used by ESCP to manage its IBCs

Classification of coordination mechanism		Key coordination mechanisms used by ESCP
Personal mechanisms	Personal centralized mechanisms	Resource dependence for the home campus
	Socialization and networks	European Faculty Advisory Committee Annual staff meeting Biannual faculty meetings Federal level activities National level activities Campus coordination Program coordination Informal interpersonal communication Inter-campus students exchange Inter-campus faculty exchange
Impersonal mechanisms	Bureaucratic formalized mechanisms	Strong guidelines from the home campus Strong guidelines from local government bodies
	Output oriented mechanisms	Individual performance evaluation

Source: Elaboration of the author based on Schmid et al. (2016) citing Harzing (1999) pp. 16-24 and pp. 186-189

Type of Subsidiary

Based on classification by Edwards et al. (2014), the institution may be considered as having a Transnational Branch Campus strategy because it is a multicentered institution with both the parent and branch campuses having leadership in different areas of teaching and research. It also resists the notion of having a “branch campus”. Figure 28 shows the school’s IBC strategy.

Figure 28. The IBC strategy of ESCP

		Global Integration	
		Weak	Strong
Local Adaptation	Strong	The Multidomestic Branch Campus/ Autonomous Subsidiary Strategy	The Transnational Branch Campus/ Active Subsidiary Strategy ESCP
	Weak	The International Branch Campus/ Quiescent Subsidiary Strategy	The Global Branch Campus/ Receptive Subsidiary Strategy

Source: Elaboration of the author based on Edwards et al. (2014, p. 184-186); Jarillo & Martinez (1990); Taggart (1998)

5.2.4 Contribution of IBCs to ESCP

As the design of the school is a multi-campus institution, the school does not see itself as having separate branches.

“It is one school with six doors.” (Dean of ESCP London)

For the impact of the rankings:

“When you look at the rankings, whether it's FT [Financial Times] or the Economist, it's one school ranked but listed as a school with multiple geographic centers.” (Dean of ESCP London)

The campuses appear to improve institution's reputation and image via branding and specialized programs.

“There's a new ranking which was done a couple of weeks ago here that impacts the ranking at ESCP Berlin. So yeah, I think it's also quite good for the reputation in this sustainability thing. We focused our campus on the sustainability topics. So we have two specialized masters on sustainability. We have a research center on sustainability management. We have a lot of activities in the sustainability things. I think this is also helping the overall reputation.” (Dean of ESCP Berlin)

“I think that we are doing our very best according to the size we have, the school is having two main strategies: brand and size. Of course, we contribute with the brand because we keep the national ranking as high as possible. Concerning size, for instance,

we were contributing to this reputation because the growth of Madrid has been impressive, because the level of innovation was also impressive when launching for instance web-based solutions or online programs.” (Dean of ESCP Madrid)

“Basically, it's because we build a brand, a strong brand in Italy. It took several years, but if you ... Right now, the brand of ESCP in Italy is definitely more than HEC or ESSEC.”
(Dean of ESCP Turin)

5.2.5 Key Conclusions of the ESCP Case

The institution established IBCs nearly 50 years ago reinforcing its position itself as a Pan-European business school. The organization considers itself a *"network of academic institutions"* rather than having branch campuses, with each campus independently recognized and awarded higher educational certification in its respective country. While most campuses operate within organization's framework, the Warsaw campus is a strategic alliance with Kozminski University. The school curriculum emphasizes a *"network of academic institutions,"* and students must rotate between the campuses in order to graduate.

The organization is managed by the European Executive Committee (COMEX), which include the directors from different campuses. A Board of Trustees meets regularly to validate the school's strategy, while the COMEX convenes at least monthly for federal-level decisions. Each campus has its committee, dean, and local representatives to implement COMEX decisions. Additionally, campuses have their Board of Trustees, often involving members from other campuses and local business leaders. Control in the organization matrix spans federal and local levels, with some individuals having dual responsibilities. Faculty management is at the European level, with representation from each campus. While the school emphasizes its network structure, Paris remains central in many aspects.

The institution views itself as a single school with multiple geographic centers, contributing to its reputation and rankings as a unified entity. The campuses enhance school's reputation through branding and specialized programs, such as sustainability initiatives in Berlin and innovation in Madrid. Turin's strong brand presence in Italy also elevates organization's reputation compared to other prominent institutions. The school's strategies focus on brand and size, with each campus playing a role in maintaining high national rankings and contributing to ESCP's growth and innovation.

5.3 ESSCA: Intra-Case Analysis

This section is organized as follows: we first describe the institution's motivations for internationalization, followed by the reasons to create an international branch campus, then we center on the coordination of IBCs, and finally we focus on the contributions of the branch campuses to the institution.

5.3.1 Motivations for Internationalization for ESSCA

The three main drivers for internationalization are the need for students to have a global mindset, accreditations, and rankings.

“The main objective of the business school is to create leaders on the world market...they need to be international because...it's the best way for them to be ready for the job market.” (Director of International Relations)

“I think a lot of institutions decided to internationalize, to go international because of the rankings, because of the accreditations, too. And I would say especially the EQUIS accreditation from EFMD... accreditations and rankings are the major drivers of internationalization of French business schools... the fact is that if there weren't so many rankings in French higher education, I think we would have behaved in a different way.” (Dean of ESSCA)

“I think most important factors which are correlated, ranking and accreditations. Now the third factor, but I'm not sure this one would occur without the first two. The third factor is of what should be the future managers skills, competencies, attitude towards a global world. I think that most business schools are in fact really act in an instrumental way. Like in the financial markets the CEO is looking at the stock market price, CEOs of business schools are looking at rankings. What could increase my ranking? Well internationalization is a way to increase your ranking.” (Associate Dean of Research)

The main isomorphic pressures for the organization to internationalize are the need to train students for the international market, the influence of accreditation agencies, and the ranking systems. Table 44 outlines these isomorphic pressures (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983).

Table 44. Isomorphic pressures facing ESSCA to internationalize

Coercive Isomorphism	Mimetic Isomorphism	Normative Isomorphism
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Accreditation agencies• Students		<ul style="list-style-type: none">• School rankings

Source: Elaboration of the author

5.3.2 Reasons to Create an IBC for ESSCA

The motivations for the creation of the campuses were dependent on the opening of market opportunities.

For the Budapest campus, the school was first approached by Corvinus University of Budapest after the fall of the Berlin Wall:

“So, at that time, ESSCA was the only school in Europe, which proposed a specialization in Eastern Western European strategies and corporations. So, one of the most well-known universities in Hungary contacted ESSCA, and asked ESSCA whether the school wanted to create a double degree program in Hungary for the people who spoke French, and who were eager to have a better insight into the Eastern Western European relations. Also, the municipality and the Chamber of Commerce of the Loire region, supported the idea quite a bit. So, together with their accord, rendered their support and their agreement, together with this university's desire to set up this training, the school was created.” (Director of ESSCA Budapest)

The structure changed in 1999 when the strategy was reshaped for the Budapest campus.

“We changed the trainings...instead of the full programs, we offered semester long programs, which means that ...all of the students who studied at the French campuses could make a decision to spend one semester at our Budapest campus” (Director of ESSCA Budapest).

The idea was similar for the creation of the Shanghai campus.

“As of 2001, joining the WTO¹⁵, China became really a lot more open to foreign business activities. And so in that sense, in 2006, the decision to open up a campus over here, actually is in line with the idea of providing international businesses, with young graduates that understand the very international environment they are supposed to operate in.” (Director of Studies at ESSCA Shanghai)

The school uses the campuses to meet the international experience they require of their students.

“I think that it is, let's say, a double strategy of providing enough internationalization spots to our students, by having on the one hand, a large international partner university network, and on the other hand, our own campuses, which can always satisfy the

¹⁵ The World Trade Organization.

demand, in order also to have, not only one, but two experiences.” (Director of International Relations)

The institution also uses its IBCs to attract international exchange students from partner universities.

“We proposed all of our courses and all of our trainings in English, which opened the possibility for the partner universities and schools to send the non-French speaking students to an ESSCA campus, where they got the same quality program in English.”
(Director of ESSCA Budapest)

The school possesses several OLI advantages to create IBCs (Dunning, 1980), including brand reputation, a student population needing international training, key partnerships with foreign universities, the possibility to send all students abroad, an easier management of an offshore site. Table 45 outlines the OLI advantages of institution.

Table 45. The OLI advantages of ESSCA for creating IBCs

Ownership advantages	Location advantages	Internalization advantages
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increase brand reputation • Develop global mindset for students • Attract non-French speaking students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Key partnership with Corvinus University in Budapest • Key partnership with Shanghai International Studies University 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Easier to manage than university partnerships • Can send all students, regardless of their academic level

Source: Elaboration of the author

5.3.3 Coordination of IBCs by ESSCA

The school is guided by a Board of Trustees that advises the dean on the strategic policies of the school. There is also an International Advisory Board that aids the Board of Trustees and is chaired by the same person. The COMEX makes strategic decisions based upon the recommendations of the two previously mentioned boards, with the day-to-day decisions being carried out by the CODIR. It is at the CODIR level that we find the directors of the French and international campuses.

The French campus directors report to the Director of Operations. However, the directors of the Budapest and Shanghai campuses report directly to the dean, as these two campuses do not have the same structure as the association ESSCA France.

"I regularly inform my boss, who is the general director of the school, about what we do, it's my desire to keep him informed about everything that happens. So, he's aware of everything. And before I make decisions, I always ask for his opinion. I present him the options, I tell him what I would suggest, but I always discuss these questions with him, I wouldn't make a decision alone. I think that... yeah, we do have autonomy if you stay in the framework of the school's principles, because these principles are set by the board, so they are very clear, and clearly defined principles." (Director of ESSCA Budapest)

The Shanghai campus is slightly varied due to the time difference:

Autonomy? I think we were already operating in different times zones. Sometimes it's six hours as today. In the winter it would be seven-hour time difference. I cannot wait for each and every single decision to be signed off by France, but we have on the one hand with the campus director, a direct link to the degree to la comité de direction, so the steering committee of the school. With the program director we have a direct link to program direction of the school. With each professor we have a direct link with the course coordinator of each module, right? And so there's like a multitude of channels where we can cooperate with each other. (Director of Studies, ESSCA Shanghai)

In recent years, the reporting structure for the two IBCs has changed from:

"A less financial accounting, and more managerial accounting. So that the head of campuses are now aware of their related positioning in terms of academic performance, in terms of quality insurance, in terms of efficiency and so on." (Dean of ESSCA)

The organization of the school is:

"A matrix system. The director of our campuses are very self-decision makers and self-autonomous, but of course, to take into the account the main missions and the objective of the central function as to international relations and career center and, of course, faculty." (Director of International Relations)

"It's a kind of matrix organization I would say, a little bit like General Motors. It's centralized delegation I would say. We have central processes that are obvious, it's true for assurance of learning, curriculum management, faculty policy that are central. But locally, the campus director is truly a business unit manager. He's responsible for his budget, for the recruitment deferments of students, and also the campus director is the direct reporting line of people working there, the campus and the staff whether they are faculty or admin. So we have truly strong business unit managers." (Vice Dean of ESSCA)

The personal coordination mechanisms of the institution include formal networks such as the annual staff meeting, and other groups like curriculum management meetings and the coordination between the campus deans and the program directors. Impersonal mechanisms include guidelines put in place by the home institution as decided by the COMEX, as well as individual performance evaluations (Harzing, 1999). Table 46 shows the key coordination mechanisms used by the school.

Table 46. Key coordination mechanisms used by ESSCA in managing its IBCs

Classification of coordination mechanism		Key coordination mechanisms used by ESSCA
Personal mechanisms	Personal centralized mechanisms	Resource dependence for the home campus
	Socialization and networks	Annual staff meeting Other group meetings, such as curriculum management meetings Informal interpersonal communication Inter-campus students exchange Inter-campus faculty exchange
Impersonal mechanisms	Bureaucratic formalized mechanisms	Strong guidelines from the home campus Strong guidelines from accreditation agencies
	Output oriented mechanisms	Individual performance evaluation

Source: Elaboration of the author based on Schmid et al. (2016) citing Harzing (1999) pp. 16-24 and pp. 186-189

Type of Subsidiary

Based on classification by Edwards et al. (2014), the school may be considered as having a Global Branch Campus strategy because the role of the brand campuses is to implement the institute's strategy and decisions. Staff from the home campus are assigned leadership positions at both branches and the core programs offered and the branding are the same at all branches. However, the campus directors are becoming more autonomous and the strategy may be shifting to more of a Transnational Branch Campus one. Firms have been found to move from a global strategy to a transnational one as the environment changes (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1987). Figure 29 shows the institution's IBC strategy.

Figure 29. The IBC strategy of ESSCA

		Global Integration	
		Weak	Strong
Local Adaptation	Strong	The Multidomestic Branch Campus/ Autonomous Subsidiary Strategy	The Transnational Branch Campus/ Active Subsidiary Strategy
	Weak	The International Branch Campus/ Quiescent Subsidiary Strategy	ESSCA The Global Branch Campus/ Receptive Subsidiary Strategy

Source: Elaboration of the author based on Edwards et al. (2014, p. 184-186); Jarillo & Martinez (1990); Taggart (1998)

5.3.4 Contribution of IBCs to ESSCA

The IBCs are cost centers.

“They do not break even and are subsidized by France.” (Dean of ESSCA)

However, the campuses have a positive impact on rankings.

“I think it counts a lot, because they see that we are fully integrated into the ESSCA School of Management. So, when they see the quality of training, they see the number of students, they see the range of activities, ones we do here, and also the opportunities that we propose to the students and professors. So, I would say by a large deal.”
(Director of ESSCA Budapest)

They also have a beneficial effect on the brand awareness.

“By having international campuses and international strategy, I think it helps, it supports the brand awareness of the business schools because they are more famous by the applicants for programs or content but also by the companies when we get more international alumni in positions on the international scene.” (Vice Dean of ESSCA)

The IBCs also provide assurances to family of students that are apprehensive about their child studying abroad:

“It gives the opportunity for students who are very sensible and little bit scared of going abroad, or sometimes whom the parents are very scared to send the students abroad for

the first time. So, the student feels more confident to go abroad for the first time on one of our campuses at ESSCA.” (Director of International Relations).

5.3.5 Key Conclusions of the ESSCA Case

The institution’s motivations for creating IBCs were influenced by market opportunities. For the Budapest campus, the opportunity arose after the fall of the Berlin Wall, when the school was approached by Corvinus University of Budapest to create a double-degree program specializing in Eastern Western European strategies and corporations. In the case of the Shanghai campus, the decision was aligned with China's increasing openness to foreign business activities. The organization uses its IBCs to fulfill the international experience requirements for its students and attract international exchange students from partner universities.

The governance structure includes a Board of Trustees, an International Advisory Board chaired by the same person, a COMEX making strategic decisions, and a CODIR responsible for day-to-day operations. Directors of French and international campuses are part of the CODIR. French campus directors report to the director of operations, while the directors of the Budapest and Shanghai campuses report directly to the Dean due to differences in structure. Recent changes have shifted the reporting to focus more on managerial accounting and academic performance. Campus directors maintain autonomy within the school's defined principles. In the case of Shanghai, the time difference necessitates decentralized decision-making channels.

Though not financially self-sufficient, IBCs positively impact the institution’s rankings and brand awareness. Having international campuses enhances brand recognition among applicants and companies, making the school better known in both academic and corporate circles. IBCs also offer reassurance to students and their families, providing a sense of security for those apprehensive about studying abroad for the first time.

5.4 OMNES Education: Intra-Case Analysis

This section is constructed as follows: we first focus on institution’s motivations for internationalization, then the rationale to create an international branch campus, followed by how the IBCs are coordinated, and finally we focus on the contributions of the branch campuses to the institution.

5.4.1 Motivations for Internationalization of OMNES Education

The main motivations for the school to internationalize are providing students with an international experience, market saturation, competition, and rankings.

The organization acknowledges the importance of training its students to be international.

“There is an undeniable recognition among business schools that English is the lingua franca of the working world.” (Director of OMNES Education London)

“The job market is more and more international, so it's the duty for a business school to help a student become a good employee in an international world and for that you have to go abroad.” (Director of International Relations)

“When you look at international rankings, and it's English-speaking programs that dominate the upper echelons of these international rankings. So the pressure to internationalize, it's just a realization for business schools, a realization that business is now international.” (Director of OMNES Education San Francisco)

There is also the recognition of market saturation:

“The French market is saturated anyway. The French market is not doing very well. There are too many business schools, there are too many, and therefore inevitably, we had to look for markets elsewhere, other markets, elsewhere. It is quite simply that.” (Director of IFG Africa)

“It's definitely a competition between schools in France because if you look at it they're all claiming they're the number one international school in France with internships and entrepreneurship. They all have the same marketing speech so definitely... I mean, not a lot of people are going to be able to say, I'm with Harvard or MIT, unless you pay for it but then you know it's extension and it's not the same thing, the regular school. So there's definitely a competition because not that many people want to come and study in France because unfortunately the image is that we teach in French.” (Director of International Relations)

There are three main isomorphic pressures for the school to internationalize (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). These are the need for students to have an international profile, competition from other French business schools, and school rankings. Tabel 47 highlights the isomorphic pressures for the institution.

Table 47. Isomorphic pressures facing OMNES Education to internationalize

Coercive Isomorphism	Mimetic Isomorphism	Normative Isomorphism
<ul style="list-style-type: none">Students	<ul style="list-style-type: none">Competition, especially from other French business schools	<ul style="list-style-type: none">School rankings

Source: Elaboration of the author

5.4.2 Reasons to Create an IBC for OMNES Education

Two of the main reasons for the school to create IBCs are that it was a means of providing more courses taught in English and positioning the IBCs as an avenue for specialized knowledge learning.

“They’re not used for degree-seeking purposes because we’re not allowed to do that. And for instance, for any engineering school if you want to open a branch campus, it’s two years to ask for and you need to apply. So it’s like more a satellite campus where we either send short-term students... so it could go anywhere from a one week like a special IELTS, TOEIC or TOEFL¹⁶ week so that it prepares students. Or like a one-month learning expedition to a whole semester.” (Director of International Relations)

“There’s a pedagogical side, which is, if you want to learn foreign languages there’s no better way than to go there...you have certain clusters of knowledge and experience that you don’t get back in France, so if you want to speak about international business and finance, what better place than London, where we have a campus there.” (Director of OMNES Education San Francisco)

Another reason for creating IBCs, at least in the case of the Abidjan campus, is meeting a demand for candidates that want a French education but are constrained by travel requirements.

“We had a lot, a lot of African candidates coming to France and we noticed that - in fact, Africans, today, were no longer necessarily attracted to come and do their studies in France. By discussing with them, with our alumni, they clearly told us that they would prefer to have these trainings locally because they work, because they have all kinds of activities. Anyway, it’s complicated to come to France. And their goal, now more and more, to Africans, is still to stay in Africa. So not necessarily in their country of origin but in any case, on the continent.” (Director of IFG Executive Education & Director of Academic Innovation)

A final reason for the creation of IBCs is to serve all the schools within the institution’s network.

“So as a satellite campus the role is to add value to our 16 schools. Adding value could be simply making a program more attractive, which helps for recruiting for the school. It can also be adding programs, additional programs whereby students sign up for their summer program, or an additional program, pay extra for a more expensive program in France which includes a session abroad, or a stand-alone session abroad, or, and what

¹⁶ The International English Language Testing System (IELTS), the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC), and the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL).

we've done most recently is we're looking at executive education.” (Director of OMNES Education San Francisco)

The ownership advantages for the institution are the product differentiation by developing international skillsets for students through its brand that encompasses 16 schools. The school uses its campuses in Abidjan, London, and San Francisco to meet market demand reinforcing its location advantages. Finally, the fact that having IBCs is easier to manage than partner institutions and that they serve all schools in organizational network provide the internationalization advantages (Dunning, 1980). Table 48 outlines the OLI advantages of the institution.

Table 48. The OLI advantages of OMNES Education for creating IBCs

Ownership advantages	Location advantages	Internalization advantages
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increase brand reputation • Develop global mindset and linguistic skills for students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Market potential in Africa • Based in English-speaking cities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can send students from all 16 schools for short-term programs • Easier to manage than university partnerships

Source: Elaboration of the author

5.4.3 Coordination of IBCs by OMNES Education

The institution is controlled by the chief executives and an advisory board that make up the COMEX. However, the CODIR supervises the day-to-day running of the institution and the implementation of the overall policies. The directors of the campuses are members of the CODIR, which meets once a week.

The IBCs have some autonomy, as long as it follows the main rules and regulations set by the COMEX and CODIR.

“I have a great deal of autonomy, provided I understand and reflect the objectives of the school that I happen to be designing the program with. So, if a school, like INSEEC Business School requires me to have 75% of teaching staff with PhDs. Well, I can't get around that. But I might be able to do, however, is to suggest new course titles, or new areas, or areas which may stray slightly from the core curriculum, but where they feel there's a real specialism.” (Director of OMNES Education London)

“There is a certain amount of communication and coordination obviously because these programs are designed for our students coming from our schools, so there's a coordination there. There is, so there's coordination with head office about that, about

strategy. We can't do everything all the time, so what are we going to focus on? And there's a certain amount of independence as well, because there's a realization that we're opening up this campus here also to learn from this ecosystem. So, to not do things exactly the way we do them in France. So, we're not taking a blueprint that was created in France and then you try to deliver that here.” (Director of OMNES Education San Francisco)

There are also day-long seminars every six weeks to reinforce the school's strategy and vision.

“And then we have, regularly, I would say every six weeks, a seminar that begins in the evening at 5 p.m. and ends the next day at 6 p.m. For example, this week, we have a seminar. And then there, so we deal throughout the day - currently it is in video (Zoom) - where all day we deal with many subjects.” (Director of CREA Geneva)

The personal coordination mechanisms of the school include formal networks such as the annual staff meeting, one-day strategy seminars, and program coordination meetings. Impersonal mechanisms include guidelines put in place by the home institution as decided by the COMEX, as well as individual performance evaluations (Harzing, 1999). Table 49 shows the key coordination mechanisms used by the school.

Table 49. Key coordination mechanisms used by OMNES Education to manage its IBCs

Classification of coordination mechanism		Key coordination mechanisms used by OMNES Education
Personal mechanisms	Personal centralized mechanisms	Resource dependence for the home campus
	Socialization and networks	Biannual global staff meeting Other group meetings such as one-day strategy seminars and program coordination meetings Informal interpersonal communication Inter-campus students exchange Inter-campus faculty exchange
Impersonal mechanisms	Bureaucratic formalized mechanisms	Strong guidelines from the home campus
	Output oriented mechanisms	Individual performance evaluation

Source: Elaboration of the author based on Schmid et al. (2016) citing Harzing (1999) pp. 16-24 and pp. 186-189

Type of Subsidiary

According to the Edwards et al. (2014) classification, the school may be considered as having a Global Branch Campus strategy. The role of the brand campuses is to implement the institute's

strategy and decisions. Staff from the home campus have assigned management positions at the branches. The campuses are branded the same way and are used to service the organization's network of schools. Figure 30 shows the institution's IBC strategy.

Figure 30. The IBC strategy of OMNES Education

		Global Integration	
		Weak	Strong
Local Adaptation	Strong	The Multidomestic Branch Campus/ Autonomous Subsidiary Strategy	The Transnational Branch Campus/ Active Subsidiary Strategy
	Weak	The International Branch Campus/ Quiescent Subsidiary Strategy	The Global Branch Campus/ Receptive Subsidiary Strategy OMNES Education

Source: Elaboration of the author based on Edwards et al. (2014, p. 184-186); Jarillo & Martinez (1990); Taggart (1998)

5.4.4 Contribution of IBCs to OMNES Education

The financial performance of the IBCs ranges from having:

“A profit margin approaching 20%” to being “an investment, it’s not a strong profit center”¹⁷

This means the use of IBCs may be more strategic than commercial for the organization. The main goal of the IBCs is to add value to all the schools in the institutions network via standard curriculums and specialized short-term programs.

The IBCs are seen as a positive impact on the image of the school.

“We have got schools with thousands of students, and here it’s a kind of small school, it’s kind of specialized programs, but when we communicate, it could be in billboard communication or subway or whatever, or online or whatever, I think it punches above its waist. Proportionately London, San Francisco..., we definitely make it very apparent that we have these opportunities.” (Director of OMNES Education San Francisco)

¹⁷ The respondents asked to remain anonymous.

"It's very good. It's very good because... especially if you want to study business, it makes a lot of sense to have a branch campus no matter whether or not you go there, just the fact that it's a possibility has a very good impact. And it also means that international is priority to top management." (Director of International Affairs)

5.4.5 Key Conclusions of the OMNES Education Case

The institution created its IBCs for several reasons. One primary motivation was to provide more courses taught in English, recognizing the importance of English as the lingua franca of the working world. IBCs were also seen as a means to offer specialized knowledge and expertise that could be best acquired by studying in specific locations, such as London for international business and finance. Additionally, IBCs aimed to meet the demand for candidates who desired a French education but were constrained by travel requirements, such as students from African countries. Lastly, IBCs serve all schools within the organization's network by adding value, making programs more attractive, adding new programs, and supporting executive education.

The school is governed by chief executives and an advisory board (COMEX), with the day-to-day operations and policy implementation supervised by the CODIR. Directors of the campuses are part of the CODIR, which meets regularly. IBCs have some autonomy as long as they adhere to the main rules and regulations set by the COMEX and CODIR. Autonomy includes program design, course titles, and areas of specialization, while still aligning with the school's objectives. Communication and coordination are essential, given that programs are designed for students from 16 schools. Regular meetings and seminars reinforce the school's strategy and vision.

IBCs contribute to organization's success by adding value to the entire network of schools through standard curriculums and specialized short-term programs. They positively impact the institution's image and awareness, particularly in major international cities like London and San Francisco. The presence of IBCs enhances the institution's reputation and demonstrates the priority placed on internationalization by top management.

5.5 Epsilon Business School: Intra-Case Analysis

This section is organized as follows: we first focus on institution's motivations for internationalization, then the rationale to create an international branch campus, followed by how the IBCs are coordinated, and finally we focus on the contributions of the branch campuses to the school.

5.5.1 Motivations for Internationalization for Epsilon Business School

The motivations for organization to internationalize are the need for students to have a global mindset, market demand, new sources of revenue, and the rankings.

The school understands the wants and needs of students for international education.

“Students want to go abroad during their studies.” (former Dean of the Chinese campus)

“Well, I think that in today's world, today's globalized world, international experience is key in the job market. We understand that it does bring something of value to the students' experience, to the students' CV in their development as a global citizen, and these are the sort of the key DNA that we're trying to promote. And so at Epsilon Business School, it's really at the heart of our activity. We believe that in today's world, you need to have international experience. You need to understand other cultures, you need to know other languages in order to have an impact during your professional career.” (International Office Manager)

Companies are also seeking students with international experience:

“A lot of businesses are seeing the value in a student who does have that global mindset who's intercultural, who can be emotionally sensitive to different cultures and lead groups of team members from different parts of the world... Businesses are looking for students to be able to come out of school and understand what it takes to market a product let's say in another country.” (Academic Dean of the U.S. campus)

In France, the student population attending *classe préparatoire* has dropped in recent years so:

“Knowing that historical recruitment is decreasing...each school is looking for different sources of income.” (Dean of Faculty)

“[French business schools are] privately run and privately funded, so they have to go where the market is supposed to be.” (Academic Dean of the Chinese campus)

School rankings is another motivation for internationalization.

“Because of the main pressure of French business schools are rankings. As soon as a ranking includes a new factor, then business schools rush into it.” (Former Academic Dean of the Chinese campus)

The main isomorphic pressures for the school to internationalize come from the demand of students and companies, competition amongst business schools, and the school rankings. Table 50 highlights the isomorphic pressures (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983) facing the institution.

Table 50. Isomorphic pressures facing Epsilon Business School to internationalize

Coercive Isomorphism	Mimetic Isomorphism	Normative Isomorphism
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Students• Companies	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Competition, especially from other French business schools	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• School rankings

Source: Elaboration of the author

5.5.2 Reasons to Create an International Branch Campus

Though the school has been international since its inception, one reason for creating IBCs is to attract international students.

“I think the main motivation...is we have an opportunity of recruiting hundreds of students because there are many students in China.” (Former Academic Dean of the Chinese campus)

“I think being global nowadays in higher education is one of the main key success factors to be able to attract more international students. I think that being a French school and having its own international campus abroad is a really added value that will make a difference when you compare it with another French school or even an American school that only has an American campus.” (Former Academic Dean of the U.S. campus)

Student mobility is another reason.

“The international mobility is really at the heart of our academic programs, and it's actually a degree requirement for a majority of our programs...So, as we're making it a degree requirement for students, we need to have a maximum offer of opportunities to study abroad for students as well. And so, we are developing those opportunities. Well, particularly with our international campuses, because that really opens up the best amount of places for students to be able to study abroad, because as they're staying within Epsilon, we don't need to respect a balance of flows as you may have to do with a partner university.” (International Office Manager)

A third reason to create IBCs is that it is part of institution's long-term strategy:

“Well, really Epsilon's goal is to be on every continent. So, to be present on every continent, and then it's decided, well which countries, and then where in those countries.” (International Office Manager)

“Epsilon is a global school, meaning that we're not a French school that is exporting a French approach of academics abroad. We aim at having a global approach of

academics, and so the international strategy is more of making sure we are present all across the globe.” (Former Academic Dean of the Chinese campus)

A fourth reason is there is always a key local partner for each campus that helps with its development:

“With each of our campuses, it always starts with a key partnership...with these partnerships, we also try to develop more of extensive collaborations, and particularly double degree opportunities.” (International Office Manager).

The school has several OLI advantages to create IBCs (Dunning, 1980), including brand reputation, a population of students that need international training, key partnerships with foreign universities, the possibility to send all students abroad, an easier management of an offshore site. Table 51 outlines the OLI advantages of the institution.

Table 51. The OLI advantages of Epsilon Business School to create IBCs

Ownership advantages	Location advantages	Internalization advantages
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increase brand reputation • Develop global mindset for students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Key partnerships in each campus location • Market potential in China 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Easier to manage than university partnerships • Can send all students, regardless of their academic level

Source: Elaboration of the author

5.5.3 Coordination of IBCs by Epsilon Business School

The institution is managed by the dean that reports to the Board of Trustees and oversees carrying out strategic policies decided by the Board, as well as advice from the International Advisory Board and the Research Advisory Committee.

The COMEX oversees the operational and strategic aspects of the school, and the directors of the IBCs attend these meetings on a quarterly basis. The school’s organization and coordination are explained:

“So, Epsilon Business School's internal organization is a matrix. So there is a hierarchical line and a functional line. For example, still to remain within the perimeter of the faculty, the academic director of a campus abroad has a delegation for the management of faculty on his campus in a - we will say - daily and functional manner. The hierarchical manager remains the direction of the faculty. So we are working-- It is extremely important coordination work since my colleague is American. There are a number of

rules which are produced in France and which must be applicable and applied on its campus...he's the delegate, he's a representative on his campus. But, it is not he who has the hierarchical management... So we have four faculty units...each director of those units sets up their own meetings, of course. So, in general, it's once a month. There are also two obligatory annual meetings which are the annual maintenance and the midterm interview and at the faculty level we organize - So I organize a faculty renewal seminar every year and for new teachers, after every four months, I have an individual interview with each of them.” (Dean of Faculty)

The creation and operation of an IBC at institution is very specific. First, the school always works with a key academic partner in the host country. Secondly, someone from the home institution is sent to the new campus to manage it for two or three years as it gets up and running. In the beginning, normally only one program is offered, the Master of Management, before opening specialized courses that are linked to the local ecosystem that includes a technological park in proximity.

“So when Epsilon opens a new campus... we have opened our campus with an academic partner... So the first year, when you open a campus...you open a master's year... There is a third criterion for Epsilon Business School which is extremely important, and that is to be in a science and technology park.” (Dean of Faculty)

“The objective is to introduce business schools in local developed or undeveloped ecosystems. Business schools, these international or global schools get wired into the local economic ecosystems in those areas. We launch programs that are general on entry. And once we have a school in place, let's say in Africa, we launch general business degree programs and then over time they become more specialized based on the local business trends in that area.” (Academic Dean of the U.S. campus)

For the interaction with the home campus:

“I would say that the communication with the home campus is fairly fluid. We have this design. We promote what's called the Matrix Organization where you may have your traditional organizational hierarchy let's say, but then you work programmatically or operationally with several different counterparts in France.” (Academic Dean of the U.S. campus)

Concerning the interaction amongst the IBCs, it is mostly done online with the occasional meetings in France:

“Now with video conferencing, I can see them every two weeks or every week, if needed. With new technology it actually helps to have all the directors connect from all the

campuses at the same time. But I can probably see them twice a year all together on a physical basis.” (Former Academic Dean of the U.S. campus)

“Nowadays, we use more of video conference because usually I go to France...we have annual meetings in France. It is very important to meet face to face, and to exchange because video conference, telephone call, email, cannot replace physical contact.”
(Academic Dean of the Chinese campus)

The personal coordination mechanisms of the institution include formal networks such the biannual global meeting, the annual faculty renewal meeting, and other work groups like the curriculum meetings between the campus deans and the program directors. Impersonal mechanisms include guidelines put in place by the home institution as decide by the COMEX, as well as individual performance evaluations (Harzing, 1999). Table 52 shows the key coordination mechanisms used by the school.

Table 52. Key coordination mechanisms used by Epsilon Business School to manage its IBCs

Classification of coordination mechanism		Key coordination mechanisms used by Epsilon Business School
Personal mechanisms	Personal centralized mechanisms	Resource dependence for the home campus
	Socialization and networks	Biannual global staff meeting Annual faculty renewal meeting Other group meetings such as curriculum meetings Informal interpersonal communication Inter-campus students exchange Inter-campus faculty exchange
Impersonal mechanisms	Bureaucratic formalized mechanisms	Strong guidelines from the home campus
	Output oriented mechanisms	Individual performance evaluation

Source: Elaboration of the author based on Schmid et al. (2016) citing Harzing (1999) pp. 16-24 and pp. 186-189

Type of Subsidiary

Using the classification by Edwards et al. (2014), the school may be considered as having a Global Branch Campus strategy because the role of the branches campuses is to execute the organization’s strategy and decisions. Staff from the home campus are assigned leadership positions at the branches. The core programs offered and the branding are the same at all campuses. Figure 31 shows the institution’s IBC strategy.

Figure 31. The IBC Strategy of Epsilon Business School

		Global Integration	
		Weak	Strong
Local Adaptation	Strong	The Multidomestic Branch Campus/ Autonomous Subsidiary Strategy	The Transnational Branch Campus/ Active Subsidiary Strategy
	Weak	The International Branch Campus/ Quiescent Subsidiary Strategy	The Global Branch Campus/ Receptive Subsidiary Strategy <i>Epsilon Business School</i>

Source: Elaboration of the author based on Edwards et al. (2014, p. 184-186); Jarillo & Martinez (1990); Taggart (1998)

5.5.4 Contribution of IBCs to Epsilon Business School

The institution affirms:

“That there is a five-year period where we consider international branch campuses as a center of cost” and that many IBCs are *“operating in a deficit.”*¹⁸

It is apparent that the purpose of the IBCs is more strategic than financial and that they do have a positive impact on school’s image:

“I think it is critical for Epsilon to have a Chinese campus because it helps a lot their visibility and their reputation.” (Academic Director of the Chinese campus)

“It’s all linked, if we said that the campus impacts the ranking, it means that it also impacts its reputation.” (Dean of Faculty)

“I think it does help in Epsilon Business School's ranking quite significantly, because internationally, in the rankings that we're in, internationalization is always a theme that is rated, in where Epsilon tends to come out quite high in those rankings. So it is important.” (International Office Manager)

¹⁸ The respondents asked to remain anonymous.

5.5.5 Key Conclusions from the Epsilon Business School Case

The school's motivations for establishing IBCs are primarily focused on internationalization and attracting international students. Having international campuses adds value and sets the institution apart from others. It is seen as a key success factor in attracting international students. Furthermore, IBCs support the institution's emphasis on international mobility, which is a degree requirement for many programs. The institution's long-term strategy involves global expansion, aiming to have a presence on every continent. The institution aims to offer a global approach to academics, rather than exporting a specific French academic approach.

The organization is managed by the dean who reports to the Board of Trustees and is responsible for implementing strategic policies. The COMEX oversees both the operational and strategic aspects of the school, with IBC directors attending quarterly meetings. The creation and operation of IBCs at Epsilon involve collaborating with academic partners in host countries. Initially, a limited program is offered, such as the Programme Grande Ecole, before introducing specialized courses aligned with the local ecosystem. Interaction between IBCs and the home campus primarily occurs online, with occasional in-person meetings.

The primary contribution of IBCs appears to be strategic rather than financial. IBCs positively impact the institution's image and reputation, particularly in terms of visibility and international rankings. Having a Chinese campus, for instance, significantly enhances the institution's visibility and reputation. Internationalization is a theme that is rated in various international rankings, and Epsilon Business School tends to perform well in this regard, further contributing to its success and recognition.

Conclusion to Chapter 5

In this chapter, we looked at five different French business school to understand how Higher Education Institutions manage the headquarters-subsidary relationship with their International Branch Campuses. We explored this by asking 1) What are the motivations for creating an IBC? 2) How are the IBCs controlled and coordinated? 3) What is the impact the IBCs on the home institution? to provide the intra-case findings discussed in this chapter.

To keep the analyses independent, the key conclusions of the cases are provided in subsections 5.1.5, 5.2.5, 5.3.5, 5.4.5, and 5.5.5.

In the next chapter, we will do a cross-case analysis based on our research questions.

CHAPTER 6. Cross-Case Analysis and Discussion

In this chapter, we will take the knowledge gained from our individual case studies to investigate similarities and differences between the cases to expand our understanding of the relationship between French business schools and their international branch campuses. We then discuss the theoretical implications, as well as the methodological and managerial contributions of our research.

6.1 Cross-Case Analysis

This section provides a cross-case synthesis of the findings from the five case studies, following a literal replication methodology to identify common patterns. The findings are presented in line with the three research sub-questions.

6.1.1 Institution Identity and Context

In this section we compare the motivations for internationalization and the reasons to create an IBC for the five schools.

6.1.1.1 Motivations for Internationalization

Firms in the same organizational field can have forces that emerge that lead them to become similar to one another (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). These pressures can be formal and informal and are referred to as coercive, mimetic, and normative pressures.

EM Normandie states that the main pressure to internationalize comes from the accreditation agencies AACSB, EQUIS, and AMBA. Other coercive pressures come from the demand of students, parents, and companies. There is a need and demand by students, parents, and recruiting companies for students to have an international mindset and training, including linguistic skills. The institution asserts that fierce competition from other business schools on the French market is another motivation to internationalize. According to one industry expert:

“The national market is so competitive that everybody is looking for differentiation. If the criteria change, business schools are caught between the necessity to participate and the need to adapt to the ranking to impact and sustain the market competition.” (Industry Expert #1)

Due to market saturation, going abroad is a way to stay competitive and to sustain growth (Javalgi & Grossman, 2014). Lastly, the school affirms that there are normative pressures

stemming from the school rankings, as well as from the research rankings (McKiernan & Wilson, 2012).

ESCP became international when it merged with its sister school EAP in 1999 (ESCP, 2023a), however the motivation to continue to grow internationally flows from the financial pressure placed on the school by ESCP stakeholders to increase its revenue and by the demand of students to be exposed to an international curriculum. The organization also mentions competition from other schools as the final pressure for ESCP to go abroad.

The pressures for ESSCA to internationalize are threefold. Firstly, there are the pressures from accreditation agencies, especially EQUIS. The second one is from the school rankings. The institution sees the pressures from these two entities as being correlated. An industry expert elaborates:

“You've got the French government you've got, of course, all the accreditations, and all of this is consolidated by the rankings that heavily rely on this. And if you're not international enough, you can't get national and international accreditation. And if you don't have these national or international accreditations, you're ranked badly.” (Industry Expert #2)

Finally, there is a demand from students to have an international skill set to compete in the world market.

For OMNES Education, the main coercive pressure comes from students. The school recognizes that it must provide the necessary international exposure and linguistic skill training to its students, so they will remain competitive in today's job market. Another pressure stems from competition. The organization contends that the French business school market is saturated, and that to remain competitive, it must go abroad. The last pressure comes from the school rankings.

Lastly, Epsilon Business School asserts that there are two main coercive pressures to internationalize: from students and from companies. There is a demand by students to go abroad during their studies to earn the international experience demanded by the job market. Companies are seeking recruits that have the necessary global skill set. The institution identifies competition from the other French business schools as a pressure to internationalize. Finally, school rankings are recognized as another pressure to go abroad. Table 53 outlines the isomorphic pressures (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983) facing French business schools to internationalize.

Table 53. Isomorphic pressures facing French business schools to internationalize

Institutional Isomorphism	EM Normandie	ESCP	ESSCA	OMNES Education	Epsilon Business School
<i>Coercive</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Accreditation agencies • Students • Parents • Companies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ESCP shareholders for better financial results • Students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Accreditation agencies • Students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students • Companies
<i>Mimetic</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Competition, especially from other French business schools 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Competition, especially from other French business schools 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Competition, especially from other French business schools 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Competition, especially from other French business schools
<i>Normative</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School rankings • Research rankings 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School rankings 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School rankings 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School rankings

Source: Elaboration of the author

Pressure from accreditation agencies is a main factor for French business schools to internationalize. Having accreditations is an entry ticket for business schools that want to compete on an international level (Lejeune et al., 2015) and is a necessity rather than a competitive advantage (Thomas et al., 2014). If a business school is unaccredited, it runs the risk of becoming less competitive in attracting students (Teixeira & Maccari, 2018). Accreditations may serve as a signal that the activities of the school are regulated and increase its legitimacy amongst its stakeholders. Legitimacy is vital for organizational survival and success (Zhang, et al., 2019). Business schools will conform to the accreditation processes in order to gain legitimacy (Thomas, et al. 2014).

In parallel with accreditations is the pressure from school rankings. French business schools with the best overall rankings are also those with the best scores in internationalization (Blanchard & Crespy, 2023). In reviewing four French publications that do annual business school rankings: *L'Etudiant*, *Le Figaro*, *Challenges*, and *L'Usine Nouvelle*, Blanchard and Crespy (2023) find that no criteria are identical, but that the most common criterion is international reputation. Where a school is ranked and which accreditations it has is an indication of the perceived level of quality the institution has in the French business school market (Dubois & Welch, 2017).

There is fierce competition among French business schools (Dubois & Welch, 2017). The schools are using internationalization as a means of distinction in the process of reinventing or redefining themselves (Blanchard & Crespy, 2023). However, there is a mimetic behavior in the market (Fay & Zavattaro, 2016).

There are also pressures to internationalize from internal stakeholders like students and from external stakeholders such as companies (Fay & Zavattaro, 2016). Internationalization is mainly a quest for French business schools to increase their reputation internationally, but even more so on the home market (Engwall & Kipping, 2013).

6.1.1.2 Reasons to Create an IBC

In this section, we examine why the schools chose to create an international branch campus over another foreign market entry option.

EM Normandie views student mobility as one of the main reasons for creating IBCs. Though the school has more than 200 international partner universities where students may do an exchange, having an IBC provides three main advantages for student mobility. Firstly, there is no student quota as there are with partner universities, meaning EM Normandie is not limited in the number of students it can send to its IBCs. Secondly, any student that is enrolled at the school may study at its IBCs, regardless of their academic level. Thirdly, despite additional

costs, having an IBC is easier to manage when compared to working with partner universities. The organization is able to control the quality processes at the IBCs guaranteeing a harmonious experience for its students.

The campuses in Oxford and Dublin have several advantages for the school. Oxford bestows first and foremost the location's brand image and prestige. The institution profits from the brand association with Oxford (Yuan et. al., 2016) and uses it extensively in its marketing efforts to French students, as well as to international students coming from partner universities. Dublin provides the advantage of being the only native English-speaking country in the European Union and, in addition hosts several European headquarters of high-tech companies such as Google or Amazon. Both locations are in geographic proximity to Normandy.

ESCP does not consider that it has branch campuses, but that it is a Pan-European institution with five federal campuses in Western Europe and a strategic alliance in Eastern Europe with Kominski University. The institution uses these campuses to keep a foothold on the European market and to export the *Grande Ecole* model. All students at ESCP must rotate between the campuses, and the school is able to provide the training to be a "European multinational, multicultural manager" via its English language degree-based programs offered at each site. The organization uses its network of campuses to increase its reputation on the French market, as well as internationally. The school also states that branch campuses are easier to manage than university partnerships.

The reasons for ESSCA to have IBCs stems from market opportunities. For Budapest, the school was approached by Corvinus University of Budapest after the fall of the Berlin Wall to create a double-degree program in Hungary for people that spoke French. This evolved into becoming a branch campus for ESSCA, while keeping its key partnership with Corvinus University. The rationale for the creating the Shanghai campus is similar. The institution recognized an opportunity after China joined the World Trade Organization to provide its students an avenue for gaining more experience in international business. It does this via its key partnership with Shanghai International Studies University. The institution uses its branch campuses as a way of providing to its students, regardless of their academic profile, international exposure and training. It also offers the opportunity to attend the IBCs to exchange students from its partner universities. The IBCs are easier to manage than university partnerships and they enhance the school's brand reputation.

For OMNES Education, one of the main reasons to create IBCs is to provide to its own students, regardless of their academic level, a means of following classes in English as well as an international experience. Since OMNES Education is a network of 16 different schools, the branch campuses are used to provide short-term programs for all the members of the network.

These programs may be linked to specializations for which the city of the campus location is known for (e.g., finance in London, innovation in San Francisco). However, the campus in Abidjan was created due to market demand in Africa. The institution also states that IBCs increase the schools brand reputation and are easier to manage than university partnerships.

Finally, for Epsilon Business School, the rationale for creating branch campuses is similar to that of OMNES Education. It is a means of providing to its own students, regardless of their academic level, a way of following classes in English while giving them an international experience. The institution also asserts that IBCs increase the schools brand reputation and are easier to manage than university partnerships. However, there is a key academic partner in each campus location.

Table 54 highlights the OLI advantages (Dunning, 1980) of French business schools to create IBCs.

Table 54. The OLI advantages of French business schools for creating IBCs

OLI Advantages	EM Normandie	ESCP	ESSCA	OMNES Education	Epsilon Business School
<i>Ownership</i>	Increase brand reputation on the French market Has a positive impact on accreditations	Increase brand reputation Develop European multinational, multicultural managers	Increase brand reputation Develop global mindset for students Attract non-French speaking students	Increase brand reputation Develop global mindset and linguistic skills for students	Increase brand reputation Develop global mindset for students
<i>Location</i>	Oxford – very high academic reputation Dublin – English-speaking, and part of the European Union Geographic proximity to the home institution	Foothold on the European market Easier to offer English language degree-based programs outside of France Key partnership with Kozminski University	Key partnership with Corvinus University in Budapest Key partnership with Shanghai International Studies University	Market potential in Africa Based in English-speaking cities	Key partnerships in each campus location Market potential in China
<i>Internalization</i>	Easier to manager than university partnerships Can send all students, regardless of their academic level	Export the <i>Grande Ecole</i> model Easier to manage than university partnerships	Easier to manage than university partnerships Can send all students, regardless of their academic level	Can send students from all 16 schools for short-term programs Easier to manage than university partnerships	Easier to manage than university partnerships Can send all students, regardless of their academic level

Source: Elaboration of the author

All schools in the study stated that one of the main reasons to create an IBC is to increase the brand reputation of the institution. Girdzijauskaitė et al. (2019a) examined schools from Asia, Europe, the Middle East, and the United States with IBCs and identified brand development as the primary reason for institutions to create branch campuses. Most schools that possess an IBC believe that having a physical international campus enhances the institution's status and reputation (Wilkins, 2021).

Many of the schools specified having key local partners in their IBCs location. This allows the institutions to reduce the *liability of newness* and the *liability of foreignness* through the assistance of their key local partner (Cuervo-Cazurra et al., 2007). Schools are also using locations of their IBCs to evoke distinctive meanings to different observers, thus turning location resources into firm-specific resources (Zaheer & Nachum, 2011). For example, EM Normandie is using the identity and reputation of Oxford as a firm-specific resource in its marketing efforts. FDI may be undertaken explicitly with the aim of using the assets acquired abroad to enhance its reputation on the home market (Meyer, 2015).

The internalization advantages stated by the schools are control and flexibility. The home institution has control over the operations, thus avoiding conflicts that may arise from dealing with partner universities and assuring the quality of the campus offerings. Also, there are no academic restrictions for the home institution to send its students to the IBCs.

6.1.2 The International Branch Campus and Its Relationships

In this section we compare the coordination of the IBCs for the five schools.

6.1.2.1 Coordination of the IBCs

At EM Normandie, the COMEX is responsible for strategic decision-making, whereas the CODIR oversees the execution and daily operations. The organization's coordination mechanisms can be classified into two main categories: personal and impersonal (Harzing, 1999). Personal mechanisms encompass formal networks, such as the annual staff meeting, biannual faculty meeting, and collaborative efforts like program directors' coordination. On the other hand, impersonal mechanisms involve guidelines established by the home institution and those stipulated by accreditation agencies.

ESCP is overseen by the COMEX, comprising directors from various campuses. Additionally, a Board of Trustees plays a crucial role in validating the school's strategy. The COMEX convenes monthly to address decisions at the federal level, spanning all campuses. On a campus-specific level, each campus forms its committee, consisting of the campus dean and local representatives. This committee meets weekly to implement decisions from the COMEX.

Moreover, each campus maintains its Board of Trustees, meeting biannually and consisting of members from other campuses and local business leaders.

There are two levels of control in the ESCP matrix: the international level (the European level) and the national level (the country level), and a person's responsibility may be split between the two levels.

The institution employs personal coordination mechanisms, which involve formal networks such as the European Faculty Advisory Committee, the annual staff meeting, the biannual faculty meeting, and collaborative efforts like coordination between campus deans and program directors. Various work teams handle federal and national-level activities. In contrast, impersonal mechanisms encompass guidelines established by the home institution as determined by the COMEX, guidelines from local government bodies, and individual performance evaluations.

ESSCA is guided by a Board of Trustees that provides counsel to the dean regarding the school's strategic policies. Additionally, there is an International Advisory Board, chaired by the same person as the Board of Trustees, which supports the latter. The COMEX, relying on the recommendations of these two boards, makes strategic decisions, while day-to-day operations are overseen by the CODIR. Within the CODIR, one can find the directors of both the French and international campuses.

The French campus directors report to the Director of Operations. In contrast, the directors of the Budapest and Shanghai campuses directly report to the dean, as the structures of these two campuses differ from that of the ESSCA France association.

The institution employs personal coordination mechanisms, incorporating formal networks like the annual staff meeting, along with various groups such as curriculum management meetings and coordination between campus deans and program directors. Additionally, impersonal mechanisms encompass guidelines established by the home institution as determined by the COMEX, alongside individual performance evaluations.

OMNES Education is overseen by the COMEX, consisting of chief executives and an advisory board. The day-to-day operations and the execution of school policies are managed by the CODIR. The directors of the campuses, integral members of the CODIR, convene weekly to ensure effective coordination and implementation of strategic decisions.

The school utilizes personal coordination mechanisms, involving formal networks like the annual staff meeting, one-day strategy seminars, and program coordination meetings. On an impersonal level, guidelines established by the home institution, determined by the COMEX, and individual performance evaluations are key components.

Epsilon Business School is under the leadership of the dean, who reports to the Board of Trustees. The dean is responsible for executing strategic policies determined by the Board and seeks guidance from the International Advisory Board and the Research Advisory Committee. The COMEX oversees both operational and strategic aspects of the school, with the directors of the IBCs participating in quarterly meetings.

The institution employs various personal coordination mechanisms, such as formal networks like the biannual global meeting, the annual faculty renewal meeting, and work groups like curriculum meetings between campus deans and program directors. Impersonal mechanisms include guidelines established by the home institution, as determined by the COMEX, and individual performance evaluations.

Table 55 highlights the key coordination mechanisms used by each school to manage its IBCs.

Table 55. Key coordination mechanisms used by French business schools to manage their IBCs

Coordination Mechanisms	EM Normandie	ESCP	ESSCA	OMNES Education	Epsilon Business School
<i>Personal mechanisms</i>					
Personal centralized mechanisms	Resource dependence for the home campus	Resource dependence for the home campus	Resource dependence for the home campus	Resource dependence for the home campus	Resource dependence for the home campus
Socialization and networks	Annual staff meeting	European Faculty Advisory Committee	Annual staff meeting	Biannual global staff meeting	Biannual global staff meeting
	Biannual faculty meetings	Annual staff meeting	Other group meetings, such as curriculum management meetings	Other group meetings such as one-day strategy seminars and program coordination meetings	Annual faculty renewal meeting
	Coordination meetings between program directors	Biannual faculty meetings	Informal interpersonal communication	Informal interpersonal communication	Other group meetings such as curriculum meetings
	Research seminars	Federal level activities	Inter-campus students exchange	Inter-campus students exchange	Informal interpersonal communication
	Informal interpersonal communication	National level activities	Inter-campus faculty exchange	Inter-campus faculty exchange	Inter-campus students exchange
	Inter-campus visits by managers	Campus coordination			Inter-campus faculty exchange
	Inter-campus faculty exchange	Program coordination			
		Informal interpersonal communication			
		Inter-campus students exchange			
		Inter-campus faculty exchange			

Table 55 (Continued)

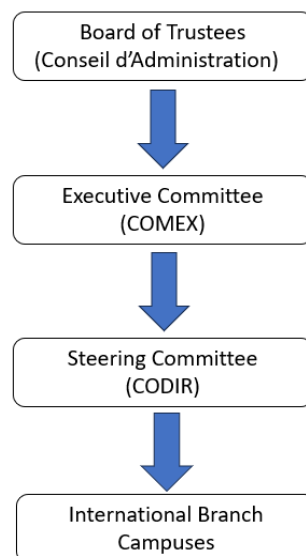
Coordination Mechanisms	EM Normandie	ESCP	ESSCA	OMNES Education	Epsilon Business School
<i>Impersonal mechanisms</i>					
Bureaucratic formalized mechanisms	Strong guidelines from the home campus Strong guidelines from accreditation agencies	Strong guidelines from the home campus Strong guidelines from local government bodies	Strong guidelines from the home campus Strong guidelines from accreditation agencies	Strong guidelines from the home campus	Strong guidelines from the home campus
Output oriented mechanisms	Individual performance evaluation	Individual performance evaluation	Individual performance evaluation	Individual performance evaluation	Individual performance evaluation

Source: Elaboration of the author based on Schmid et al. (2016) citing Harzing (1999) pp. 16-24 and pp. 186-189

For all schools in the study, the COMEX is responsible for shaping and deciding on the strategic matters of the school. It establishes policies and procedures aligned with the directives set by the Board of Trustees. These decisions then go down to the CODIR, that oversees the day-to-day running of the institution and the implementation of the overall policies that are sent to the branch campuses. This type of centralized mechanism is good for knowledge flows within the firm (Zeng et al., 2023).

Muzio and Faulconbridge (2013) term this form of centralization as the "one-firm" model (p. 897), wherein crucial matters like strategy, organizational structure, and overall practices are determined by an executive management committee. Subsequently, these decisions are to be executed by the subsidiaries. Figure 32 show the basic "one-firm" structure for all the schools.

Figure 32. The basic French business school "one-firm" structure.



Source: Elaboration of the author

French business schools may be considered professional service firms:

"Our business is a professional service called higher education. It's not very different from a consulting firm, which is delivering professional services." (Director of ESCP Madrid)

The prevalent organizational structure in professional service firms is nearly universally characterized as a matrix model (Klimkeit & Reihlen, 2016). In this model, a traditional vertical hierarchy is augmented by a lateral authority, combining functional aspects with a horizontal dimension that encompasses projects, products, or business areas. All schools in the study are divided into disciplinary groups, teaching programs, and research subject groups.

The governance structure of the IBCs remains closely tied to their home institution, yet it allows them a degree of autonomy in the day-to-day management of operations. While the IBCs operate within the framework of the home institution, the managers overseeing various campuses and programs engage in a networked collaboration. This collaboration occurs through both occasional and regular interactions, encompassing both formal and informal exchanges of ideas.

Digital tools serve as a constant arena for collaboration among the diverse campuses, fostering a dynamic dialogue aimed at upholding the quality of the curriculum and ensuring robust support for students. This ongoing digital collaboration underscores the commitment to maintaining high standards across all aspects of the educational experience.

Furthermore, in addition to digital connectivity, formal physical meetings play a crucial role in shaping the direction of the institution and its various campuses. These meetings serve as strategic gatherings, where decisions are made to enhance overall quality and refine the institutional strategy. The blend of digital and physical interactions reflects the multi-faceted approach taken by the organization to foster collaboration and ensure the success of the IBCs.

In terms of coordination mechanisms, the organizations employ a dual categorization proposed by Harzing (1999): personal and impersonal. Personal mechanisms encompass formal networks, such as the annual staff meeting, biannual faculty meeting, and various work groups, including coordination efforts among program directors. These regular meetings help normalize exchanges and increase knowledge transfer efficiency (Palmié et al., 2016). These forums provide a structured platform for face-to-face interactions, fostering a sense of community and facilitating efficient communication among stakeholders. The coordination is aimed at building links between the branch campuses in order to accomplish better joint goal achievements (Martinez & Jarillo, 1989). This also builds mutual trust and commitment development among the campus directors (Vahlne & Johanson, 2021).

On the other hand, impersonal mechanisms involve guidelines established by the home institution and those set forth by accreditation agencies. These guidelines form a framework that guides the IBCs in adhering to established standards and practices, ensuring consistency and quality across the board. There is also an individual performance evaluation which is a type of reward system based on one's yearly contributions to the institution. Effectively communicating corporate objectives in direct alignment with the reward system appears to be a more efficient approach for executing strategy and implementing changes (Fossats-Vasselin, 2021). Table 56 shows the coordination mechanisms used by French business schools.

Table 56. Key coordination mechanisms used by French business schools

Classification of coordination mechanism		Key coordination mechanisms used by French business schools
Personal mechanisms	Personal centralized mechanisms	Resource dependence for the home campus
	Socialization and networks	Annual staff meeting Biannual Faculty meetings Coordination meetings between program directors Research seminars Informal interpersonal communication Inter-campus visits by managers Inter-campus faculty exchange
Impersonal mechanisms	Bureaucratic formalized mechanisms	Strong guidelines from the home campus Strong guidelines from accreditation agencies
	Output oriented mechanisms	Individual performance evaluation

Source: Elaboration of the author based on Schmid et al. (2016) citing Harzing (1999) pp. 16-24 and pp. 186-189

Type of Subsidiary

Based on the classification by Edwards et al. (2014), there are three schools that are following a Global Branch Campus strategy, one institution that has a Transnational Branch Campus strategy, and one that is in between the two.

An institution adopting a Global Branch Campus strategy is characterized by brand campuses tasked with implementing the institute's strategy and decisions. Leadership positions at both the home and branch campuses are filled by staff from the home campus, ensuring consistency in core programs and branding across all branches. In line with Jarillo and Martinez's (1989) typology, these campuses follow a *receptive* subsidiary strategy as few functions are performed in the country (typically, only marketing and sales), and they are highly integrated with the rest of the firm. EM Normandie, OMNES Education, and Epsilon Business School follow this type of strategy.

“When they understand that they will be able to go abroad by EM Normandie, with EM Normandie staff, they feel better.” (Director of International Development, EM Normandie)

“For our campuses, I consider them to be satellite campuses, not aiming to serve the local population.” (Director of OMNES Education San Francisco)

“Epsilon Business School France determines the global strategy including the programs, the contents, and all other academic the contents that are cascaded down in the seven campuses.” (Dean, Epsilon Business School Chinese campus).

On the other hand, an institution embracing a Transnational Branch Campus strategy is inherently multicentered, with leadership roles distributed between the parent and branch campuses, each specializing in distinct areas of teaching and research. Notably, it diverges from the traditional concept of a "branch campus." In the Jarillo and Martinez (1990) typology, these campuses follow an *active* strategy as many activities are located in the host country. The activities are carried out in close coordination with the rest of the firm, thus “constituting an active node in a tightly knit network” (Jarillo & Martinez, 1991, p. 443). ESCP falls into this category.

“I mean obviously there is some harmonization and some guidelines from the headquarters, which would be Paris, but there is a lot of degrees of freedom because it has to be like that in each country and specifically in Germany, we're really rooted in the higher education, in the German higher education landscape.” (Director of ESCP Berlin)

“Very rarely do you see those same institutions really try to integrate those international branch campuses to the point where programs are themselves really rotational programs being run across a network of campuses...like ESCP.” (Director of ESCP London)

Firms have been found to move from a global strategy to a transnational one as the environment changes (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1987). ESSCA is in the process of moving from a Global Branch Strategy to a Transnational Branch Strategy.

“We've decided to have a new approach, a new managerial approach. So, that means that now we are approaching people in Angers to accept the fact that some people make the decision in the new campuses in Lyon, Bordeaux, Aix. Nothing has to be decided exclusively in Angers.” (Dean of ESSCA)

“In the last two years we started a process of making a clear distinction between centralized functions, decentralized functions at the campus levels. We actually redesigned our organization, we redistribute the power and clarify what should be central and what should be the campus level, and what was true of the French campuses is true for international campuses. Now we have a campus director for all campuses. In few months we will have a campus executive committee in all campuses. We have research coordinators in all campuses. We have a faculty coordinator at all campuses, et cetera, et cetera.” (Associate Dean of Research, ESSCA)

Figure 33 shows the different IBC strategies for the five schools.

Figure 33. The IBC strategies of French business schools

		Global Integration	
		Weak	Strong
Local Adaptation	Strong	The Multidomestic Branch Campus/ Autonomous Subsidiary Strategy	The Transnational Branch Campus/ Active Subsidiary Strategy <i>ESCP</i> <i>ESSCA</i>
	Weak	The International Branch Campus/ Quiescent Subsidiary Strategy	The Global Branch Campus/ Receptive Subsidiary Strategy <i>EM Normandie</i> <i>OMNES Education</i> <i>Epsilon Business School</i>

Source: Elaboration of the author based on Edwards et al. (2014, p. 184-186); Jarillo & Martinez (1990); Taggart (1998)

6.1.3 Contributions of the IBCs to the Institutions

There are two main contributions concerning the effects of the branch campuses on their home institutions. The first one is the positive impact of the IBCs on the image and reputation of the home institution. A strong reputation is vital for higher education institutions as it influences their ability to attract students, faculty, funding, and collaborations. It also contributes to the overall quality of education and the success of graduates in the job market (Amado Mateus & Juarez Acosta, 2022). Rivalries between HEIs to attract domestic and international students, as well as other resources, have led many institutions to invest in their brand reputation (Lafuente-Ruiz-de-Sabando, et al. 2018; Wilkins & Huisman, 2014).

The second is one is the beneficial effect it has on accreditation agencies and ranking systems. As IBCs help with the reputation of the institution, the reputation of the institution influences the rankings and accreditations (Haas & Unkel, 2017).

“I would not be able to say how many ranks we’ve gained; we obtained some more ranks because we have these campuses, but... it brings us a lot of value on the markets because of these two campuses.” (Director of International Development, EM Normandie).

Concerning the financial performance of the IBCs, the majority are operating at a loss and are subsidized by the home institution. Institutions budget for between five and 10 years to achieve break-even with their IBCs, and until this occurs, the losses can be substantial (Wilkins, 2021). Girdzijauskaite et al. (2019b) find that the use of IBCs as a foreign market entry mode is more about strengthening the institutional brand than about generating income. Table 57 shows the different contributions of the IBCs to the home institution.

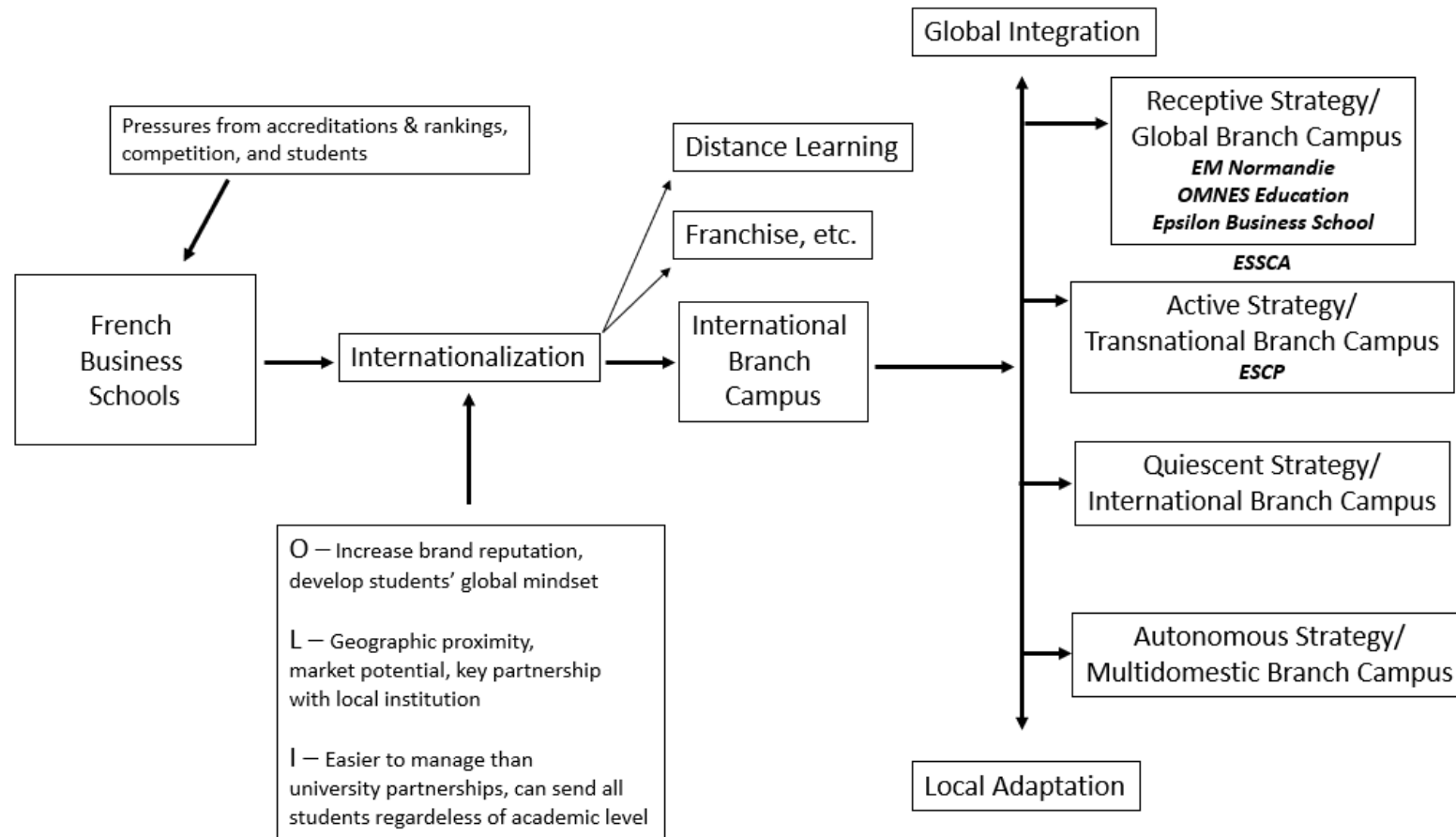
Lastly, we place our findings into the conceptual framework. The framework shows the isomorphic pressures (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983) on French business schools to internationalize that stem from accreditations and rankings, competition, and students. The OLI advantages (Dunning, 1980) outline why schools choose an international branch campus over the other foreign market entry modes (distance learning, or a franchise, validation, joint program). The O advantages encompass the need to increase the brand reputation of the institution and to develop their students' global mindset. The L advantages include geographic proximity, market potential, and a key partnership with a local institution. The I advantages are that IBCs are easier to manage than partner universities and the schools can send all of their students to the branch campus regardless of their academic level. The level of global integration versus local adaptation (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989) determines the type of branch strategy the campus will follow. For the five schools examined for our research, three follow a Global Branch Campus strategy, one pursues a Transnational Branch Campus strategy, and one is between the two.

Figure 34 shows the conceptual framework as applied to the five French business schools in our study.

Table 57. Contributions of the IBCs to the home institution

	EM Normandie	ESCP	ESSCA	OMNES Education	Epsilon Business School
<i>Contributions of the IBCs to the Institutions</i>	<p>Have a positive effect on school's image and reputation.</p> <p>Have a positive impact on the accreditations and rankings.</p>	<p>Have a positive effect on school's image and reputation.</p> <p>Have a positive impact on the rankings.</p>	<p>Have a positive effect on the school's brand awareness.</p> <p>Have a positive impact on the rankings.</p> <p>Provide reassurance to families that are apprehensive about the child studying abroad.</p>	<p>Have a positive effect on school's image.</p>	<p>Have a positive effect on school's image and reputation.</p> <p>Have a positive impact on the rankings.</p>
<i>Financial Performance of the IBCs</i>	<p>Not disclosed.</p>	<p>Operate with a profit but are dependent on the flow of students from the home campus.</p>	<p>Operate at a loss and are subsidized by the home campus.</p>	<p>Ranges from earning a profit margin of 20% to operating at a loss and being d subsidized by the home campus.</p>	<p>Operate at a loss and are subsidized by the home campus.</p>

Figure 34. The conceptual framework applied to the five French business schools



6.2 Discussion

In this section we will discuss our results based around our research sub-questions. This will be followed by the theoretical implications, the methodological implications, and the managerial contributions.

Why do higher education institutions choose to create international branch campuses?

The five studied schools have different motivations to internationalize and several reasons to choose international branch campuses as a way of going abroad. The findings will be discussed in the context of our conceptual framework.

Business schools face isomorphic pressures (Teixeira & Maccari, 2018; Wedlin, 2007; Yoon et al., 2021). Our study finds several coercive, mimetic, and normative pressures that affect higher education institutions, and particularly French business schools (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). All schools cited students as a main reason to internationalize. The rationale is twofold: students want to have the international experience and skills that are needed by managers in today's environment, and that students must study abroad as a program requirement by the school. To our knowledge, this is the first time that empirical data shows students as a main coercive pressure for schools to internationalize. Another coercive pressure stems from the accreditation agencies AACSB, EQUIS, and AMBA. This is consistent with previous empirical studies that show that business schools face pressure from international accreditation organizations (e.g., Prasad et al., 2019; Yoon et al., 2021). French business schools compete in a competitive market and obtaining accreditation gives legitimacy to the institution in the higher education arena (Darley & Luethge, 2019; Durand & McGuire, 2005; Klarin et al., 2021). However, it is no longer considered a competitive advantage for a school, but a requirement (Carton et al., 2018). Bradford et al. (2017) state that business schools will model themselves on similar organizations that are perceived as more successful. The top three ranked French business schools - HEC, ESSEC, and ESCP – all have international branch campuses and other schools may mimic their strategy to remain competitive (Bradford et al., 2017; Cross-Border Education Research Team, 2023; l'Etudiant, 2023). For normative pressures, all schools state that the rankings have a major influence on their internationalization efforts. This finding supports other empirical studies that conclude the importance of rankings for business schools. (e.g., Drori et al., 2015; Dubois & Walsh, 2017; McKiernan & Wilson, 2012; Wedlin, 2007).

The choice of French business schools to create an international branch campus can be explained via the OLI lens (Dunning, 1980). For ownership advantages, every school states that increasing the reputation of their brand is a main reason to create an IBC over other forms of market entry modes. Most business schools do not have the same recognition as top schools

like Harvard and must increase their visibility and reputation to remain competitive (Guillotin & Mangematin, 2015). Higher education institutions are increasingly adopting marketing and branding strategies to build their awareness on the international stage (Hemsley-Brown et al., 2016). However, Engwall & Kipping (2013) affirm that it is even more about increasing the institution's reputation on the home market. Professional service firms will create subsidiaries abroad in order to enhance their brand recognition (Javalgi & Grossman, 2014; Jensen & Peterson, 2014).

A second reason given by the schools for creating an IBC is for developing the global mindset of their students. Having an international skill set is important for business students to remain competitive on the job market (Acker & Bocarro, 2021; Nonis et al., 2020). EM Normandie also stated that having an IBC has a positive effect on accreditations.

Location advantages are based around key partnerships, geographic location, and market potential. All schools mention having key partners in their location choices: British Study Centre for both campuses of EM Normandie, Corvinus University and Shanghai International Studies University for ESSCA, and key university partners for Epsilon Business School in their campus locations. ESCP, although having established IBCs, has a key partner with Kominski University for its Warsaw campus. OMNES Education does not mention key academic partners but they do have links with professional ones. Having the assistance of key local partners helps institutions to reduce the *liability of newness* and the *liability of foreignness* on the market (Cuervo-Cazurra et al., 2007). Offering programs taught in English, whether it is in a native English-speaking country or not, is important for all schools. Having courses taught in English is a way to legitimize the international aspect of the institution (Escriva-Beltran et al., 2019). Schools are also using location advantages in a way similar to "assets acquired abroad" to build its reputation on the home market (Meyer, 2015; Zaheer & Nachum, 2011). EM Normandie, for example, is using the identity and reputation of Oxford as a firm-specific resource in its marketing efforts.

For market potential, OMNES Education created a campus in Abidjan to meet the needs of the growing demand for education in Africa (Darley & Luethge, 2019). Epsilon Business School addresses the potential of the Chinese market by having two branch campuses in the country.

There are two main internalization advantages for having IBCs: Having a campus is easier to manage than university partnerships and all students enrolled at the home institution may study at the branch campus, regardless of their academic level. Having their campus allows schools to control the quality of the programs offer. Although more expensive, it is less complicated than international exchange agreements with partner universities (Atalar, 2020). It also reduces the uncertainty of study abroad for parents and students as the campus is operated by the home

institution (Ferreira et al., 2013). The findings support the conclusion of Carton et al. (2018) that French business schools are mainly using their branch campuses to send their own students.

How can higher education institutions control and coordinate their international branch campuses?

In the studied schools, the Executive Committee (COMEX) holds the responsibility of formulating and determining the school's strategic initiatives. It establishes policies and procedures in accordance with the directives set forth by the Board of Trustees. These decisions are then cascaded down to the Steering Committee (CODIR), which oversees the day-to-day operations of the institution and ensures the implementation of overarching policies at the branch campuses. This centralized mechanism facilitates efficient knowledge flows within the organization, as highlighted by Zeng et al. (2023). Muzio and Faulconbridge (2013) refer to this centralized approach as the "one-firm" model (p. 897), where essential elements such as strategy, organizational structure, and overall practices are decided by an executive management committee. Subsequently, these decisions are carried out by the various subsidiaries.

The governance framework of the IBCs maintains a strong connection with their home institution, providing them with a certain level of independence in the daily management of their operations. Although the IBCs adhere to the overall structure of the home institution, the managers responsible for different campuses and programs participate in a networked collaboration. This collaboration involves intermittent and routine interactions, encompassing both formal and informal exchanges of information.

The institutions use two forms of coordination mechanisms: personal and impersonal (Harzing, 1999). Personal mechanisms include formal networks, such as the annual staff meeting, biannual faculty meeting, and various work groups, which involve coordination efforts among program directors. These regular meetings play a crucial role in standardizing exchanges and enhancing the efficiency of knowledge transfer (Palmié et al., 2016). This cultivates a sense of community and facilitates effective communication among stakeholders. The coordination efforts are directed towards establishing connections between branch campuses to achieve trust and commitment among the campus directors (Martinez & Jarillo, 1989; Vahlne & Johanson, 2021).

Impersonal mechanisms encompass the guidelines stipulated by both the home institution and accreditation agencies such as AACSB, EQUIS, and AMBA. These guidelines constitute a framework that directs the IBCs in conforming to established standards and practices, ensuring uniformity and quality throughout the organization. Additionally, individual performance evaluations, serving as a form of reward system, are based on annual contributions to the

institution. According to Fossats-Vasselin (2021), aligning corporate objectives with this reward system emerges as a more effective strategy for communicating and implementing changes.

Concerning the global integration versus the local responsiveness of the international branch campuses, we apply the typology of Edwards et al. (2014) integrated with the categorizations by Jarillo and Martinez (1990) and Taggart (1998).

Three schools are pursuing a Global Branch Campus strategy, while another institution has a Transnational Branch Campus strategy. There is one school positioned in between these two approaches. Under the Global Branch Campus strategy, institutions have brand campuses responsible for executing the school's overall strategy and decisions. Leadership roles at both the home and branch campuses are occupied by personnel from the home campus, ensuring uniformity in core programs and branding across all branches. Following Jarillo and Martinez's (1990) typology, these campuses adhere to a *receptive* subsidiary strategy, with only a few functions typically performed in the host country maintaining a high level of integration with the home institution. EM Normandie, OMNES Education, and Epsilon Business School are examples of institutions implementing this strategy.

A Transnational Branch Campus strategy involves an institution that is inherently multicentered, with leadership responsibilities dispersed between the parent and branch campuses, each specializing in specific areas of teaching and research. Notably, this approach deviates from the conventional notion of a "branch campus." According to Jarillo and Martinez's (1990) typology, these campuses adopt an *active* subsidiary strategy, as numerous activities are situated in the host country and are executed in close coordination with the home institution.

ESSCA is in the process of moving from a Global Branch Strategy to a Transnational Branch Strategy due to organizational changes. Changes in the environment can cause institutions to move from one strategy to another (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1987).

What are the contributions of international branch campuses for higher education institutions?

For the five schools, there are two primary effects of branch campuses on their home institutions. Firstly, there is a positive influence on the image and reputation of the home institution, which is crucial for attracting students, faculty, funding, and collaborations. A solid reputation also enhances the overall quality of education and the post-graduation success of students (Amado Mateus & Juarez Acosta, 2022). Intense competition among higher education institutions to attract students and resources has prompted many of them to invest significantly in building and maintaining their brand reputation (Lafuente-Ruiz-de-Sabando et al., 2018; Wilkins & Huisman, 2014).

Secondly, there is a beneficial effect on accreditation agencies and ranking systems. The positive reputation cultivated by international branch campuses plays a role in influencing rankings and accreditations (Haas & Unkel, 2017). Rankings strongly influence a school's international reputation (Dubois & Welch, 2017).

Regarding the financial performance of IBCs, the majority operate at a loss and rely on subsidies from the home institution. Institutions typically plan for a five to 10-year timeframe to break even with their IBCs, and until that point, substantial losses may be incurred (Wilkins, 2021). Girdzijauskaite et al. (2019a) suggest that using IBCs as a foreign market entry mode is more about reinforcing institutional brand strength than generating immediate income.

In conclusion, the motivations of higher education institutions in creating international branch campuses focuses on five French business schools. Coercive, mimetic, and normative pressures, including student demand and accreditation requirements, drive the decision to internationalize. The schools aim to enhance brand reputation, foster a global mindset among students, and leverage location advantages through key partnerships and English-language programs.

The control and coordinate the IBCs is similar between the five schools. The Executive Committee (COMEX) formulates strategic initiatives, and the Steering Committee (CODIR) oversees daily operations, employing a centralized "one-firm" model. Coordination mechanisms involve personal networks, formal meetings, and adherence to guidelines from accreditation agencies. The integration versus responsiveness dichotomy is discussed, with three schools pursuing a Global Branch Campus strategy, one adopting a Transnational Branch Campus approach, and another transitioning between the two due to organizational changes.

Two main effects of the IBCs on the home institution are identified: the positive enhancement of the home institution's image and reputation, crucial for attracting various stakeholders, and a beneficial influence on accreditation and ranking systems. Despite financial challenges, IBCs are seen as a long-term investment in strengthening institutional brand presence rather than an immediate income generator. This study provides insights into the multifaceted aspects of higher education institutions' decisions to establish IBCs, their coordination mechanisms, and the resulting effects on the home institution.

6.2.1 Theoretical Implications

Our research has several theoretical implications that will be discussed in the following paragraphs.

Firstly, it adds empirical evidence to the understanding the internationalization of business schools, answering a call by Klarin et al. (2021) for more studies concerning the subject. The researchers question if international expansion effects the quality and value of a school's curriculum. Due to guidelines put in place by the five institutions studied for this research, as well as the regulations set by the accreditation agencies, expansion does not appear to impact the quality of the schools' offering.

Much of the research on IBCs is provided in the grey literature, such as reports published by government agencies and regulatory bodies, higher education institution, or non-governmental organizations. This literature is often difficult to access due to being confidential or having to provide a payment to secure retrieval (Wilkins, 2021). This empirical study adds relevant information about international branch campuses and addresses the call to have more research on the topic (Escriva-Beltran, et al., 2021).

There is a need to better understand higher education institutions as professional service firms and their internationalization efforts (Czinkota et al., 2009; Javalgi & Grossman, 2014; Paul & Feliciano-Cestero, 2021). Literature on the choice of market entry modes for professional service firms is limited (Suseno & Pinnington, 2018). There is a need to have more research on the internationalization of professional service firms that are not U.S.-based organizations (Meyer & Su, 2015). This study explores five French business schools and their choice of foreign direct investment as a market entry mode via the creation of international branch campuses, therefore addressing the prementioned gaps.

The research adds to the understanding of the intra-firm coordination between multiple subsidiaries in a single firm (e.g., Athreye et al., 2014; Boussebaa, 2015). Interviews were conducted interviews with managers at 17 branch campuses that were created between 1973 and 2019 belonging to five French business schools: EM Normandie, ESCP, ESSCA, OMNES Education, and Epsilon Business School.

Theories commonly used in international business research need more application in study of international branch campuses (He & Wilkins, 2018; Sham & Huisman, 2012). This analysis uses institutional isomorphism, the OLI paradigm, and the I-R framework in exploring the relationships between higher education institutions and their international branch campuses. Institutional isomorphism highlights the pressures on French business schools to internationalize that include accreditation agencies; internal and external stakeholders such as students,

parents, and companies; as well as ranking systems. Ownership advantages are linked to increasing the brand reputation of the institution, as well as providing students with a skill set needed for work in international management. Location advantages include having key local partners, English-based learning, and market potential. Ease of management when compared to partner universities and the ability to send all students regardless of the academic level sum up the internalization advantages to create an IBC. The I-R framework (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989) focuses on the level of adaptation by the international branch campus in the host country. This is explored using the typology described by Edwards et al. (2014) and combined with the ones provided by Jarillo and Martinez (1990) and Taggart (1998). To our knowledge, this is the first time that these typologies have been applied together in an empirical study.

Three schools, namely EM Normandie, OMNES Education, and Epsilon Business School, are pursuing a Global Branch Campus strategy. This approach involves the establishment of brand campuses worldwide. Operating under a receptive subsidiary strategy, these campuses maintain a high level of integration with the home institution, with only a few functions typically performed in the host country. ESCP use a Transnational Branch Campus strategy as it is a multi-site institution with leadership responsibilities dispersed between the parent and branch campuses. ESCP campuses follow an active subsidiary strategy, with numerous activities situated in the host country and executed in close coordination with the home institution. Notably, ESSCA is undergoing a strategic shift from a Global Branch Strategy to a Transnational Branch Strategy, reflecting organizational changes and an evolution in its approach to global expansion.

Coordination of international branch campuses was examined via personal and impersonal coordination mechanisms (Harzing, 1999). Personal mechanisms include annual meetings with the staff and faculty, program coordination, and informal exchanges. Impersonal mechanisms comprise of the regulations and guidelines provided by the home institution and accreditation agencies, as well as individual performance evaluations.

6.2.2 Methodological Implications

The applied methodology is based on both the headquarters (home institution) and the subsidiary (international branch campuses) to obtain a thorough understanding of the phenomenon. This approach has already been adopted in previous international business research (e.g., Beddi, 2013; Chung et al. 2014) and is useful for doing cross-border activities of MNCs.

We used a pattern-matching analytical approach to analyze our data (Yin, 2018). Our analysis involved comparing empirical patterns with those theoretically expected, as outlined in the literature review, and expressed by participants in our study interviews. First, we imported all

interview transcripts into NVivo, we categorized individual transcripts into cases and coded each based on actors' response patterns. Emerging codes were then organized into subthemes, eventually forming the overarching themes of the study.

Three key themes were identified: 1) firm identity and context, 2) the international branch campus and its relationships, and 3) contributions of the branch campus to the institution. The first theme encompassed elements related to organizational structure, international strategy, and motivations for internationalization. The data coded under these codes aimed to help us understand the main motivations of the schools to internationalize from both the home campus and the international branch campuses point of view. This helped to see if there was a divergence between the views of the managers at the home institution and the branch campuses. It also allowed address the institutional isomorphism aspect of our conceptual framework.

The second theme, focusing on international branch campuses, included subthemes such as IBC curriculum, location choice, and perceived risks and benefits. This assisted in us in understanding the OLI advantages and the global integration versus local responsiveness of the international branch campuses (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989; Dunning, 1980; Edwards et al., 2014; Jarillo & Martinez, 1990; Taggart, 1998).

Additionally, we explored subthemes concerning relationships between the IBC and home campus, inter-IBC connections, and the IBC's role in the local network. This allowed used to identify the different coordination mechanisms used within the institution (Harzing, 1999)

The third theme examined the contribution of the IBC to the institution, examining subthemes related to outcomes and recommendations. This provided insights into the effects of the IBC on the home institution.

In the subsequent phase of data analysis, we conducted a horizontal reading of each question to illuminate data in every category, considering diverse perspectives from managers at the home campus and the IBC. Throughout the process, initial codes were refined, and new ones emerged. Common themes were identified and cross-referenced across the five case institutions. Finally, we compared empirical evidence with existing theory to construct a theoretical interpretation of the studied phenomenon.

The conducted research answers a call for the need to have more empirical data on IBCs (e.g., Escrivá-Beltrán et al., 2019; Wilkins, 2021) From a methodological point of view, to better understand how higher education institutions manage the relationships with their international branch campuses, we included specific questions in the interview guide and spoke with several managers at the different locations to gain insights from both the home institution and branch

campus perspective. The conducted study shows the interest in understanding the relationships between higher education institutions and their international branch campuses from an international business perspective.

6.2.3 Managerial Contributions

Our research has several managerial implications for higher education institutions considering or currently operating such campuses.

Institutions should carefully evaluate the motivations for creating IBCs, considering the different isomorphic pressures that they face to internationalize (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Understanding the specific drivers, such as student demand and accreditation requirements, can inform strategic decision-making. Managers should recognize the impact of IBCs on the home institution's image and reputation, managers prioritize brand management strategies if considering creating an IBC. Investing in marketing, branding, and quality assurance can contribute to positive perceptions, attracting students, faculty, and collaborations.

Acknowledging the influence of IBCs on accreditation and ranking outcomes, institutions should align their IBC strategies with accreditation agency requirements. This involves maintaining high-quality standards and adapting programs to meet the international accreditation requirements.

Given that many IBCs operate at a loss initially, institutions should engage in thorough financial planning (Wilkins, 2021). Budgeting for a realistic timeframe, such as five to ten years, is crucial to achieving financial sustainability. Developing strategies to minimize losses during the initial period is also essential. Managers should understand the reasons for creating IBCs. Emphasizing ownership advantages, such as enhancing brand reputation, and leveraging location advantages through strategic partnerships can contribute to the success of IBC initiatives. The importance of fostering a global mindset among students, institutions should incorporate global perspectives into their curricula. This involves designing programs that offer international experiences, preparing students for the global job market.

Effective coordination mechanisms between the home institution and IBCs are critical. Implementing a centralized governance structure, as seen in the "one-firm" model, can facilitate efficient knowledge flows and consistency across campuses. Institutions should remain adaptable to changes in the global education landscape. This includes being responsive to shifts in accreditation requirements, market demands, and overall educational trends. Change management strategies are vital, especially when transitioning between different IBC strategies.

Institutions should explore market potential strategically when deciding on IBC locations. Identifying key partnerships, understanding local market demands, and offering programs in English can enhance the attractiveness and success of IBCs.

Managers should adopt a long-term perspective when evaluating the success of IBCs. Recognizing that the benefits, such as enhanced brand reputation, may take time to materialize, institutions should stay committed to their internationalization strategies.

The managerial implications of research on international branch campuses emphasize the importance of strategic planning, brand management, financial sustainability, global mindset development, effective coordination, and adaptability to ensure the success of these initiatives in the dynamic higher education landscape.

Conclusion to Chapter 6

This study examines the motivations behind the establishment of international branch campuses within higher education institutions, with a focus on five French business schools. The decision to internationalize is driven by isomorphic pressures, including student demand and accreditation requirements. The goals for these schools include enhancing brand reputation, fostering a global mindset among students, and capitalizing on location advantages through strategic partnerships and English-language programs. The coordination of IBCs by the five schools follows a similar structure. The Executive Committee (COMEX) formulates strategic initiatives, while the Steering Committee (CODIR) oversees daily operations using a centralized "one-firm" model. Coordination mechanisms encompass personal networks, formal meetings, and adherence to guidelines from accreditation agencies. The study also explores the integration versus responsiveness dichotomy, with three schools pursuing a Global Branch Campus strategy, one adopting a Transnational Branch Campus approach, and another undergoing a transition due to organizational changes.

Two main effects of IBCs on the home institution are identified: a positive enhancement of the home institution's image and reputation, crucial for attracting various stakeholders, and a beneficial impact on accreditation and ranking systems. IBCs are viewed as a long-term investment in strengthening the institutional brand reputation rather than for generating revenue. The findings of this study provide valuable insights into the complex decision-making processes, coordination mechanisms, and overall effects of higher international branch campuses on higher education institutions.

This empirical study contributes valuable theoretical, methodological, and managerial insights to the field of international branch campuses, responding to the call for more research on the topic (Escriva-Beltran, et al., 2021).

GENERAL CONCLUSION

This general conclusion discusses the originality of this doctoral dissertation, its major contributions, and its limitations. It also provides an agenda for future research.

Originality of the conducted research

The motivations of higher education institutions in creating international branch campuses focuses on five French business schools. Isomorphic pressures, including stakeholder demand and accreditation requirements, push the decision to internationalize. The schools aim to build their brand reputation, foster a global mindset among students, and leverage location advantages via key partnerships and English-language programs. The control and coordination of the IBCs is similar between the five schools with each using a centralized "one-firm" mode. Coordination mechanisms involve personal networks, formal meetings, and adherence to guidelines from accreditation agencies. The integration versus responsiveness dichotomy is discussed, with three schools pursuing a Global Branch Campus strategy, one adopting a Transnational Branch Campus approach, and another transitioning between the two due to organizational changes. The international branch campuses have a positive effect on the home institution's image and reputation, crucial for attracting various stakeholders, and a favorable influence on accreditation and ranking systems.

The originality of the conducted study concerns two key issues: 1) An analysis of higher education institutions and the relationships with their international branch campuses, a topic less covered in international business literature; 2) and the empirical focus on French business schools with IBCs.

In line with the previous literature, this research highlights the need to analyze international branch campuses as a market entry mode for higher education institutions (Beecher & Streitwieser, 2017; Escriva-Beltran et al., 2019; Girdzijauskaite & Radzeviciene, 2014). This research offers new insights on how HEIs manage the relationship with the IBCs from the distinct context of French business schools that are members of the *Conférence des Grandes Ecoles*. We seek to deepen our understanding of the motivations for internationalization and reasons of creating IBCs. The empirical study illustrates the challenges of creating and managing international branch campuses from both the home campus and the branch campus perspective.

The research also benefits from the empirical focus on French business schools as a professional organization. The way they manage the coordination with their IBCs at different

locations worldwide improves the understanding of this type of headquarter-subsidiary relationship, a topic that is underexamined in previous international business literature.

Major contributions of the research

Drawing on the literature on a MNC's headquarter-subsidiary relationship coordination, the doctoral dissertation examines the way higher education institutions manage their international branch campuses. Our dissertation incorporates three main managerial theories and concepts: institutional isomorphism (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983), the OLI paradigm (Dunning, 1980), and the I-R framework (Prahalad & Doz, 1987; Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989), answering a call for more studies to apply these constructs to higher education institutions (He & Wilkins, 2018; Shams & Huisman, 2012).

This conducted empirical study focuses on French business schools and how they manage their international branch campuses. To our knowledge, this is the first empirical study to investigate this subject. Our study also adds to the empirical data on international branch campuses, an area of research where empirical studies are scarce.

The conducted research also compares higher education institutions to multinational corporations (Lane & Kinser, 2011) and answers the call from Girdzijauskaite et al. (2019a) for more studies comparing HEIs to MNCs and branch campuses to their subsidiaries. Our research also answers the call for multiple subsidiary analysis within a single MNC (e.g., Athreye et al., 2014; Boussebaa, 2015) for a different understanding of intra-firm coordination. The findings explain the different personal and nonpersonal coordination mechanisms (Harzing, 1990) that French business schools use to manage their international branch campuses. Schools use a variety of coordination mechanisms with their IBCs, but with socialization and networks being the predominant ones.

Our doctoral dissertation provides a better understanding of the internationalization of HEIs (Klarin et al., 2021) and adds to the empirical literature on market entry strategies of educational services, an area of research where empirical data is scarce (Czinkota et al., 2019; Lovelock & Gummesson, 2004). Our research also answers the call for more studies of the internationalization of education services based in countries other than the United States.

In terms of methodology, we enhanced our comprehension of how higher education institutions handle connections with their international branch campuses by incorporating targeted questions into the interview guide. We engaged in discussions with various managers across different locations to gather perspectives from both the home institution and the branch campus. The undertaken study reflects a keen interest in comprehending the dynamics between higher

education institutions and their international branch campuses through the lens of international business.

Institutions must conscientiously assess the motives behind establishing international branch campuses, taking into account the various isomorphic pressures influencing their internationalization efforts (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). A thorough understanding of specific drivers, including factors such as student demand and accreditation requirements, serves as valuable insight for strategic decision-making. Managers should be aware of how IBCs may affect the home institution's image and reputation, emphasizing the importance of prioritizing brand management strategies when contemplating the creation of an IBC. Investment in marketing, branding, and quality assurance initiatives becomes instrumental in fostering positive brand image, ultimately attracting students, faculty, and collaborative opportunities.

Limitations of the study and suggestions for future research

The conducted research provides a foundation for future research about how higher education institutions manage their international branch campuses. The limits of the study may be linked to the number of cases. Although our selected cases were carefully chosen, there may be limited transferability of the findings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The replication of this study with other French business schools that have international branches campuses would help generalize the headquarter-subsidary relationship of the two entities. Future research may also be beneficial by researching higher education institutions in other domestic markets than France.

Other limitations also point to directions for future research. For example, four of the five business schools in our study opened more international branch campuses after our primary data was collected. Future research could extend to these new campuses to better understand the relationship between the studied institutions and their IBCs.

To continue, the five institutions studied were French business schools that are members of the *Conférence des Grandes Ecoles*. However, there are other French business schools that are not members of the CGE, as well as other types of private institutions that are listed as having international branch campuses (Cross-Border Education Research Team, 2023). Furthermore, there are at least two French public universities that have branch campuses. Future studies could investigate these other schools from a CGE member/CGE nonmember standpoint for similarities and differences in the management of their IBCs, or from a public institution versus private institution perspective.

Our research incorporated three main managerial theories and concepts. Future studies could use other theories and constructs in further empirical investigations of HEIs and their IBCs.

International branch campuses will continue to emerge over the next decade (Wilkins, 2021), providing more opportunities to further investigate the topics analyzed in this dissertation.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1. One-page summary of the research topic

Managing Foreign Subsidiaries of Higher Education Institutions

A. Scott DUNCAN

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Magellan Research Center – Université Jean Moulin Lyon 3

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Context

Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) today face the same socioeconomic issues as modern business organizations: market saturation, intense competition, increased costs, power of global brands, and growing expectations from stakeholders. Because of this, the internationalization of higher education has become an increasing issue for many institutions. Several strategies exist, including the creation of International Branch Campuses (IBCs).

Internationalization has been identified as one of the most important issues facing today's universities. A study by Ramanantsoa and Delpech in 2016, in conjunction with France Stratégie, attempts to provide a current state of affairs about French HEIs and their internationalization efforts. According to the report, French business schools train almost 3,000 students abroad with IBCs being their preferred delivery type.

Research Gap

Despite this growth, IBCs remains one of the most unexplored higher education entry modes to international markets. The research to date on IBCs has been from an education perspective and not an international business one. Also, empirical research on the subject is scarce.

Problematic

The decision of a HEI to create an IBC is the same as a MNC that decides to invest into a new country. But once HEIs are committed to the investment,

How can higher education institutions manage their relationships with international branch campuses?

The questions that can be answered here are:

- Why do higher education institutions choose to create international branch campuses?
- How can higher education institutions control and coordinate their international branch campuses?
- What are the contributions of international branch campuses for higher education institutions?

Methodology

Taking an interpretive approach to research, we are using a qualitative research methodology, based on multiple case studies of French business schools and their IBCs. The research is using semi-structure interviews with key decision makers at HEI home institutions, as well as key people at its IBCs.

Contributions

Theoretical contribution of the research is to have better understanding of the development of IBCs and the headquarter-subsidiary relationship between a HEI and its IBC through an empirical study. The study will not only provide insights where empirical data is scarce, but also add to the research of IBCs from an international business perspective, rather than a higher education one.

Managerial contributions in the area may help policymakers or higher education managers in their decision-making process by identifying the key success factors of how to manage an IBC. Thus, the results may be incorporated into the strategic thinking of a HEI that is or intends to branch out internationally.

Appendix 2. The interview guide (English and French)

Interview Guide

Thank you for meeting with me. Firstly, I want to guarantee the anonymity of this interview and the information discussed is for research purposes only.

The interview is for my doctoral thesis that is being done within the Magellan Research Center at the Université Jean Moulin Lyon 3. The goal of the research is to understand how Business Schools manage the headquarter-subsidiary relationship with their International Campuses, with a specific focus on French business schools.

As in previous academic research, we are using the International Branch Campus definition given by The Cross-Border Education Research Team (C-BERT, 2017) which defines an International Branch Campus as *“An entity that is owned, at least in part, by a foreign higher education provider; operated in the name of the foreign education provider; and provides an entire academic program, substantially on site, leading to a degree awarded by the foreign education provider.”*

Name: _____

Position: _____

HEI: _____

Date: _____

Place: _____

Duration of the interview: _____

Profile

1. What is your name?
 - 1.1. What is your role at [Institution X]?
 - 1.2. How long have you had this role?
 - 1.3. What was your experience before assuming this role?
2. Institution
 - 2.1. Does (Institution X) have other International Branch Campuses?
 - 2.1.1. Number and location?
 - 2.1.2. What is the legal status of the International Branch Campuses?
 - 2.1.2.1. Is it a greenfield, joint-venture, acquisition, or an alliance operation?
 - 2.2. How would you describe the international strategy of [Institution X]?
 - 2.3. How does [Institution X] organize its international activities?

Overview

3. Can you give me an overview of the [Location X] campus?
 - 3.1. How many students?
 - 3.1.1. From the home campus or local
 - 3.2. How many lecturers?
 - 3.2.1. From the home campus or local
 - 3.3. How many administrative staff?
 - 3.3.1. From the home campus or local
 - 3.4. What types of programs are offered at [Location X]?
 - 3.4.1. Describe the curriculum.
 - 3.4.2. Are these programs offered at the home campus?
 - 3.4.3. Are these programs offered at the other IBCs?
 - 3.5. Is there research being done by faculty at [Location X]?
 - 3.5.1. General research or things that are specific to [Location X]?
4. Can you me an overview of the day-to-day operations of [Location X] campus?

- 4.1. What does the home campus expect to accomplish?
- 4.2. What does the international campus expect to accomplish?
- 4.3. What are the perceived benefits?
- 4.4. What are the perceived risks?
- 4.5. How much autonomy do you have concerning the operations?

Motivations

5. In your opinion, what factors motivates Business Schools, specifically French business schools, to internationalize their activities?
6. Do you feel that there is pressure on French business schools to internationalize?
 - 6.1. Where does this pressure come from?
7. In your opinion, why did [Institution X] decided to create International Branch Campuses?
 - 7.1. Why did it choose to create one in [Location X]?
 - 7.2. How does [Location X] fit into the internationalization strategy of [Institution X]?

What is the relationship?

8. How would you describe your relationship with [Institution X]'s home campus?
 - 8.1. How do you interact with the home campus?
 - 8.1.1. How often do you interact with directors of the home campus?
 - 8.1.2. Is it always in France or is it abroad?
 - 8.1.3. What topics are discussed?
9. How would you describe your relationship with the other IBCs?
 - 9.1. How do you interact with the other IBCs?
 - 9.2. How often do you interact with the directors of the IBCs?
 - 9.2.1. Have you visited the other IBCs?
 - 9.3. Is it in France or is it abroad?
 - 9.4. What topics are discussed?
 - 9.4.1. Have you visited the other IBCs?
10. How would you describe your relationship in the local network?
11. Administration?
 - 11.1. Lecturers?
 - 11.2. Students?
 - 11.3. Businesses?
 - 11.4. Other institutions?
 - 11.5. Alumni?
12. How do you share your local network with the school and the other IBCs?

Results

13. How does the [Location X] campus impact [Institution X]'s ranking?
14. How does the [Location X] campus fit into [Institution X]'s accreditation process?
15. How does the [Location X] campus impact [Institution X]'s image and reputation?
16. Where do you see the [Location X] campus in five years?
 - 16.1. In relation to the staff and students of the IBC.
 - 16.2. In relation to [Institution X]'s home campus' management.
 - 16.3. In relation to the other branches
 - 16.4. In relation to the local network
17. What is the financial performance of the [Location X] campus?
18. What advice would you give to an institution considering establishing an IBC?

Final Comments

19. Do you have any final thoughts or comments that you would like to share with me?

Guide d'entretien

Merci de prendre le temps de me rencontrer. Tout d'abord, je souhaite vous garantir l'anonymat de cet entretien. Les informations discutées le sont à des fins de recherche uniquement.

L'entretien est dans le cadre de ma thèse de doctorat au sein du Centre de Recherche Magellan de l'Université Jean Moulin Lyon 3. Le but de ma recherche est de comprendre comment les Ecoles de Commerce gèrent la relation siège-filiale avec leurs Campus Internationaux, avec une concentration spécifique sur les écoles de commerce françaises.

Comme dans les recherches universitaires précédentes, nous utilisons la définition du International Branch Campus donnée par l'équipe de recherche The Cross-Border Education Research Team (C-BERT, 2017) qui définit celui-ci comme *« une entité qui est détenue, au moins en partie, par un fournisseur étranger d'enseignement supérieur; exploité au nom du fournisseur d'enseignement étranger; et offre un programme académique complet, essentiellement sur place, menant à un diplôme délivré par le fournisseur d'enseignement étranger. »*

Nom : _____

Poste : _____

Institution d'enseignement supérieure : _____

Date : _____

Lieu : _____

Durée de l'entretien : _____

Profil

1. Quel est votre nom ?
 - 1.1. Quel est votre poste à [Institution X] ?
 - 1.2. Depuis combien de temps occupez-vous ce poste ?
 - 1.3. Quelle a été votre expérience avant d'occuper ce poste ?
2. Institution
 - 2.1. (Institution X) a-t-elle d'autres campus internationaux ?
 - 2.2. Nombre et emplacement ?
 - 2.3. Quel est le statut juridique des campus de l'International Branch Campus ?
 - 2.3.1. S'agit-il d'une nouvelle entreprise, d'une coentreprise, d'une acquisition ou d'une alliance ?
 - 2.4. Comment décririez-vous la stratégie internationale de [Institution X] ?
 - 2.5. Comment [l'Institution X] organise-t-elle ses activités internationales ?

Description générale

3. Pouvez-vous me donner un aperçu du campus [Location X] ?
 - 3.3. Combien d'étudiants ?
 - 3.3.1. En provenance du campus d'origine ou locaux ?
 - 3.4. Combien d'enseignants ?
 - 3.4.1. En provenance du campus d'origine ou locaux ?
 - 3.5. Combien de personnel administratif ?
 - 3.5.1. En provenance du campus d'origine ou locaux ?
4. Quels types de programmes sont proposés à [Lieu X] ?
 - 4.1. Décrivez le cursus
 - 4.2. Ces programmes sont-ils délivrés sur le campus d'origine ?
 - 4.3. Ces programmes sont-ils délivrés dans d'autres IBCs ?
 - 4.4. Y-a-t-il des travaux de recherche réalisés à [Lieu X] ?
 - 4.4.1. De la recherche générale ou spécifique à [Lieu X] ?

5. Pouvez-vous me donner un aperçu des opérations quotidiennes du campus [Location X] ?
 - 5.3. Quels sont les objectifs du campus d'origine ?
 - 5.4. Quels sont les objectifs du International Branch Campus ?
 - 5.5. Quels sont les bénéfices perçus ?
 - 5.6. Quels sont les risques perçus ?
 - 5.7. De quelle autonomie disposez-vous concernant la gestion du IBC ?

Motivations

6. À votre avis, quels facteurs motivent les écoles de commerce, en particulier les écoles de commerce françaises, à internationaliser leurs activités ?
7. Pensez-vous que des pressions poussent les écoles de commerce françaises à s'internationaliser ?
 - 7.3. D'où viennent ces pressions ?
 - 7.4. À votre avis, pourquoi [l'institution X] a-t-elle décidé de créer des campus internationaux ?
 - 7.5. Pourquoi avoir choisi d'en créer un dans [Emplacement X] ?
 - 7.6. Comment [Lieu X] s'intègre-t-il dans la stratégie d'internationalisation de [Institution X] ?

Quelles sont les relations ?

8. Comment décririez-vous votre relation avec le campus d'origine de [l'établissement X] ?
 - 8.3. Comment interagissez-vous avec le campus d'origine ?
 - 8.3.1. À quelle fréquence interagissez-vous avec les directeurs du campus d'origine ?
 - 8.3.2. Est-ce toujours en France ou à l'étranger ?
 - 8.3.3. Quels sujets sont abordés ?
9. Comment décririez-vous votre relation avec les autres IBCs ?
 - 9.3. Comment interagissez-vous avec les autres IBCs ?
 - 9.3.1. À quelle fréquence interagissez-vous avec les directeurs du campus d'origine ?
 - 9.4. Avez-vous visité d'autres IBCs ?
 - 9.4.1. Est-ce en France ou à l'étranger ?
 - 9.4.2. Quels sujets sont abordés ?
10. Comment décririez-vous votre relation au sein du tissu local ?
 - 10.3. Administration ?
 - 10.4. Enseignants ?
 - 10.5. Étudiants ?
 - 10.6. Entreprises ?
 - 10.7. Autres institutions ?
 - 10.8. Alumni ?
11. Comment partagez-vous votre réseau local avec l'école et les autres IBCs ?

Résultats

12. Comment le campus [Lieu X] influe-t-il sur le classement de [Institution X] ?
13. Comment le campus de [Lieu X] s'inscrit-il dans le processus d'accréditation de [Institution X] ?
14. Comment le campus [Lieu X] affecte-t-il l'image et la réputation de [l'établissement X] ?
15. Où voyez-vous le campus [Emplacement X] dans cinq ans ?
 - 15.3. Par rapport au personnel et aux étudiants de l'IBC.
 - 15.4. Par rapport à la gestion du campus d'origine.
 - 15.5. Par rapport aux autres campus
 - 15.6. Par rapport au tissu local
16. Quelle est la performance financière du campus [Location X] ?
17. Quels conseils donneriez-vous à une institution qui envisage de créer un IBC ?

Commentaires

Avez-vous des dernières réflexions ou commentaires que vous aimeriez partager avec moi ?

Appendix 3. Coding framework for NVivo

Institution identity and context.

Codes			
⊕ Name	Files	References	
1.1 Institutional organization	0	0	
○ Centralized vs decentralized activities	4	9	
○ Communication means used by the institution	22	24	
○ Coordination	8	16	
○ Global business school	3	4	
○ Matrix organization	8	12	
○ Meeting topics and agendas	16	17	
○ Multicampus strategy	11	18	
○ Organization of international activities	13	18	
1.2 International strategy	0	0	
○ Academic partners network	9	12	
○ Attract international students	7	8	
○ Coherence with accreditation	8	10	
○ Corporate partnerships	3	4	
○ Emphasize student mobility	9	12	
○ Glocalization	1	1	
○ Increase visibility on the international market	5	6	
○ Intercultural awareness	8	10	
○ Internationalization at home	2	2	
○ Language immersion	5	6	
○ Online learning	2	2	
○ Pan-European	4	6	
○ Recruit international professors	3	3	
○ Satellite campuses	8	10	
1.3 Motivations to internationalize	0	0	
○ Demand of target market	5	6	
○ Desire by administration	1	1	
○ Enhance school image and reputation	11	18	
○ Improve linguistic skills	3	3	
○ Increase revenue stream	6	7	
○ Market expansion	6	7	
○ Mimicry	5	7	
○ Need for student global mobility and mindset	11	13	
○ Pressures to internationalize	16	26	
○ Rankings and accreditations	11	22	
○ Responding to business demand	13	18	
○ Responding to market saturation	10	12	
○ School mergers and acquisitions	2	2	

The international branch campus and its relationships.

Codes			
	Name	Files	References
[-]	2.1 IBC Overview	0	0
	○ Administraive staff	17	20
	○ Assuring international placements	3	3
	○ Campus visits	4	4
	○ Day-to-day operations	11	11
	○ Goals of IBC	8	13
	○ Incubators	1	1
	○ Legal structure	21	29
	○ Obtaining local accreditations	7	11
	○ Research at the IBC	16	25
	○ Strong local partner	11	16
	○ Student cohorts	16	20
	○ The physical campus building	4	5
	○ Use of local lecturers	17	21
	○ Use of permanent professors	23	25
[-]	2.2 Reason for locations	0	0
	○ Brand and prestige	8	16
	○ Close to technology parks	2	3
	○ Differentiation	2	2
	○ Existing linkage	3	4
	○ Limited competition	2	2
	○ Presence of large corporations	2	2
	○ Within the European Union	4	4
[-]	2.3 Curriculum at the IBC	0	0
	○ 80% harmonized, 20% local content	3	3
	○ Bachelor	12	13
	○ Exposure to local language	1	1
	○ Improve English proficiency	5	7
	○ Master in Management (PGE)	17	20
	○ Program creation	3	3
	○ Short-term programs	7	11
	○ Specializations	14	22
[-]	2.4 Perceived risks of having an IBC	0	0
	○ Change in partner collaboration	1	1
	○ Financial loss	1	1
	○ Geopolitical and social factors	8	11
	○ Impact on accreditations	1	1
	○ Location become unpopular	2	2
	○ Losing the school DNA	3	4
	○ Quality control	3	3

The international branch campus and its relationships (Continued).

Codes			
⊕ Name	Files	References	
2.4 Perceived risks of having an IBC	0	0	
○ Change in partner collaboration	1	1	
○ Financial loss	1	1	
○ Geopolitical and social factors	8	11	
○ Impact on accreditations	1	1	
○ Location become unpopular	2	2	
○ Losing the school DNA	3	4	
○ Quality control	3	3	
2.5 Perceived benefits of having an IBC	0	0	
○ Attractive to parents	2	2	
○ Attractive to partner schools	1	1	
○ Attractive to students	3	8	
○ Cultural exposure	3	3	
○ Easier to manage	2	3	
○ Ensure quality	4	4	
○ Good for accreditations	5	5	
○ Increase brand awareness	3	5	
2.6 Relationship with home campus	0	0	
○ Autonomy	18	26	
○ Course coordination	4	7	
○ Faculty mobility	10	10	
○ Occasional physical meetings	12	17	
○ Regular interaction	22	34	
○ Trust-based	3	5	
2.7 Connection with other IBCs	0	0	
○ Indirect communication	1	1	
○ Informal exchange	7	13	
○ Regular interaction	16	33	
○ Sharing of best practices	5	6	
○ Sharing of local network	4	6	
○ Time zone challenges	1	1	
2.8 Association with the local network	0	0	
○ Administration	3	3	
○ Alumni	9	12	
○ Businesses	9	11	
○ Lecturers	2	4	
○ Other institutions	10	11	

The contributions of the branch campus to the institution.

Codes			
	Name	Files	References
[-]	4.1 Results of having an IBC	0	0
○	Financial performance of the IBC	15	16
○	Goals in 5 years	7	7
○	The impact on international accreditations	10	13
○	The impact on the image and reputation of the institution	20	21
○	The impact on the ranking of the institution	10	12
[-]	4.2 Recommendations for creating an IBC	0	0
○	Be ready for a longterm investment	2	2
○	Deploy someone from the home campus	1	1
○	Human resources	2	2
○	Key academic partner	2	3
○	Purpose and organizational fit	7	11
○	Quality control	1	1
○	Right balance of local adaption and home campus standards	10	18
○	Start with one program	1	1
○	Understand the local market	4	4
○	Value of location	6	9

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Summary

Managing Foreign Subsidiaries of Higher Education Institutions

Higher education institutions (HEIs) today are often compared to multinational corporations. They face similar socioeconomic issues like market saturation and intensive competition, and are increasingly expanding their physical operations abroad in the form of international branch campuses (IBCs). Based on a conceptual framework that incorporates institutional isomorphism, the OLI paradigm, and the I-R framework, this doctoral dissertation examines how higher education institutions manage the headquarter-subsidiary relationship with their international branch campuses. The empirical study focuses on the reasons for HEIs to internationalize, the rationale for creating IBCs, and how they are coordinated with the home institution. We examine these issues in the context of French business schools that have IBCs. The empirical study was conducted in two steps: 1) the exploratory case studies (five semi-structured interviews) and 2) the multiple case study analysis of five French business schools (33 semi-structured interviews). The findings provide novel insights on how HEIs manage their IBCs. The research shows the various isomorphic pressures facing French business schools to internationalize and the advantages of using IBCs over other forms of transnational education. Particular attention is paid to the different coordination mechanisms between the home institution and their branch campuses. Finally, the findings advance our understanding the choice of creating international branch campuses and how they are used within the structure of the home institution.

Key words: higher education institution; international branch campuses; business schools; accreditations; headquarter-subsidiary relationships; isomorphism; OLI paradigm; I-R framework.

Résumé

Gestion des filiales étrangères des établissements d'enseignement supérieur

Les établissements d'enseignement supérieur (EES) sont souvent comparés aujourd'hui à des multinationales. Ils font face à des problématiques socio-économiques similaires telles que la saturation du marché et une concurrence intensive, et élargissent de plus en plus leurs opérations physiques à l'étranger sous la forme de campus internationaux délocalisés (CID). Fondée sur un cadre conceptuel intégrant l'isomorphisme institutionnel, le paradigme OLI et le cadre I-R, cette thèse de doctorat examine comment les établissements d'enseignement supérieur gèrent la relation siège-filiale avec leurs campus internationaux délocalisés. L'étude empirique se concentre sur les raisons pour lesquelles les EES s'internationalisent, les motifs de création d'un CID, et les mécanismes de coordination avec l'institution d'origine. Nous examinons ces questions dans le contexte des écoles de commerce françaises qui ont des CID. L'étude empirique a été réalisée en deux étapes : 1) des études de cas exploratoires (cinq entretiens semi-structurés) et 2) des études de cas multiples de cinq écoles de commerce françaises (33 entretiens semi-structurés). Les résultats fournissent des perspectives nouvelles sur la gestion des CID par les EES. La recherche montre les diverses pressions isomorphiques auxquelles font face les écoles de commerce françaises pour s'internationaliser et les avantages de l'utilisation des CID par rapport à d'autres formes d'éducation transnationale. Une attention particulière est portée aux différents mécanismes de coordination entre l'institution d'origine et ses campus délocalisés. Enfin, les résultats font progresser notre compréhension des raisons motivant la création de campus internationaux délocalisés et de la manière dont ils sont utilisés au sein de la structure de l'institution d'origine.

Mots clés : établissements d'enseignement supérieur ; campus internationaux délocalisés ; écoles de commerce ; accreditations ; relations entre le siège et les filiales ; isomorphisme ; le paradigme OLI ; cadre I-R.

Résumé en français

« Au fur et à mesure que certaines universités se mondialiseront, elles agiront comme des entreprises multinationales. »

Escriva-Beltran, Muñoz-de-Prat et Villó, 2019, p. 7

« Le nombre d'IBC dans le monde ne cesse de croître et d'atteindre de nouveaux territoires et marchés. »

Hickey et Davies, 2022, p. 11

Nous partons du prémisses qu'il y a un changement dans la littérature, passant de la conceptualisation des établissements d'enseignement supérieur (EES) qui ressemblent de plus en plus à des organisations commerciales modernes. Elles sont confrontées aux mêmes problèmes socio-économiques tels que la saturation du marché, la concurrence intense, l'augmentation des coûts, la puissance des marques mondiales et les attentes croissantes des parties prenantes (Girdzijauskaite et al., 2019a). Les établissements s'efforcent de se positionner sur le marché de l'éducation qui correspond le mieux à leur stratégie (Mouillot et Bartel-Radic, 2020) et les organisations imitent souvent les actions d'autres entreprises (Asselineau et Grolleau, 2022). L'internationalisation a été identifiée comme l'un des problèmes les plus importants auxquels sont confrontées les organisations universitaires d'aujourd'hui (Amdam et Benito, 2022).

Le nombre d'établissements d'enseignement supérieur a augmenté au cours des dernières années, mais a reçu peu d'attention de la part de la communauté scientifique (Vieira et Lepori, 2016). Les établissements d'enseignement supérieur étendent également de plus en plus leurs activités physiques à l'étranger (Wilkins, 2021). Il existe actuellement 33 campus internationaux situés dans 83 pays d'accueil et provenant de 39 pays d'origine (Cross-Border Research Team, 2023). Malgré cette croissance, les campus internationaux délocalisés (IBC) restent l'un des modes d'entrée de l'enseignement supérieur les plus inexplorés sur les marchés internationaux (Beecher et Streitwieser, 2017 ; Escriva-Beltran et al., 2019). À ce jour, la plupart des recherches sur les IBC ont été menées dans une perspective éducative et non dans une perspective commerciale internationale. De plus, les recherches empiriques sur le sujet sont rares (Escriva-Beltran et al., 2019). Girdzijauskaite et al. (2019a) reconnaissent que les universités sont souvent comparées à des multinationales et qu'il existe un manque de connaissances académiques concernant les IBC. Il s'agit d'un axe clé de cette thèse.

Un autre développement étroitement lié dans la littérature concerne l'appel à l'analyse de plusieurs filiales au sein d'une même multinationale (p. ex., Athreye et al., 2014 ; Boussebaa, 2015) pour une compréhension différente de la coordination intra-entreprise. La capacité de contrôler de manière efficace et efficiente les activités et les ressources au sein d'une multinationale est cruciale pour sa performance (Valax et Rive, 2016 ; Zeng et coll., 2023). Ainsi, la coordination et le contrôle sont un sujet de recherche

important dans le commerce international depuis de nombreuses années (Jaussaud & Schaaper, 2006 ; Kostova et coll., 2015 ; Meyer et coll., 2020). Nous répondons à l'appel à l'analyse de plusieurs filiales au sein d'une même multinationale par le biais de notre recherche de thèse.

Les cabinets de services professionnels sont un autre élément de la littérature. Les entreprises de services professionnels (PSF) sont des types d'entreprises qui fournissent des services personnalisés à forte intensité de connaissances, fournis par des professionnels hautement qualifiés (O'Higgins et al., 2022). Bien que la recherche sur les PSF ait augmenté ces dernières années, il existe une demande d'études sur l'investissement direct étranger et les modes d'entrée sur le marché des entreprises à forte intensité de connaissances (Paul et Feliciano-Cestero, 2021).

Les établissements d'enseignement supérieur peuvent être classés dans la catégorie des PSF (Lovelock et Gummesson, 2004 ; von Nordenflycht, 2010). Il est nécessaire de mieux comprendre l'internationalisation des établissements d'enseignement supérieur en tant qu'entreprises de services (Drori et al., 2015). Cependant, la littérature empirique existante sur les stratégies d'entrée sur le marché des services éducatifs est rare (Czinkota et al., 2009 ; Lovelock et Gummesson, 2004). De plus, la plupart des preuves empiriques de l'existence d'établissements d'enseignement supérieur en tant que PSF se limitent à l'accent mis sur les établissements américains (Meyer et Su, 2015). Czinkota et al. (2009) appellent à davantage de recherches pour mieux comprendre l'internationalisation des services éducatifs basés dans d'autres pays. Avec l'essor des PSF sur la scène mondiale, les établissements d'enseignement supérieur offrent des opportunités de recherche théorique et empirique qui devraient être explorées (Klarin et al., 2021).

La littérature montre également qu'il est nécessaire de s'appuyer sur des théories et des concepts souvent utilisés dans la recherche sur les affaires internationales pour les appliquer aux études concernant les établissements d'enseignement supérieur et les campus internationaux. Lui et Wilkins (2018) appellent à une plus grande application de la théorie institutionnelle dans l'éducation transnationale, tandis que Shams et Huisman (2012) appellent à une plus grande utilisation du cadre I-R lors de la recherche sur les IBC.

Pour combler ces lacunes, nous avons décidé d'aborder ces questions concernant les établissements d'enseignement supérieur et les IBC en examinant les établissements d'enseignement supérieur en France et leurs campus internationaux. Une grande partie de la recherche sur les IBC est fournie dans la littérature grise, comme les rapports publiés par des agences gouvernementales et des organismes de réglementation, des établissements d'enseignement supérieur ou des organisations non gouvernementales, et est souvent difficile à récupérer (Wilkins, 2021). Par conséquent, notre objet de recherche est pertinent.

Nous présentons désormais la question principale de recherche et les trois sous-questions de notre thèse de doctorat.

Question de recherche

Cette thèse aborde les lacunes mentionnées précédemment avec la question de recherche suivante et trois sous-questions interdépendantes.

Comment les établissements d'enseignement supérieur peuvent-ils gérer leurs relations avec les campus internationaux ?

5. Pourquoi les établissements d'enseignement supérieur choisissent-ils de créer des campus internationaux ?
6. Comment les établissements d'enseignement supérieur peuvent-ils contrôler et coordonner leurs campus internationaux ?
7. Quels sont les apports des campus internationaux pour les établissements d'enseignement supérieur ?

La création de campus internationaux se multiplie depuis quelques années. La recherche menée avec sa **question de recherche centrale** cherche à mieux comprendre comment les établissements d'enseignement supérieur gèrent la relation avec leurs campus internationaux.

La première sous-question porte sur les motivations des établissements d'enseignement supérieur à s'internationaliser et sur les raisons pour lesquelles ils choisissent l'IBC comme investissement direct étranger plutôt que d'autres formes de stratégies d'entrée sur le marché (Dunning, 1980).

La deuxième sous-question de recherche porte sur les mécanismes de coordination utilisés par les établissements d'enseignement supérieur dans la gestion de leurs campus annexes (Harzing, 1999). Nos résultats montrent qu'il existe plusieurs mécanismes personnels et impersonnels utilisés pour assurer la coordination entre l'établissement d'origine (le niveau du siège) et ses campus de succursale (le niveau subsidiaire) (Harzing, 1999 ; Schmid et coll., 2016).

La **troisième sous-question de recherche** évalue l'incidence des campus internationaux sur l'établissement d'attache en termes d'image et de réputation, de relations avec les organismes d'accréditation et de performance financière.

Approche méthodologique et contextualisation de l'étude

Nos recherches portent sur l'exploration des relations entre les établissements d'enseignement supérieur et leurs campus internationaux. Notre objectif est de comprendre les stratégies employées dans la gestion de ces campus annexes et les motivations sous-jacentes qui poussent les établissements d'enseignement à les créer. Cette recherche s'aligne sur la perspective interprétiviste, en mettant l'accent sur la compréhension des processus sociaux dépendants du contexte (Rashid et al., 2019).

Une méthodologie qualitative est utilisée pour notre thèse de doctorat. La recherche qualitative, une tradition bien établie dans la recherche sur les entreprises, est fréquemment utilisée pour mieux comprendre les phénomènes organisationnels (Creswell et Poth, 2016). Contrairement aux études quantitatives, les méthodologies qualitatives se penchent sur la signification et la compréhension des processus dans des situations uniques, plutôt que sur l'analyse statistique (Giordano, 2003). Notre analyse est basée sur une approche abductive. La revue de la littérature nous fournit des « éléments de base » théoriques pour notre analyse des données et notre discussion théorique des preuves empiriques (Dubois et Gadde, 2002 ; Miles et Huberman, 1994). Nous tirons des enseignements de l'isomorphisme institutionnel (DiMaggio et Powell, 1983), du paradigme de l'OLI (Dunning, 1980) et du cadre I-R (Prahalad et Doz, 1987 ; Bartlett et Ghoshal, 1989) pour identifier les concepts clés pour expliquer les relations entre les établissements d'enseignement supérieur et leurs campus internationaux.

La conception générale de cette recherche est basée sur une étude de cas multiples (Yin, 2018). Les études de cas font partie des méthodes qualitatives les plus fréquemment utilisées dans la recherche sur le commerce international (Ghauri et al., 2020). Des études de cas et des méthodes qualitatives sont souvent utilisées pour explorer des phénomènes nouveaux ou peu connus et pour comprendre les comportements des individus et/ou des organisations (Ghauri, 2004).

Au total, 38 entretiens ont été menés dans le cadre de notre thèse de doctorat. Les cinq premières entrevues ont été exploratoires et nous ont permis d'affiner notre question de recherche et d'améliorer davantage nos procédures de collecte et d'analyse des données. L'accent que nous avons mis sur cinq établissements d'enseignement supérieur (avec 33 entretiens) fournit des données empiriques riches sur le phénomène examiné. Pour répondre à la question de recherche de notre thèse, nous avons recueilli des données sur le processus d'internationalisation des organisations, la gestion des campus des succursales internationales et les contributions des campus des succursales pour l'institution. Nous avons interrogé des responsables de l'établissement d'origine et des campus internationaux. Cela a permis de comprendre la coordination intraentreprise entre plusieurs filiales d'une même entreprise (p. ex., Athreye et coll., 2014 ; Boussebaa, 2015).

Les établissements étudiés sont des écoles de commerce françaises membres de la *Conférence des Grandes Ecoles* et disposant de campus internationaux. Les écoles de commerce françaises forment près de 3 000 étudiants à l'étranger, les IBC étant leur mode de prestation privilégié (Ramanantsoa & Delpech, 2016). Un appel à études empiriques sur l'internationalisation des écoles de commerce a également été lancé (Klarin et al., 2021).

Les organisations étudiées sont l'EM Normandie, l'ESCP, l'ESSCA, OMNES Education¹⁹ et Epsilon Business School²⁰. Chaque école dispose d'au moins deux campus internationaux. Nous avons mené des entretiens avec les gestionnaires de 17 IBC créés entre 1973 et 2019. Le tableau 1 indique l'emplacement des campus des succursales qui ont été consultées dans le cadre de notre étude.

Tableau 1. Institutions et emplacements des IBC étudiés

Institution	Emplacement du campus de la succursale internationale
EN Normandie	Oxford et Dublin
L'ESCP	Londres, Berlin, Turin, Madrid et Varsovie
L'ESSCA	Budapest et Shanghai
OMNES Éducation	Londres, Genève, Abidjan et San Francisco
Epsilon Business School	États-Unis, Chine et Afrique du Sud

Source : Élaboration de l'auteur

Nous pensons que les organisations étudiées constituent un cadre pertinent pour examiner la gestion de la relation siège-filiale du point de vue d'un établissement d'enseignement supérieur et d'un campus de succursale internationale.

Désormais, nous expliquerons la structure de la thèse de doctorat et le contenu de chaque chapitre.

¹⁹ Anciennement INSEEC.

²⁰ Le nom de l'institution a été changé pour des raisons de confidentialité.

Architecture de la thèse de doctorat

Cette thèse de doctorat est divisée en trois parties.

La partie 1 contient l'analyse documentaire, explique le cadre conceptuel et les lacunes de recherche identifiées.

Le chapitre 1 se concentre sur les sociétés multinationales et l'investissement direct étranger. Il fournit la base de notre cadre conceptuel basé sur trois théories et constructions principales : l'isomorphisme institutionnel (DiMaggio et Powell, 1983), le paradigme OLI (Dunning, 1980) et le cadre I-R (Prahalad et Doz, 1987), avec une concentration sur la typologie de Bartlett et Ghoshal (1989).

Le chapitre 2 vise à analyser les établissements d'enseignement supérieur en tant que sociétés multinationales (Wilkins, 2016) en mettant l'accent sur l'évolution des campus internationaux.

La partie 2 explique l'approche méthodologique et la contextualisation de nos recherches.

Le chapitre 3 présente la perspective épistémologique et le plan de recherche. Il détaille les procédures de collecte et d'analyse des données. Nous expliquons la façon dont nous avons administré l'analyse intra et croisée des cas.

Le chapitre 4 contient le contexte de l'étude et une description détaillée de chaque organisation de cas (profil de l'établissement et nombre de campus internationaux).

La partie 3 présente les résultats empiriques, la discussion et les contributions de nos recherches.

Le chapitre 5 présente les conclusions de chaque étude de cas en quatre parties : les motivations de l'internationalisation, les raisons de créer un campus international, la coordination des campus et les contributions des campus secondaires à l'établissement d'origine.

Le chapitre 6 présente les principales constatations au moyen de l'analyse croisée des cas conformément à nos quatre sous-questions de recherche, ainsi qu'une discussion de nos conclusions.

Les conclusions générales portent sur l'originalité de notre étude, nos principales contributions, nos limites et les orientations futures de nos recherches.

Enseignement supérieur français et accréditations internationales

Dans ce chapitre, nous discuterons du contexte de notre recherche avant de présenter les études de cas. Dans un premier temps, nous donnerons un aperçu du système d'enseignement supérieur français. Deuxièmement, nous passerons en revue les principaux organismes d'accréditation, tant au niveau national qu'international. S'ensuit la présentation de chaque étude de cas et un bref historique par établissement. Nous examinerons ensuite leur statut et leur gouvernance avant de discuter de la structure et de l'offre de programmes de leurs IBC.

L'enseignement supérieur en France est unique par rapport aux autres systèmes éducatifs nationaux (Power, 2003). Dans la section suivante, le système d'enseignement supérieur français sera expliqué pour

mettre en évidence ces différences. L'état de l'éducation transnationale en France est suivi d'une discussion sur les campus français internationaux. Enfin, nous examinerons les accréditations nationales et internationales liées aux écoles de commerce françaises.

Vue d'ensemble de l'enseignement supérieur français

Le système d'enseignement supérieur en France est composé à la fois d'universités et de *grandes écoles*. Les *grandes écoles* offrent généralement un enseignement professionnel, principalement en ingénierie et en commerce, tandis que les universités dispensent un enseignement supérieur dans les arts, les sciences et certains domaines professionnels (Power, 2003 ; Watkins et Tse, s.d.).

Les premières universités françaises ont été créées au Moyen Âge. L'Université de Paris a vu le jour au XII^e siècle en raison de l'essor des écoles parisiennes qui se sont regroupées sur la colline appelée la Montagne Sainte-Geneviève. Ces écoles dispensent un enseignement dans quatre domaines : le droit, la théologie, la médecine et les arts libéraux (Sorbonne, 2018 ; Tronchet, 2015). D'autres universités sont bientôt fondées dans les régions de province, comme Toulouse (1220), Montpellier (1289) et Orléans (1306). Les universités ont continué à se créer et à se développer tout au long de la Renaissance (Tronchet, 2015).

Cependant, au XVIII^e siècle, le pouvoir royal ressent le besoin de créer des institutions plus spécialisées pour répondre aux besoins de l'État. Ces *écoles, ou grandes écoles*, ont été créées pour former les élèves aux métiers de fonctionnaires, d'ingénieurs et de militaires pour les grandes instances de l'État français (Tronchet, 2015). Il y a d'abord la fondation en 1747 de l'*Ecole des Ponts et Chaussées*, suivie de l'*Ecole du Génie Militaire* en 1748 (Power, 2003). La création des *Grandes Ecoles* a été un processus continu, certaines écoles ayant été fondées au 20^e siècle. L'*École nationale d'administration* (ENA), par exemple, a été créée en 1945 pour former les futurs employés de l'État aux postes dans la France de l'après-guerre (Tronchet, 2015).

Le processus de sélection pour les *Grandes Ecoles* est très compétitif. La sélection s'effectue soit par le biais d'un ensemble d'épreuves écrites et orales qui se préparent sur un ou deux ans dans des classes préparatoires *aux grandes écoles* (CPGE) ou des *classes préparatoires*. Un étudiant peut également entrer directement après le *Baccalauréat* sur la base de son dossier scolaire, bien que cette voie soit moins courante. Les étudiants peuvent également intégrer les *grandes écoles* après un diplôme universitaire et les écoles les mieux classées recrutent également des étudiants en dehors du *système des classes préparatoires* (Power, 2003 ; AGREA, 2018 ; Watkins et Tse, s.d.).

Les écoles de commerce françaises, connues sous le nom d'*Ecoles Supérieures de Commerce* (ESC), ont été créées pour éduquer les enfants des familles bourgeoises aux aspects de la gestion d'entreprise et ont été soutenues par les chambres de commerce et d'industrie (CCI) régionales. Les CCI ont été créées en 1803 par Napoléon pour soutenir le développement des entreprises privées et de l'économie régionale (Carton et al., 2018). Les ESC privés étaient connus pour leur taille de classe plus petite et leur ratio enseignants-étudiants inférieur à celui des grandes universités publiques. Cependant, les CES ont été considérés comme un second choix après les écoles d'ingénieurs historiquement et socialement plus

attractives. Le plus ancien ESC encore existant en France est l'ESCP fondé à Paris en 1819 (Carton et al., 2018).

À l'origine, les ESC n'étaient pas considérées comme une *Grande Ecole* car elles n'exigeaient pas de concours d'entrée, ni de classes préparatoires pour étudier au concours. L'*Ecole des Hautes Etudes Commerciales de Paris* (HEC Paris) a été la première à faire les deux vers le début du 20ème siècle afin d'accroître sa notoriété et de se différencier des autres écoles de commerce françaises. D'autres écoles de commerce ont rapidement emboîté le pas (Tronchet, 2015).

Ce n'est qu'à la fin de la Seconde Guerre mondiale que les écoles de commerce françaises obtiennent le statut de *Grande Ecole*. Par décret de 1947, l'État français regroupe l'ensemble des écoles de commerce au sein d'un réseau connu sous le nom d'*Ecoles Supérieures de Commerce d'Administration des Entreprises* (ESCAE). Toutes les écoles avaient un examen final commun et délivraient des diplômes communs. Trois écoles – HEC Paris, l'ESSEC et HEC Nord (aujourd'hui EDHEC) – ont choisi de ne pas rejoindre ce réseau. L'ESCP quitte le réseau en 1969, puis d'autres écoles au fil des années jusqu'à la dissolution du réseau de l'ESCAE en 1991 (Ecoles-Commerce, 2018).

Inspiré par l'ESCAE et les écoles de commerce américaines, Gaston Berger - directeur de l'enseignement supérieur au ministère de l'Éducation nationale - crée en 1955 les *Instituts d'Administration des Entreprises* (IAE). L'objectif était que les universités françaises proposent un enseignement du management d'entreprise comme le font les universités américaines avec leurs écoles de commerce. Les IAE ont été conçus à l'origine pour former des étudiants diplômés en ingénierie, en droit, en arts et sciences humaines, et en sciences de l'administration des affaires avec des cours du soir sur une période d'un an. Considéré comme une option publique pour les écoles de commerce, le réseau des IAE regroupe aujourd'hui des *instituts* implantés dans 38 universités publiques sur l'ensemble du territoire français (IAE France, 2018).

Alors que l'ESCAE commençait à décliner, un autre réseau est rapidement créé : la *Conférence des Grandes Ecoles* (CGE). La CGE est une association qui a été créée en 1973 pour faire collaborer les *grandes écoles* autour de réflexions sur l'enseignement supérieur, la recherche et les bonnes pratiques. L'association était à l'origine composée de 12 *grandes écoles*, mais compte aujourd'hui 238 établissements dans les domaines de l'ingénierie, de la gestion d'entreprise, de l'architecture, du design, des sciences politiques, ainsi que d'autres disciplines (CGE, 2017). Pour être admissible, une école doit être accréditée par le *ministère de l'Enseignement supérieur, de la Recherche et de l'Innovation*, offrir une maîtrise et se soumettre à un audit. Être dans la CGE est considéré comme un symbole de qualité. Il y a actuellement 38 écoles de commerce françaises dans la CGE (l'Etudiant, 2023). Le tableau 4.1 présente le classement 2023 de ces établissements.

Tableau Le classement CGE des écoles de commerce françaises

Position	École	Position	École
1	HEC Paris	20	EN Normandie
2	L'ESSEC	21	Institut Mines-Télécom
3	L'ESCP	22	Burgundy School of Business
4	L'EDHEC	23	ISC Paris
5	emlyon	24	EDC Paris Business School
6	SKEMA	25	Ecole de commerce de Paris
7	L'IESEG	26	ESC Clermont Business School
8	NEOMA	27	L'ESDES
9	Audition	28	INSEEC
10	Toulouse Business School	29	L'ESCE
11	ANCRE À JET	30	L'IPAG
12	Montpellier Business School	31	Ecole de Commerce Sud Champagne
13	Excelia	32	CIM
14	Grenoble EM	33	Groupe d'experts indépendants
15	CII	34	L'ISTEC
16	L'ESSCA	35	Brest Business School
17	Ecole de commerce de Rennes	36	EBS Paris
18	À Strasbourg	37	L'IDRAC
19	L'EMLV	38	ESC Pau

Source : Adapté de l'Etudiant (2023)

L'éducation transnationale en France

Une étude de Ramanantsoa et Delpech (2016), en collaboration avec France Stratégie (organisme d'analyse des politiques gouvernementales), tente de dresser un état des lieux des établissements d'enseignement supérieur français et de leurs efforts d'internationalisation. Selon le rapport, les établissements d'enseignement supérieur français possèdent 140 implantations physiques à l'étranger. Cela comprend 62 franchises, 40 IBC et 38 coentreprises. Environ 330 diplômes français sont délivrés avec des établissements partenaires à l'étranger, tandis qu'au moins 138 programmes d'enseignement à distance sont suivis par des étudiants hors de France. Les pays accueillant le plus grand nombre de programmes français sont le Maroc, le Vietnam, la Chine, le Liban et la Tunisie (Ramanantsoa et Delpech, 2016).

Les écoles de commerce françaises forment près de 3 000 étudiants à l'étranger, les IBC étant leur mode de prestation privilégié. Ces IBC fournissent des services aux étudiants de l'école ou aux professionnels via des programmes de formation continue (Ramanantsoa et Delpech, 2016).

Campus internationaux en France

Selon la liste C-BERT de mars 2023, il y a neuf écoles de commerce françaises qui ont des IBC. L'ESCP dispose de cinq IBC ; SKEMA en a quatre ; emlyon et Toulouse Business School (TBS) en ont trois chacun ; L'ESSEC, l'EDHEC et l'INSEAD en ont deux chacun ; HEC Paris et l'INSEEC disposent chacun d'un IBC. Il existe également une poignée d'écoles et d'universités françaises qui disposent d'un IBC mais

ne sont pas des écoles de commerce : *l'Ecole Supérieure des Arts et Techniques de la Mode* (ESMOD) avec 13 IBC, *l'Ecole Nationale Supérieure d'Architecture de Nantes* (ENSA Nantes), l'Université-Paris Sorbonne, et l'Université-Paris Dauphine avec chacune un IBC (Cross-Border Education Research Team, 2023). Le tableau 4.2 met en évidence ces campus.

Campus des antennes françaises à l'international

ESMOD 1 ESMOD, Jakarta 2 ESMOD, Kuala Lumpur 3 ESMOD, Effusion de sang 4 VAKKO ESMOD Fashion Academy, Istanbul 5 ESMOD, Tunis 6 ESMOD, Damas 7 ESMOD, Beyrouth 8 ESMOD, Pékin 9 ESMOD, Canton 10 ESMOD, Moscou* 11 ESMOD, Oslo, Moteskolen AS 12 ESMOD, Séoul 13 ESMOD, Sousse# 14 ESMOD, Tokyo	SKEMA Business School 1 SCHEMA, Brésil 2 SKEMA, Chine 3 SKEMA, USA 4 SKEMA, Afrique du Sud
	Toulouse Business School 1 TBS, Londres (fermé en 2021) 2 TBS, Casablanca 3 TBS, Barcelone
	EDHEC Business School 1 EDHEC, Londres 2 EDHEC, Singapour
	HEC Paris 1 HEC Paris, Qatar
L'ESCP 1 ESCP, Berlin ESCP 2, Turin 3 ESCP, Madrid 4 ESCP, Londres 5 ESCP, Varsovie 6 ESCP, Dubaï#	L'ESSEC 1 ESSEC Afrique (Maroc) 2 ESSEC Asie-Pacifique (Singapour)
	L'INSEAD 1 INSEAD, Abou Dabi 2 INSEAD, Asie (Singapour)
OMNES Education (anciennement INSEEC) 1 OMNES Education, Londres 2 Monaco# 3 Genève# 4 San Francisco# 5 Abidjan# 6 Barcelone# 7 Munich#	Université Paris-Sorbonne 1 Paris-Sorbonne Abu Dhabi
	ENSA Nantes 1 ENSA Nantes Ile Maurice
emlyon 1 emlyon, Casablanca (fermé en 2023) 2 emlyon, Shanghai 3 École de commerce Asie-Europe, Shanghai	Université Paris-Dauphine 1 Université Paris-Dauphine, Tunis

Source : Adapté de C-BERT (2023)

Une enquête plus approfondie sur les sites des écoles de commerce notées par C-BERT a conduit à une modification de la liste. TBS a fermé son campus londonien en 2021, tandis qu'emlyon a fermé le sien à Casablanca en 2023 (AFP, 2023 ; Bousquet, 2022). OMNES Education possède des campus qui ne sont pas répertoriés par C-BERT : Shanghai, San Francisco, ainsi que Monaco, Genève, Barcelone et Munich (via l'acquisition de l'Université Internationale de Monaco, du CREA Genève et de l'EU Business School, respectivement). Il y a trois écoles de commerce qui n'apparaissent pas sur la liste et qui ont également

* Sur la liste C-BERT mais n'est pas promu sur le site Web de l'école.

Pas encore sur la liste C-BERT mais est promu sur le site Web de l'école.

des IBC : l'ESSCA avec des campus à Budapest et à Shanghai ; l'EM Normandie avec des campus à Oxford, Dublin et Dubaï ; et ICN avec un campus à Berlin. Une autre école, KEDGE, prétend avoir des campus en Chine et en Afrique, mais ces sites sont répertoriés comme campus *associés à international* sur leur site web, et sont en fait des établissements partenaires (KEDGE, 2022). L'INSEAD a été retiré de la liste car il ne figure plus dans le *Classement des Grandes Ecoles de Commerce*. Le tableau 4.3 récapitule les écoles de commerce françaises et la date de création de leur(s) IBC(s).

Tableau Ecoles de commerce françaises disposant d'IBC

	École ²¹	IBC (en anglais seulement)	École	IBC (en anglais seulement)
1	SKEMA	Suzhou, Chine (2009) Raleigh, Caroline du Nord, États-Unis (2010) Belo Horizonte, Brésil (2017) Stellenbosch, Afrique du Sud (2019) Montréal, Canada [#] (2019) Nanjing, Chine [#] (2020)	6 emlyon	Shanghai (2007) Ecole de Commerce Asie-Europe, Shanghai (2015)
2	L'EDHEC	Londres (1998) Singapour (2011)	7 L'ESCP	Londres (1973) Berlin (1973) Turin (2004) Madrid (2007) Varsovie (2016) Dubaï [#] (2022)
3	OMNES Éducation (Anciennement INSEEC)	Londres (2009) Monaco ^{*#} (2010) Genève ^{*#} (2014) San Francisco [#] (2015) Abidjan [#] (2019) Barcelone ^{*#} (2022) Munich ^{*#} (2022)	8 HEC Paris	Qatar (2010)
			9 L'ESSCA	Budapest [#] (1993) Shanghai [#] (2007)
4	L'ESSEC	ESSEC Asie-Pacifique, Singapour (2005) ESSEC Afrique, Maroc (2016)	10 EN Normandie	Oxford [#] (2014) Dublin [#] (2017) Dubaï [#] (2022)
5	TBS	Barcelone (1995) Casablanca (2001)	11 CII	Berlin [#] (2019)

Source : Adapté de C-BERT (2023)

Accréditations

Les accréditations sont importantes pour les écoles de commerce, car elles fournissent un cadre complet pour l'assurance qualité, renforcent la reconnaissance mondiale et entretiennent des liens avec le monde des affaires (Carton et al., 2018). Nous nous intéresserons d'abord aux accréditations nationales avant d'aborder les accréditations internationales qui sont liées aux écoles de commerce françaises.

Accréditations nationales

²¹ Bien qu'inclus dans la liste C-BERT, l'INSEAD a été laissé de côté car il n'est pas répertorié dans le classement des grandes écoles de commerce.

* Acquisition

Pas encore sur la liste C-Bert mais est promu sur le site Web de l'école.

L'enseignement supérieur en France relève du *Ministère de l'Enseignement Supérieur, de la Recherche et de l'Innovation* (MESRI). Le MESRI accorde un visa pour des programmes de commerce et de gestion de trois ou cinq ans qui sont audités tous les cinq ans. Le visa permet à une école d'être titulaire d'un *diplôme visé par l'Etat* dans le cadre du cycle européen de classification LMD (Licence, Master, Doctorat).²² La reconnaissance officielle de l'État donne aux écoles la possibilité de conclure des accords avec les meilleures universités internationales. Une école doit avoir obtenu la reconnaissance de l'État avant de demander à ce que son diplôme soit certifié comme diplôme *d'excellence*. Pour cette demande, les écoles de commerce sont évaluées par une agence appelée *Commission d'Evaluation des Formations et Diplômes de Gestions* (CEFDG) qui regroupe des universitaires en sciences de gestion, ainsi que des professionnels. L'agence évalue les programmes d'affaires et donne ses conclusions au MESRI, qui décide ensuite de certifier ou non le diplôme. Un programme peut recevoir le grade de *licence* (une *accréditation pour un diplôme de trois ans*) ou le grade de *master* (une *accréditation pour un diplôme de cinq ans*). Cette accréditation permet à ces diplômes d'être reconnus par tous les établissements publics et sont valables au maximum cinq ans avant de devoir être renouvelés (Blanchard & Crespy, 2023).

Un autre organisme, le *Haut Conseil de l'Evaluation de la Recherche et de l'Enseignement Supérieur* (HCERES) est un organisme indépendant qui évalue les universités et les unités de recherche et publie leurs résultats. Leurs rapports fournissent une analyse des forces et des faiblesses de l'institution évaluée, accompagnée des recommandations formulées par le comité d'experts. Les résultats du rapport sont perçus comme un gage de qualité pour l'école en ce qui concerne ses initiatives de recherche et d'enseignement (Carton et al., 2018).

Accréditations internationales

Il existe trois principaux organismes internationaux d'accréditation pour les écoles de commerce : AACSB, EQUIS et AMBA (Carton et al., 2018).

L'AACSB

L' *Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business* (AACSB) est la plus ancienne des principales agences d'accréditation, fondée en 1916 par 17 universités américaines de premier plan²³. L'AACSB (2023a) définit que l'objectif de l'organisation est de :

Favorisez l'engagement, accélérez l'innovation et amplifiez l'impact de l'enseignement des affaires. Cette mission est alignée sur les normes d'accréditation de l'AACSB pour les écoles de commerce. L'AACSB s'efforce d'améliorer continuellement l'engagement des entreprises, des

²² C'est le résultat du processus de Bologne qui vise à apporter plus de cohérence aux systèmes d'enseignement supérieur à travers l'Europe. Le processus a permis d'établir l'Espace européen de l'enseignement supérieur (EEES) afin de faciliter la mobilité des étudiants et du personnel (Commission européenne, s.d.).

²³ L'Université Columbia, l'Université Cornell, le Dartmouth College, l'Université Havard, l'Université de New York, l'Université Northwestern, l'Université d'État de l'Ohio, l'Université Tulane, l'Université de Californie à Berkeley, l'Université de Chicago, l'Université de l'Illinois, l'Université du Nebraska, l'Université de Pennsylvanie, l'Université de Pittsburgh, l'Université du Texas, l'Université du Wisconsin-Madison et l'Université Yale (NMU, 2023).

professeurs, des établissements et des étudiants afin que l'enseignement des affaires soit aligné sur les besoins de la pratique commerciale. » (p. 7)

L'organisation était à l'origine connue sous le nom d'*American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business* et n'a accrédité sa première école non américaine qu'en 1968, lorsque l'Université de l'Alberta a obtenu sa certification. En 1995, seulement deux autres pays non américains (toutes deux canadiennes) avaient été admises. (Durand et McQuire, 2005).

Au cours des cinq années suivantes, l'AACSB a mis en place une stratégie délibérée d'expansion à l'étranger en raison de trois facteurs majeurs : 1) la saturation du marché nord-américain, 2) la croissance de l'enseignement des affaires à l'extérieur de l'Amérique du Nord, et 3) la prise de conscience que la mondialisation était nécessaire pour maintenir sa position de force dominante sur le marché de l'accréditation des écoles de commerce (Durand & McQuire, 2005). L'organisation a changé de nom pour devenir *l'Association internationale pour l'enseignement de la gestion* (IAME) afin de refléter la nouvelle stratégie. Il a d'abord collaboré avec la *Fondation européenne pour le développement de la gestion* (EFMD) à l'élaboration de normes communes et, éventuellement, de procédures d'accréditation communes. Cette coopération a échoué en raison du fait que « l'AACSB considérait potentiellement l'EFMD comme son fer de lance en Europe. Les Européens n'étaient pas vraiment disposés à confier à l'AACSB la responsabilité d'établir les normes en Europe » (Durand et McQuire, 2005, p. 179).

Avec la fin de la collaboration avec l'EFMD, l'organisation a changé de nom pour devenir AACSB (mais maintenant pour *l'Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business*) et a lancé un projet pilote avec un petit groupe d'institutions non nord-américaines qui offraient des diplômes de commerce de haute qualité en France (ESSEC Business School), aux Pays-Bas (Erasmus University), au Royaume-Uni (Université de Warwick), au Mexique (ITSEM) et à Hong Kong (Université chinoise de Hong Kong). L'objectif du projet était de montrer la qualité des normes de l'AACSB et de reconnaître les différences entre les systèmes éducatifs, renforçant ainsi la légitimité de l'organisation dans les communautés de gestion et universitaires (Durand et McQuire, 2005). En août 2023, il y avait 1 004 établissements accrédités dans plus de 60 pays qui étaient accrédités par l'AACSB (AACSB, 2023b).

EQUIS

Le *Système européen d'amélioration de la qualité* (EQUIS) a été créé en 1997 par l'EFMD, une organisation mondiale à but non lucratif basée à Bruxelles. L'objectif d'EQUIS est d'élever le niveau de l'enseignement du management dans le monde entier (EFMD, 2023). Il a été créé à une époque où il y avait une concurrence accrue entre les pays non américains. Les écoles de commerce qui cherchaient à obtenir une accréditation comme moyen d'obtenir un avantage stratégique. Il a également directement remis en question les efforts d'internationalisation de l'AACSB (Durand et McQuire, 2005). Les écoles sont évaluées sur trois critères principaux : les liens avec la pratique ; l'éthique, la responsabilité et la durabilité ; et l'internationalisation. En novembre 2023, 218 établissements dans 45 pays étaient accrédités EQUIS, la majorité étant basée en Europe (116) (EFMD, 2023). Bien que l'accréditation EQUIS s'applique à l'ensemble de l'établissement, l'EFMD possède également l'accréditation EPAS qui est décernée à un programme spécifique de commerce ou de gestion au sein de l'école. En 2020,

l'EFMD a rebaptisé l'étiquette EPAS en EFMD Accredited. Les établissements peuvent demander l'accréditation EFMD avant de tenter d'obtenir l'accréditation EQUIS. Il existe plus de 120 programmes accrédités par l'EFMD (EFMD, 2023).

AMBA

L'*Association of MBAs* a été créée en 1967 par huit diplômés d'écoles de commerce basées au Royaume-Uni qui ont lancé *la Business Graduate Association* (BGA) avec pour mission d'améliorer la qualité de l'éducation reçue dans les écoles supérieures de commerce au Royaume-Uni. À la fin des années 1980, elle a changé de nom pour devenir *l'Association of MBAs*, en mettant l'accent sur l'accréditation des programmes de MBA dans les écoles de commerce. L'organisation s'engage à « rehausser le profil et les normes de qualité de l'enseignement des affaires à l'échelle internationale, au profit des écoles de commerce, des étudiants et diplômés et diplômés de MBA, des employeurs, des communautés et de la société » (AMBA, 2023a, para. 3). Il s'agit principalement d'un service d'accréditation pour les programmes de maîtrise en administration des affaires (MBA) et de doctorat en administration des affaires (DBA). En novembre 2023, il y avait 304 écoles accréditées par l'AMBA dans 60 pays (AMBA, 2023b).

Les trois accréditations sont attribuées sur une base de trois ans ou de cinq ans et sont renouvelables après un audit par l'organisation. Il existe des différences subtiles entre chacun des organismes d'accréditation. L'AACSB évalue la mission d'une école, sa gestion stratégique, ses systèmes de soutien aux élèves, son personnel enseignant, son leadership pédagogique et son impact communautaire. Ils s'intéressent principalement aux programmes de commerce et de comptabilité. EQUIS met davantage l'accent sur la pédagogie et l'innovation. L'AMBA certifie les programmes de MBA et DBA en fonction du programme de cours, de la faculté d'enseignement, de la stratégie et de l'interaction avec les étudiants (Edmium, 2020). Détenir les trois accréditations est connu comme avoir la *triple couronne*. En juin 2023, seules 124 écoles de commerce dans le monde détiennent cette distinction (MBA Today, 2023). La section suivante est consacrée à la présentation de nos études de cas.

Analyse intra-cas

Dans ce chapitre, nous présenterons les principales conclusions de chacune de nos études de cas. Les preuves empiriques sont constamment comparées à la théorie existante (Yin, 2018). Nous fournissons les résultats de chaque cas en fonction du cadre théorique et dans le contexte de nos questions de recherche.

Principales conclusions de l'affaire EM Normandie

L'école a créé des IBC principalement en raison de l'importance de la mobilité des étudiants dans l'internationalisation. La mobilité joue un rôle essentiel dans sa stratégie marketing en influençant les choix des étudiants lors de la sélection d'un établissement d'enseignement. Les IBC permettent de contrôler les processus qualité et de démontrer l'identité internationale de l'institution. Les spécialisations alignées sur chaque emplacement du campus améliorent le recrutement d'étudiants. L'accréditation est essentielle à

l'internationalisation et au maintien des opportunités de marché, ce qui fait des IBC un choix stratégique pour l'école.

La décision de créer des IBC est stratégique, assurant des placements internationaux tout en maintenant des normes de qualité. Il aborde également le risque de saturation du marché dans le secteur français de l'enseignement des affaires, où la concurrence entre les écoles pousse à l'adoption des IBC pour rester compétitif.

La mise en place de CIB améliore considérablement la visibilité et l'attractivité de l'organisation auprès des candidats locaux et internationaux. C'est devenu une pratique courante pour les institutions qui cherchent à prospérer dans un marché concurrentiel, reflétant la nécessité de l'internationalisation.

Les mécanismes de coordination de l'école sont centralisés, les décisions stratégiques sont prises par le COMEX et les opérations quotidiennes supervisées par le CODIR. Bien que les IBC jouissent d'une certaine autonomie dans leurs activités quotidiennes, ils demeurent dépendants de l'établissement d'attache. La coordination se fait par le biais d'un réseau de managers et de réunions régulières, la collaboration numérique jouant un rôle important. Les réunions et rassemblements physiques formels contribuent également à la qualité et à la stratégie globales.

Les IBC ont un impact considérable sur l'image et la réputation de l'école. Ils valorisent l'image internationale et académique de l'établissement et influencent positivement les classements et l'accréditation des écoles. Les IBC témoignent de la présence internationale de l'établissement et de sa capacité à offrir un programme d'études international, ce qui rend l'établissement plus attrayant pour les étudiants potentiels.

Principales conclusions de l'affaire ESCP

L'institution a créé des IBC il y a près de 50 ans, renforçant ainsi sa position d'école de commerce paneuropéenne. L'organisation se considère comme un « réseau d'*établissements universitaires* » plutôt que d'avoir des campus succursales, chaque campus étant reconnu et certifié de manière indépendante dans son pays respectif. Alors que la plupart des campus fonctionnent dans le cadre de l'organisation, le campus de Varsovie est une alliance stratégique avec l'Université Kozminski. Le programme scolaire met l'accent sur un « *réseau d'établissements universitaires* » et les étudiants doivent alterner entre les campus pour obtenir leur diplôme.

L'organisation est gérée par le Comité exécutif européen (COMEX), qui comprend les directeurs des différents campus. Un conseil d'administration se réunit régulièrement pour valider la stratégie de l'école, tandis que le COMEX se réunit au moins une fois par mois pour prendre des décisions au niveau fédéral. Chaque campus a son comité, son doyen et ses représentants locaux pour mettre en œuvre les décisions du COMEX. De plus, les campus ont leur conseil d'administration, qui comprend souvent des membres d'autres campus et des chefs d'entreprise locaux. Le contrôle dans la matrice organisationnelle s'étend aux niveaux fédéral et local, certaines personnes ayant une double responsabilité. La gestion du corps

professoral se fait au niveau européen, avec des représentants de chaque campus. Bien que l'école mette l'accent sur sa structure en réseau, Paris reste centrale à bien des égards.

L'institution se considère comme une école unique avec plusieurs centres géographiques, ce qui contribue à sa réputation et à son classement en tant qu'entité unifiée. Les campus renforcent la réputation de l'école grâce à l'image de marque et à des programmes spécialisés, tels que les initiatives de développement durable à Berlin et l'innovation à Madrid. La forte présence de la marque Turin en Italie améliore également la réputation de l'organisation par rapport à d'autres institutions de premier plan. Les stratégies de l'école se concentrent sur la marque et la taille, chaque campus jouant un rôle dans le maintien d'un classement national élevé et contribuant à la croissance et à l'innovation de l'ESCP.

Principales conclusions de l'affaire ESSCA

Les motivations de l'institution pour la création des IBC ont été influencées par les opportunités du marché. Pour le campus de Budapest, l'opportunité s'est présentée après la chute du mur de Berlin, lorsque l'école a été approchée par l'Université Corvinus de Budapest pour créer un programme de double diplôme spécialisé dans les stratégies et les entreprises d'Europe de l'Est et de l'Ouest. Dans le cas du campus de Shanghai, la décision s'inscrivait dans le cadre de l'ouverture croissante de la Chine aux activités commerciales étrangères. L'organisation utilise ses IBC pour répondre aux exigences en matière d'expérience internationale de ses étudiants et attirer des étudiants internationaux en échange d'universités partenaires.

La structure de gouvernance comprend un conseil d'administration, un conseil consultatif international présidé par la même personne, un COMEX prenant des décisions stratégiques et un CODIR responsable des opérations quotidiennes. Les directeurs de campus français et internationaux font partie du CODIR. Les directeurs des campus français sont rattachés au directeur des opérations, tandis que les directeurs des campus de Budapest et de Shanghai sont directement rattachés au doyen en raison de différences de structure. Des changements récents ont modifié les rapports pour qu'ils se concentrent davantage sur la comptabilité de gestion et le rendement scolaire. Les directeurs de campus maintiennent leur autonomie dans le cadre des principes définis par l'école. Dans le cas de Shanghai, le décalage horaire nécessite des canaux de décision décentralisés.

Bien qu'ils ne soient pas financièrement autonomes, les IBC ont un impact positif sur le classement et la notoriété de l'institution. Le fait d'avoir des campus internationaux renforce la reconnaissance de la marque auprès des candidats et des entreprises, ce qui permet à l'école d'être mieux connue dans les milieux académiques et d'affaires. Les IBC rassurent également les étudiants et leurs familles, procurant un sentiment de sécurité à ceux qui craignent d'étudier à l'étranger pour la première fois.

Principales conclusions de l'étude de cas OMNES Education

L'institution a créé ses IBC pour plusieurs raisons. L'une des principales motivations était d'offrir davantage de cours enseignés en anglais, reconnaissant l'importance de l'anglais en tant que lingua franca du monde du travail. Les IBC étaient également considérés comme un moyen d'offrir des connaissances et une expertise spécialisées qui pourraient être mieux acquises en étudiant dans des

endroits spécifiques, comme Londres pour le commerce international et la finance. De plus, les IBC visaient à répondre à la demande de candidats qui souhaitent suivre une éducation en français mais qui étaient limités par les exigences de voyage, tels que les étudiants des pays africains. Enfin, les IBC servent toutes les écoles du réseau de l'organisation en ajoutant de la valeur, en rendant les programmes plus attrayants, en ajoutant de nouveaux programmes et en soutenant la formation des cadres.

L'école est dirigée par des directeurs généraux et un conseil consultatif (COMEX), dont les opérations quotidiennes et la mise en œuvre des politiques sont supervisées par le CODIR. Les directeurs des campus font partie du CODIR, qui se réunit régulièrement. Les IBC jouissent d'une certaine autonomie tant qu'ils respectent les principales règles et réglementations fixées par le COMEX et le CODIR. L'autonomie comprend la conception des programmes, les titres des cours et les domaines de spécialisation, tout en s'alignant sur les objectifs de l'école. La communication et la coordination sont essentielles, étant donné que les programmes sont conçus pour les élèves de 16 écoles. Des réunions et des séminaires réguliers renforcent la stratégie et la vision de l'école.

Les IBC contribuent au succès de l'organisation en ajoutant de la valeur à l'ensemble du réseau d'écoles grâce à des programmes d'études standard et à des programmes spécialisés à court terme. Ils ont un impact positif sur l'image et la notoriété de l'institution, en particulier dans les grandes villes internationales comme Londres et San Francisco. La présence d'IBC renforce la notoriété de l'institution et démontre la priorité accordée à l'internationalisation par le top management.

Principales conclusions de l'étude de cas d'Epsilon Business School

Les motivations de l'école pour la création d'IBC sont principalement axées sur l'internationalisation et l'attraction d'étudiants internationaux. Le fait d'avoir des campus internationaux ajoute de la valeur et distingue l'institution des autres. Il est considéré comme un facteur clé de succès pour attirer des étudiants internationaux. De plus, les IBC appuient l'accent mis par l'établissement sur la mobilité internationale, qui est une exigence de diplôme pour de nombreux programmes. La stratégie à long terme de l'institution implique une expansion mondiale, visant à être présente sur tous les continents. L'établissement a pour ambition de proposer une approche globale de l'enseignement, plutôt que d'exporter une approche académique française spécifique.

L'organisation est gérée par le doyen qui relève du conseil d'administration et est responsable de la mise en œuvre des politiques stratégiques. Le COMEX supervise à la fois les aspects opérationnels et stratégiques de l'école, les directeurs de l'IBC participant aux réunions trimestrielles. La création et l'exploitation des IBC chez Epsilon impliquent une collaboration avec des partenaires académiques dans les pays d'accueil. Dans un premier temps, un programme limité est proposé, comme le Programme Grande Ecole, avant d'introduire des cours spécialisés alignés sur l'écosystème local. L'interaction entre les IBC et le campus d'origine se fait principalement en ligne, avec des réunions occasionnelles en personne.

La principale contribution des IBC semble être stratégique plutôt que financière. Les IBC impactent positivement l'image et la réputation de l'établissement, notamment en termes de visibilité et de

classements internationaux. Le fait d'avoir un campus chinois, par exemple, améliore considérablement la visibilité et la réputation de l'institution. L'internationalisation est un thème qui est classé dans divers classements internationaux, et Epsilon Business School a tendance à bien performer à cet égard, contribuant ainsi à son succès et à sa reconnaissance.

Analyse et discussion croisées de cas

Dans ce chapitre, nous utiliserons les connaissances acquises à partir de nos études de cas individuelles pour étudier les similitudes et les différences entre les cas afin d'élargir notre compréhension de la relation entre les écoles de commerce françaises et leurs campus internationaux. Nous discutons ensuite des implications théoriques, ainsi que des apports méthodologiques et managériaux de nos recherches.

Analyse croisée des cas

Cette section fournit une synthèse croisée des résultats des cinq études de cas, en suivant une méthodologie de réplcation littérale pour identifier des modèles communs. Les résultats sont présentés conformément aux trois sous-questions de recherche.

Identité et contexte de l'établissement

Dans cette section, nous comparons les motivations de l'internationalisation et les raisons de la création d'un IBC pour les cinq écoles.

Motivations de l'internationalisation

Les entreprises d'un même domaine organisationnel peuvent avoir des forces qui émergent et qui les amènent à devenir similaires les unes aux autres (DiMaggio et Powell, 1983). Ces pressions peuvent être formelles et informelles et sont appelées pressions coercitives, mimétiques et normatives.

L'EM Normandie affirme que la principale pression à l'internationalisation vient des agences d'accréditation AACSB, EQUIS et AMBA. D'autres pressions coercitives proviennent de la demande des étudiants, des parents et des entreprises. Il y a un besoin et une demande de la part des étudiants, des parents et des entreprises qui recrutent pour que les étudiants aient un état d'esprit international et une formation, y compris des compétences linguistiques. L'institution affirme que la concurrence féroce des autres écoles de commerce sur le marché français est une autre motivation pour s'internationaliser. Selon un expert de l'industrie :

« Le marché national est tellement concurrentiel que tout le monde cherche à se différencier. Si les critères changent, les écoles de commerce sont prises entre la nécessité de participer et la nécessité de s'adapter au classement pour impacter et soutenir la concurrence sur le marché. »

(Expert de l'industrie #1)

En raison de la saturation du marché, aller à l'étranger est un moyen de rester compétitif et de soutenir la croissance (Javalgi et Grossman, 2014). Enfin, l'école affirme qu'il existe des pressions normatives découlant des classements des écoles, ainsi que des classements de la recherche (McKiernan et Wilson, 2012).

L'ESCP s'est internationalisée lors de sa fusion avec son école sœur EAP en 1999 (ESCP, 2023), mais la motivation à continuer à se développer à l'international découle de la pression financière exercée sur

l'école par les parties prenantes de l'ESCP pour augmenter ses revenus et de la demande des étudiants d'être exposés à un cursus international. L'organisation mentionne également la concurrence d'autres écoles comme la pression finale pour que l'ESCP s'installe à l'étranger.

Les pressions exercées sur l'ESSCA pour qu'elle s'internationalise sont triples. Tout d'abord, il y a les pressions exercées par les agences d'accréditation, en particulier EQUIS. Le second provient du classement des écoles. L'institution considère que les pressions exercées par ces deux entités sont corrélées. Un expert de l'industrie explique :

« Vous avez le gouvernement français, vous avez, bien sûr, toutes les accréditations, et tout cela est consolidé par les classements qui s'appuient fortement sur cela. Et si vous n'êtes pas assez international, vous ne pouvez pas obtenir d'accréditation nationale et internationale. Et si vous n'avez pas ces accréditations nationales ou internationales, vous êtes mal classé. (Expert de l'industrie #2)

Enfin, il y a une demande de la part des étudiants d'avoir un ensemble de compétences internationales pour être compétitifs sur le marché mondial.

Pour OMNES Education, la principale pression coercitive vient des étudiants. L'école reconnaît qu'elle doit offrir à ses étudiants l'exposition internationale et la formation linguistique nécessaires, afin qu'ils restent compétitifs sur le marché du travail d'aujourd'hui. Une autre pression provient de la concurrence. L'organisation soutient que le marché français des écoles de commerce est saturé et que pour rester compétitive, elle doit s'exporter à l'étranger. La dernière pression vient du classement des écoles.

Enfin, Epsilon Business School affirme qu'il existe deux principales pressions coercitives en faveur de l'internationalisation : de la part des étudiants et de la part des entreprises. Il y a une demande de la part des étudiants de partir à l'étranger pendant leurs études pour acquérir l'expérience internationale exigée par le marché du travail. Les entreprises sont à la recherche de recrues qui possèdent les compétences nécessaires à l'échelle mondiale. L'institution identifie la concurrence des autres écoles de commerce françaises comme une pression à l'internationalisation. Enfin, les classements des écoles sont reconnus comme une pression supplémentaire pour aller à l'étranger. Le tableau 6.1 met en évidence les pressions isomorphes (DiMaggio et Powell, 1983) auxquelles sont confrontées les écoles de commerce françaises pour s'internationaliser.

Tableau Pressions isomorphes pour l'internationalisation des écoles de commerce françaises

Isomorphisme institutionnel	EN Normandie	L'ESCP	L'ESSCA	OMNES Éducation	Epsilon Business School
<i>Coercitif</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organismes d'accréditation • Étudiants • Parents • Entreprises 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Les actionnaires de l'ESCP pour de meilleurs résultats financiers • Étudiants 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organismes d'accréditation • Étudiants 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Étudiants 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Étudiants • Entreprises
<i>Mimétique</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • La concurrence, notamment de la part d'autres écoles de commerce françaises 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • La concurrence, notamment de la part d'autres écoles de commerce françaises 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • La concurrence, notamment de la part d'autres écoles de commerce françaises 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • La concurrence, notamment de la part d'autres écoles de commerce françaises
<i>Normatif</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Classements des écoles • Classements de recherche 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Classements des écoles 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Classements des écoles 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Classements des écoles

Source : Élaboration de l'auteur

La pression des agences d'accréditation est un facteur clé d'internationalisation des écoles de commerce françaises. Avoir des accréditations est un ticket d'entrée pour les écoles de commerce qui veulent concourir au niveau international (Lejeune et al., 2015) et est une nécessité plutôt qu'un avantage concurrentiel (Thomas et al., 2014). Si une école de commerce n'est pas accréditée, elle court le risque de devenir moins compétitive pour attirer les étudiants (Teixeira et Maccari, 2018). Les accréditations peuvent servir de signal que les activités de l'école sont réglementées et accroître sa légitimité auprès de ses parties prenantes. La légitimité est essentielle à la survie et au succès de l'organisation (Zhang et al., 2019). Les écoles de commerce se conformeront aux processus d'accréditation afin de gagner en légitimité (Thomas, et al. 2014).

Parallèlement aux accréditations, il y a la pression des classements des écoles. Les écoles de commerce françaises les mieux classées sont aussi celles qui obtiennent les meilleurs scores en matière d'internationalisation (Blanchard & Crespy, 2023). En passant en revue quatre publications françaises qui font des classements annuels des écoles de commerce : *L'Etudiant*, *Le Figaro*, *Challenges* et *L'Usine Nouvelle*, Blanchard et Crespy (2023) constatent qu'aucun critère n'est identique, mais que le critère le plus courant est la réputation internationale. Le classement d'une école et les accréditations dont elle dispose sont une indication du niveau de qualité perçu par l'établissement sur le marché français des écoles de commerce (Dubois et Welch, 2017).

La concurrence est féroce entre les écoles de commerce françaises (Dubois et Welch, 2017). Les écoles utilisent l'internationalisation comme un moyen de distinction dans le processus de réinvention ou de redéfinition (Blanchard et Crespy, 2023). Cependant, il existe un comportement mimétique sur le marché (Fay et Zavattaro, 2016).

Il existe également des pressions en faveur de l'internationalisation de la part des parties prenantes internes, comme les étudiants, et des parties prenantes externes, telles que les entreprises (Fay et Zavattaro, 2016). L'internationalisation est avant tout une quête pour les écoles de commerce françaises d'accroître leur notoriété à l'international, mais plus encore sur le marché domestique (Engwall & Kipping, 2013).

Raisons de créer un IBC

Dans cette section, nous examinons pourquoi les écoles ont choisi de créer un campus international plutôt qu'une autre option d'entrée sur le marché étranger.

L'EM Normandie considère la mobilité étudiante comme l'une des principales raisons de la création des IBC. Bien que l'école compte plus de 200 universités partenaires internationales où les étudiants peuvent effectuer un échange, le fait d'avoir un IBC offre trois avantages principaux pour la mobilité des étudiants. Tout d'abord, il n'y a pas de quota d'étudiants comme c'est le cas avec les universités partenaires, ce qui signifie que l'EM Normandie n'est pas limitée dans le nombre d'étudiants qu'elle peut envoyer dans ses IBC. Deuxièmement, tout étudiant inscrit à l'école peut étudier dans ses IBC, quel que soit son niveau académique. Troisièmement, malgré les coûts supplémentaires, il est plus facile de gérer un IBC que de travailler avec des universités partenaires. L'organisation est en mesure de contrôler les processus de qualité dans les IBC, garantissant ainsi une expérience harmonieuse à ses étudiants.

Les campus d'Oxford et de Dublin présentent plusieurs avantages pour l'école. Oxford confère d'abord et avant tout l'image de marque et le prestige du lieu. L'établissement bénéficie de l'association de la marque avec Oxford (Yuan et al., 2016) et l'utilise largement dans ses efforts de marketing auprès des étudiants français, ainsi qu'auprès des étudiants internationaux provenant d'universités partenaires. Dublin offre l'avantage d'être le seul pays anglophone de l'Union européenne et, en outre, accueille plusieurs sièges européens d'entreprises de haute technologie telles que Google ou Amazon. Les deux sites sont géographiquement proches de la Normandie.

L'ESCP ne considère pas qu'elle dispose de campus annexes, mais qu'elle est une institution paneuropéenne avec cinq campus fédéraux en Europe de l'Ouest et une alliance stratégique en Europe de l'Est avec l'Université Kominski. L'établissement utilise ces campus pour garder un pied sur le marché européen et exporter le *modèle Grande Ecole*. Tous les étudiants de l'ESCP doivent alterner entre les campus, et l'école est en mesure de fournir la formation pour devenir un « manager multinational multiculturel européen » via ses programmes de langue anglaise basés sur des diplômes proposés sur chaque site. L'organisation s'appuie sur son réseau de campus pour accroître sa notoriété sur le marché français, ainsi qu'à l'international. L'école affirme également que les campus de succursales sont plus faciles à gérer que les partenariats universitaires.

Les raisons pour lesquelles l'ESSCA a choisi d'avoir des IBC découlent des opportunités de marché. Pour Budapest, l'école a été approchée par l'Université Corvinus de Budapest après la chute du mur de Berlin pour créer un programme de double diplôme en Hongrie pour les personnes parlant français. Celui-ci est devenu un campus annexe de l'ESSCA, tout en conservant son partenariat clé avec l'Université Corvinus. La raison d'être de la création du campus de Shanghai est similaire. Après l'adhésion de la Chine à l'Organisation mondiale du commerce, l'institution a saisi l'occasion d'offrir à ses étudiants un moyen d'acquérir plus d'expérience dans le commerce international. Pour ce faire, elle s'appuie sur son partenariat clé avec l'Université d'études internationales de Shanghai. L'établissement utilise ses campus annexes comme un moyen d'offrir à ses étudiants, quel que soit leur profil académique, une exposition internationale et une formation. Elle offre également la possibilité de participer aux IBC pour échanger des étudiants de ses universités partenaires. Les IBC sont plus faciles à gérer que les partenariats universitaires et ils renforcent la réputation de la marque de l'école.

Pour OMNES Education, l'une des principales raisons de créer des IBC est d'offrir à ses propres étudiants, quel que soit leur niveau académique, un moyen de suivre des cours en anglais ainsi qu'une expérience internationale. Étant donné qu'OMNES Education est un réseau de 16 écoles différentes, les campus des succursales sont utilisés pour fournir des programmes à court terme à tous les membres du réseau. Ces programmes peuvent être liés à des spécialisations pour lesquelles la ville du campus est connue (par exemple, la finance à Londres, l'innovation à San Francisco). Cependant, le campus d'Abidjan a été créé en raison de la demande du marché en Afrique. L'établissement affirme également que les IBC augmentent la réputation de la marque de l'école et sont plus faciles à gérer que les partenariats universitaires.

Enfin, pour Epsilon Business School, la logique de création des campus d'antennes est similaire à celle d'OMNES Education. C'est un moyen d'offrir à ses propres étudiants, quel que soit leur niveau

académique, un moyen de suivre des cours en anglais tout en leur faisant vivre une expérience internationale. L'institution affirme également que les IBC augmentent la réputation de la marque de l'école et sont plus faciles à gérer que les partenariats universitaires. Cependant, il existe un partenaire académique clé sur chaque campus.

Le tableau 6.2 met en évidence les avantages OLI (Dunning, 1980) des écoles de commerce françaises pour créer des IBC.

Tableau 6.2 Les avantages OLI des écoles de commerce françaises pour la création d'IBC

Avantages de l'OLI	EN Normandie	L'ESCP	L'ESSCA	OMNES Éducation	Epsilon Business School
<i>Propriété</i>	<p>Accroître la notoriété de la marque sur le marché français</p> <p>A un impact positif sur les accréditations</p>	<p>Augmenter la réputation de la marque</p> <p>Former des managers multinationaux et multiculturels européens</p>	<p>Augmenter la réputation de la marque</p> <p>Développer un état d'esprit global pour les étudiants</p> <p>Attirer des étudiants non francophones</p>	<p>Augmenter la réputation de la marque</p> <p>Développer l'état d'esprit global et les compétences linguistiques des étudiants</p>	<p>Augmenter la réputation de la marque</p> <p>Développer un état d'esprit global pour les étudiants</p>
<i>Emplacement</i>	<p>Oxford – très bonne réputation académique</p> <p>Dublin – anglophone et membre de l'Union européenne</p> <p>Proximité géographique de l'établissement d'attache</p>	<p>Implantation sur le marché européen</p> <p>Il est plus facile d'offrir des programmes d'anglais en dehors de la France</p> <p>Partenariat clé avec l'Université Kozminski</p>	<p>Partenariat clé avec l'Université Corvinus de Budapest</p> <p>Partenariat clé avec l'Université d'études internationales de Shanghai</p>	<p>Potentiel de marché en Afrique</p> <p>Basé dans les villes anglophones</p>	<p>Des partenariats clés dans chaque campus</p> <p>Potentiel de marché en Chine</p>
<i>Intériorisation</i>	<p>Plus facile à gérer que les partenariats universitaires</p> <p>Peut envoyer tous les étudiants, quel que soit leur niveau académique</p>	<p>Exporter le <i>modèle</i> Grande Ecole</p> <p>Plus facile à gérer que les partenariats universitaires</p>	<p>Plus facile à gérer que les partenariats universitaires</p> <p>Peut envoyer tous les étudiants, quel que soit leur niveau académique</p>	<p>Peut envoyer des élèves des 16 écoles pour des programmes à court terme</p> <p>Plus facile à gérer que les partenariats universitaires</p>	<p>Plus facile à gérer que les partenariats universitaires</p> <p>Peut envoyer tous les étudiants, quel que soit leur niveau académique</p>

Source : Élaboration de l'auteur

Toutes les écoles participant à l'étude ont déclaré que l'une des principales raisons de créer un IBC est d'accroître la réputation de la marque de l'établissement. Girdzijauskaite et al. (2019a) ont examiné des écoles d'Asie, d'Europe, du Moyen-Orient et des États-Unis avec des IBC et ont identifié le développement de la marque comme la principale raison pour laquelle les établissements créent des campus de succursales. La plupart des écoles qui possèdent un IBC estiment que le fait d'avoir un campus international physique améliore le statut et la réputation de l'établissement (Wilkins, 2021).

De nombreuses écoles ont précisé avoir des partenaires locaux clés dans leur emplacement de IBC. Cela permet aux institutions de réduire *la responsabilité de la nouveauté et la responsabilité* de l'étranger grâce à l'aide de leur principal partenaire local (Cuervo-Cazurra et al., 2007). Les écoles utilisent également l'emplacement de leurs IBC pour évoquer des significations distinctives à différents observateurs, transformant ainsi les ressources de localisation en ressources spécifiques à l'entreprise (Zaheer et Nachum, 2011). Par exemple, l'EM Normandie utilise l'identité et la réputation d'Oxford comme une ressource spécifique à l'entreprise dans ses efforts de marketing. Les IDE peuvent être entrepris explicitement dans le but d'utiliser les actifs acquis à l'étranger pour améliorer leur réputation sur le marché intérieur (Meyer, 2015).

Les avantages de l'internalisation mentionnés par les écoles sont le contrôle et la flexibilité. L'établissement d'origine a le contrôle sur les opérations, ce qui permet d'éviter les conflits qui peuvent survenir dans le cadre de relations avec les universités partenaires et d'assurer la qualité de l'offre sur le campus. De plus, il n'y a pas de restrictions académiques pour l'établissement d'origine d'envoyer ses étudiants aux IBC.

Le campus de la filiale internationale et ses relations

Dans cette section, nous comparons la coordination des IBC pour les cinq écoles.

Coordination des IBC

À l'EM Normandie, le COMEX est responsable de la prise de décision stratégique, tandis que le CODIR supervise l'exécution et les opérations quotidiennes. Les mécanismes de coordination de l'organisation peuvent être classés en deux grandes catégories : les mécanismes personnels et les mécanismes impersonnels (Harzing, 1999). Les mécanismes personnels englobent les réseaux formels, tels que la réunion annuelle du personnel, la réunion semestrielle du corps professoral, et les efforts de collaboration comme la coordination des directeurs de programme. D'autre part, les mécanismes impersonnels impliquent des lignes directrices établies par l'établissement d'origine et celles stipulées par les organismes d'accréditation.

L'ESCP est supervisé par le COMEX, composé de directeurs de différents campus. De plus, un conseil d'administration joue un rôle crucial dans la validation de la stratégie de l'école. Le COMEX se réunit tous les mois pour examiner les décisions au niveau fédéral, couvrant tous les campus. À l'échelle du campus, chaque campus forme son comité, composé du doyen du campus et de représentants locaux. Ce comité

se réunit chaque semaine pour mettre en œuvre les décisions du COMEX. De plus, chaque campus dispose de son conseil d'administration, qui se réunit deux fois par an et est composé de membres d'autres campus et de chefs d'entreprise locaux.

Il existe deux niveaux de contrôle dans la matrice ESCP : le niveau international (le niveau européen) et le niveau national (le niveau national), et la responsabilité d'une personne peut être répartie entre les deux niveaux.

L'établissement utilise des mécanismes de coordination personnelle, qui impliquent des réseaux formels tels que le Comité consultatif européen des professeurs, la réunion annuelle du personnel, la réunion semestrielle du corps professoral et des efforts de collaboration tels que la coordination entre les doyens du campus et les directeurs de programme. Diverses équipes de travail s'occupent des activités fédérales et nationales. En revanche, les mécanismes impersonnels englobent les lignes directrices établies par l'établissement d'origine telles que déterminées par le COMEX, les directives des organismes gouvernementaux locaux et les évaluations individuelles des performances.

L'ESSCA est dirigée par un conseil d'administration qui conseille le doyen en ce qui concerne les politiques stratégiques de l'école. En outre, il existe un conseil consultatif international, présidé par la même personne que le conseil d'administration, qui soutient ce dernier. Le COMEX, s'appuyant sur les recommandations de ces deux conseils, prend des décisions stratégiques, tandis que les opérations quotidiennes sont supervisées par le CODIR. Au sein du CODIR, on retrouve les directeurs des campus français et internationaux.

Les directeurs des campus français sont rattachés au directeur des opérations. En revanche, les directeurs des campus de Budapest et de Shanghai sont directement rattachés au doyen, car les structures de ces deux campus diffèrent de celle de l'association ESSCA France.

L'établissement utilise des mécanismes de coordination personnelle, intégrant des réseaux formels comme la réunion annuelle du personnel, ainsi que divers groupes tels que des réunions de gestion du programme d'études et la coordination entre les doyens du campus et les directeurs de programme. De plus, les mécanismes impersonnels englobent les lignes directrices établies par l'établissement d'origine, telles que déterminées par le COMEX, ainsi que les évaluations individuelles des performances.

OMNES Education est supervisé par le COMEX, composé de directeurs généraux et d'un conseil consultatif. Le fonctionnement quotidien et l'exécution des politiques de l'école sont gérés par le CODIR. Les directeurs des campus, membres à part entière du CODIR, se réunissent chaque semaine pour assurer une coordination et une mise en œuvre efficaces des décisions stratégiques.

L'école utilise des mécanismes de coordination personnelle, impliquant des réseaux formels tels que la réunion annuelle du personnel, les séminaires stratégiques d'une journée et les réunions de coordination du programme. Sur le plan impersonnel, les lignes directrices établies par l'établissement d'origine, déterminées par le COMEX, et les évaluations individuelles de la performance sont des éléments clés.

Epsilon Business School est placée sous la direction du doyen, qui rend compte au conseil d'administration. Le doyen est responsable de l'exécution des politiques stratégiques déterminées par le

conseil d'administration et sollicite l'avis du conseil consultatif international et du comité consultatif de recherche. Le COMEX supervise à la fois les aspects opérationnels et stratégiques de l'école, les directeurs des IBC participant à des réunions trimestrielles.

L'établissement utilise divers mécanismes de coordination personnelle, tels que des réseaux formels tels que la réunion mondiale semestrielle, la réunion annuelle de renouvellement du corps professoral, et des groupes de travail tels que des réunions sur les programmes d'études entre les doyens et les directeurs de programme. Les mécanismes impersonnels comprennent des lignes directrices établies par l'établissement d'origine, telles que déterminées par le COMEX, et des évaluations individuelles du rendement.

Le tableau 6.3 présente les principaux mécanismes de coordination utilisés par chaque école pour gérer ses IBC.

Tableau 6.3 Principaux mécanismes de coordination utilisés par les écoles de commerce françaises pour la gestion de leurs IBC

Mécanismes de coordination	EN Normandie	L'ESCP	L'ESSCA	OMNES Éducation	Epsilon Business School
<i>Mécanismes personnels</i>					
Mécanismes personnels centralisés	Dépendance vis-à-vis des ressources pour le campus d'origine	Dépendance vis-à-vis des ressources pour le campus d'origine	Dépendance vis-à-vis des ressources pour le campus d'origine	Dépendance vis-à-vis des ressources pour le campus d'origine	Dépendance vis-à-vis des ressources pour le campus d'origine
Socialisation et réseaux	Réunion annuelle du personnel	Comité consultatif des facultés européennes	Réunion annuelle du personnel	Réunion semestrielle du personnel mondial	Réunion semestrielle du personnel mondial
	Réunions semestrielles du corps professoral	Réunion annuelle du personnel	D'autres réunions de groupe, telles que les réunions de gestion du programme d'études	D'autres réunions de groupe, telles que des séminaires stratégiques d'une journée et des réunions de coordination de programme.	Réunion annuelle de renouvellement du corps professoral
	Réunions de coordination entre les directeurs de programme	Réunions semestrielles du corps professoral	Communication interpersonnelle informelle	Communication interpersonnelle informelle	D'autres réunions de groupe telles que les réunions sur le programme d'études
	Séminaires de recherche	Activités au niveau fédéral	Échange d'étudiants inter-campus	Échange d'étudiants inter-campus	Communication interpersonnelle informelle
	Communication interpersonnelle informelle	Activités au niveau national	Échange de professeurs entre campus	Échange de professeurs entre campus	Échange d'étudiants inter-campus
	Visites inter-campus par les gestionnaires	Coordination sur le campus			Échange de professeurs entre campus
	Échange de professeurs entre campus	Coordination du programme			
		Communication interpersonnelle informelle			
		Échange d'étudiants inter-campus			
		Échange de professeurs entre campus			

Tableau 6.3 (suite)

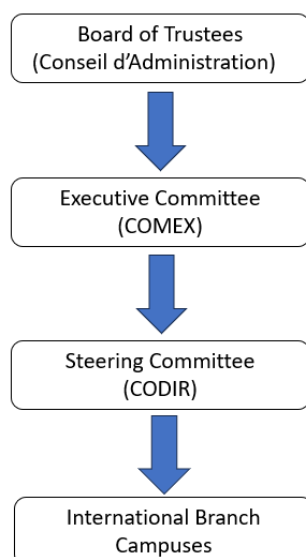
Mécanismes de coordination	EN Normandie	L'ESCP	L'ESSCA	OMNES Éducation	Epsilon Business School
<i>Mécanismes impersonnels</i>					
Mécanismes bureaucratiques formalisés	Des directives strictes de la part du campus d'origine Des directives strictes de la part des organismes d'accréditation	Des directives fortes de la part du campus d'origine Des directives fortes de la part des autorités locales	Des directives fortes de la part du campus d'origine Des lignes directrices rigoureuses de la part des organismes d'accréditation	Des directives fortes de la part du campus d'origine	Des directives fortes de la part du campus d'origine
Mécanismes orientés vers la sortie	Évaluation individuelle de la performance	Évaluation individuelle de la performance	Évaluation individuelle de la performance	Évaluation individuelle de la performance	Évaluation individuelle de la performance

Source : Élaboration de l'auteur basée sur Schmid et al. (2016) citant Harzing (1999) pp. 16-24 et pp. 186-189

Pour toutes les écoles participant à l'étude, le COMEX est chargé d'élaborer et de décider des questions stratégiques de l'école. Il établit des politiques et des procédures alignées sur les directives établies par le conseil d'administration. Ces décisions sont ensuite transmises au CODIR, qui supervise le fonctionnement quotidien de l'établissement et la mise en œuvre des politiques globales qui sont transmises aux campus des antennes. Ce type de mécanisme centralisé est bon pour les flux de connaissances au sein de l'entreprise (Zeng et al., 2023).

Muzio et Faulconbridge (2013) qualifient cette forme de centralisation de modèle « d'entreprise unique » (p. 897), dans lequel des questions cruciales telles que la stratégie, la structure organisationnelle et les pratiques globales sont déterminées par un comité de direction. Par la suite, ces décisions seront exécutées par les filiales. La figure 6.2 montre la structure de base de l'entreprise unique pour l'ensemble des écoles.

Figure 6.3 La structure de base de l'école de commerce française « mono-entreprise ».



Source : Élaboration de l'auteur

Les écoles de commerce françaises peuvent être considérées comme des entreprises de services professionnels :

« Notre activité est un service professionnel qui s'appelle l'enseignement supérieur. Ce n'est pas très différent d'un cabinet de conseil, qui fournit des services professionnels. (Directeur de l'ESCP Madrid)

La structure organisationnelle qui prévaut dans les entreprises de services professionnels est presque universellement caractérisée comme un modèle matriciel (Klimkeit et Reihlen, 2016). Dans ce modèle, une hiérarchie verticale traditionnelle est complétée par une autorité latérale, combinant des aspects fonctionnels avec une dimension horizontale qui englobe des projets, des produits ou des domaines d'activité. Toutes les écoles de l'étude sont divisées en groupes disciplinaires, programmes d'enseignement et groupes de sujets de recherche.

La structure de gouvernance des IBC reste étroitement liée à leur établissement d'origine, tout en leur permettant une certaine autonomie dans la gestion quotidienne des opérations. Alors que les IBC opèrent dans le cadre de l'établissement d'origine, les gestionnaires supervisant les différents campus et programmes s'engagent dans une collaboration en réseau. Cette collaboration se fait par le biais d'interactions occasionnelles et régulières, englobant des échanges d'idées formels et informels.

Les outils numériques servent d'arène constante pour la collaboration entre les différents campus, favorisant un dialogue dynamique visant à maintenir la qualité du programme d'études et à assurer un soutien solide aux étudiants. Cette collaboration numérique continue souligne l'engagement à maintenir des normes élevées dans tous les aspects de l'expérience éducative.

De plus, en plus de la connectivité numérique, les réunions physiques formelles jouent un rôle crucial dans l'orientation de l'institution et de ses différents campus. Ces réunions servent de réunions stratégiques, où des décisions sont prises pour améliorer la qualité globale et affiner la stratégie institutionnelle. Le mélange d'interactions numériques et physiques reflète l'approche multidimensionnelle adoptée par l'organisation pour favoriser la collaboration et assurer le succès des IBC.

En ce qui concerne les mécanismes de coordination, les organisations utilisent une double catégorisation proposée par Harzing (1999) : personnelle et impersonnelle. Les mécanismes personnels englobent des réseaux formels, tels que la réunion annuelle du personnel, la réunion semestrielle du corps professoral et divers groupes de travail, y compris les efforts de coordination entre les directeurs de programme. Ces rencontres régulières permettent de normaliser les échanges et d'accroître l'efficacité du transfert de connaissances (Palmié et al., 2016). Ces forums offrent une plate-forme structurée pour les interactions en face à face, favorisant un sentiment de communauté et facilitant une communication efficace entre les parties prenantes. La coordination vise à établir des liens entre les campus des filiales afin d'atteindre de meilleurs objectifs communs (Martinez et Jarillo, 1989). Cela renforce également la confiance mutuelle et le développement de l'engagement entre les directeurs de campus (Vahlne et Johanson, 2021).

D'autre part, les mécanismes impersonnels impliquent des lignes directrices établies par l'établissement d'origine et celles établies par les organismes d'accréditation. Ces lignes directrices forment un cadre qui guide les IBC dans le respect des normes et des pratiques établies, assurant ainsi la cohérence et la qualité à tous les niveaux. Il existe également une évaluation individuelle de la performance, qui est une sorte de système de récompense basé sur les contributions annuelles à l'institution. Communiquer efficacement les objectifs de l'entreprise en alignement direct avec le système de récompense semble être une approche plus efficace pour exécuter la stratégie et mettre en œuvre les changements (Fossats-Vasselin, 2021). Le tableau 6.3 présente les mécanismes de coordination mis en place par les écoles de commerce françaises.

Tableau 6.3 Principaux mécanismes de coordination utilisés par les écoles de commerce françaises

Classification du mécanisme de coordination	Principaux mécanismes de coordination utilisés par
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		les écoles de commerce françaises
Mécanismes personnels	Mécanismes personnels centralisés	Dépendance vis-à-vis des ressources pour le campus d'origine
	Socialisation et réseaux	Réunion annuelle du personnel Réunions semestrielles de la faculté Réunions de coordination entre les directeurs de programme Séminaires de recherche Communication interpersonnelle informelle Visites inter-campus par les gestionnaires Échange de professeurs entre campus
Mécanismes impersonnels	Mécanismes bureaucratiques formalisés	Des directives fortes de la part du campus d'origine Des lignes directrices rigoureuses de la part des organismes d'accréditation
	Mécanismes orientés vers la sortie	Évaluation individuelle de la performance

Source : Élaboration de l'auteur basée sur Schmid et al. (2016) citant Harzing (1999) pp. 16-24 et pp. 186-189

Type de filiale

Sur la base de la classification d'Edwards et al. (2014), il y a trois écoles qui suivent une stratégie Global Branch Campus, une institution qui a une stratégie Transnational Branch Campus, et une qui se situe entre les deux.

Une institution qui adopte une stratégie Global Branch Campus se caractérise par des campus de marque chargés de mettre en œuvre la stratégie et les décisions de l'institut. Les postes de direction sur le campus d'attache et sur le campus de la succursale sont occupés par le personnel du campus d'attache, ce qui assure l'uniformité des programmes de base et de l'image de marque dans toutes les succursales. Conformément à la typologie de Jarillo et Martinez (1989), ces campus suivent une *stratégie de filiales réceptives* car peu de fonctions sont exercées dans le pays (en général, uniquement le marketing et les ventes), et ils sont fortement intégrés au reste de l'entreprise. L'EM Normandie, OMNES Education et Epsilon Business School suivent ce type de stratégie.

« Quand ils savent qu'ils vont pouvoir partir à l'étranger par l'EM Normandie, avec le personnel de l'EM Normandie, ils se sentent mieux. » (Directeur du Développement International, EM Normandie)

« Pour nos campus, je les considère comme des campus satellites, qui ne visent pas à servir la population locale. » (Directeur d'OMNES Education San Francisco)

« Epsilon Business School France détermine la stratégie globale incluant les programmes, les contenus et tous les autres contenus académiques qui sont diffusés en cascade sur les sept campus. » (Doyen du campus chinois de l'Epsilon Business School).

D'autre part, une institution qui adopte une stratégie de campus transnational est intrinsèquement multicentrique, avec des rôles de leadership répartis entre les campus parents et les campus de succursales, chacun se spécialisant dans des domaines distincts de l'enseignement et de la recherche. Il est à noter qu'il s'écarte du concept traditionnel de « campus de succursale ». Dans la typologie de Jarillo et Martinez (1990), ces campus suivent une *stratégie active* puisque de nombreuses activités sont localisées dans le pays d'accueil. Les activités sont menées en étroite coordination avec le reste de l'entreprise, « constituant ainsi un nœud actif dans un réseau étroitement soudé » (Jarillo et Martinez, 1991, p. 443). L'ESCP entre dans cette catégorie.

« Je veux dire, évidemment, il y a une certaine harmonisation et des directives du siège, qui serait Paris, mais il y a beaucoup de degrés de liberté parce que cela doit être comme ça dans chaque pays et en particulier en Allemagne, nous sommes vraiment enracinés dans l'enseignement supérieur, dans le paysage allemand de l'enseignement supérieur. » (Directeur de l'ESCP Berlin)

« Il est très rare de voir ces mêmes établissements essayer d'intégrer ces campus internationaux au point où les programmes sont eux-mêmes des programmes rotatifs gérés sur un réseau de campus... comme l'ESCP. » (Directeur de l'ESCP Londres)

On a constaté que les entreprises passent d'une stratégie mondiale à une stratégie transnationale à mesure que l'environnement change (Bartlett et Ghoshal, 1987). L'ESSCA est en train de passer d'une stratégie globale à une stratégie transnationale.

« Nous avons décidé d'avoir une nouvelle approche, une nouvelle approche managériale. Donc, ça veut dire qu'aujourd'hui on se rapproche des gens d'Angers pour accepter le fait que certaines personnes prennent la décision dans les nouveaux campus de Lyon, Bordeaux, Aix. Rien ne se joue exclusivement à Angers. » (Doyen de l'ESSCA)

« Au cours des deux dernières années, nous avons entamé un processus visant à établir une distinction claire entre les fonctions centralisées et les fonctions décentralisées au niveau des campus. En fait, nous avons repensé notre organisation, nous avons redistribué le pouvoir et clarifié ce qui devait être central et ce qui devait être au niveau du campus, et ce qui était vrai pour les campus français l'est aussi pour les campus internationaux. Maintenant, nous avons un directeur de campus pour tous les campus. D'ici quelques mois, nous aurons un comité exécutif dans tous les campus. Nous avons des coordonnateurs de recherche sur tous les campus. Nous avons un coordonnateur du corps professoral sur tous les campus, et cetera, et cetera. » (Vice-Doyen à la recherche, ESSCA)

La figure 6.2 montre les différentes stratégies du IBC pour les cinq écoles.

Figure 6.2 Les stratégies IBC des écoles de commerce françaises

		Global Integration	
		Weak	Strong
Local Adaptation	Strong	The Multidomestic Branch Campus/ Autonomous Subsidiary Strategy	The Transnational Branch Campus/ Active Subsidiary Strategy <i>ESCP</i> <i>ESSCA</i>
	Weak	The International Branch Campus/ Quiescent Subsidiary Strategy	The Global Branch Campus/ Receptive Subsidiary Strategy <i>EM Normandie</i> <i>OMNES Education</i> <i>Epsilon Business School</i>

Source : Élaboration de l'auteur à partir d'Edwards et al. (2014, p. 184-186) ; Jarillo et Martinez (1990) ; Taggart (1998)

Contributions des IBC aux institutions

Il y a deux contributions principales concernant les effets des campus annexes sur leurs établissements d'origine. Le premier est l'impact positif des IBC sur l'image et la réputation de l'établissement d'origine. Une solide réputation est vitale pour les établissements d'enseignement supérieur, car elle influence leur capacité à attirer des étudiants, des professeurs, des financements et des collaborations. Il contribue également à la qualité globale de l'enseignement et à la réussite des diplômés sur le marché du travail (Amado Mateus et Juarez Acosta, 2022). Les rivalités entre les établissements d'enseignement supérieur pour attirer les étudiants nationaux et internationaux, ainsi que d'autres ressources, ont conduit de nombreux établissements à investir dans la réputation de leur marque (Lafuente-Ruiz-de-Sabando, et al. 2018 ; Wilkins et Huisman, 2014).

Deuxièmement, l'effet bénéfique qu'il a sur les agences d'accréditation et les systèmes de classement. Comme les IBC contribuent à la réputation de l'établissement, la réputation de l'établissement influence les classements et les accréditations (Haas et Unkel, 2017).

« Je ne serais pas en mesure de dire combien de rangs nous avons gagnés ; Nous avons obtenu quelques rangs supplémentaires parce que nous avons ces campus, mais... Cela nous apporte beaucoup de valeur sur les marchés grâce à ces deux campus. (Directeur du Développement International, EM Normandie).

En ce qui concerne la performance financière des IBC, la majorité d'entre elles fonctionnent à perte et sont subventionnées par l'établissement d'origine. Les établissements prévoient un budget de cinq à 10 ans pour atteindre le seuil de rentabilité avec leurs IBC, et jusqu'à ce que cela se produise, les pertes peuvent être substantielles (Wilkins, 2021). Girdzijauskaitė et al. (2019b) constatent que l'utilisation des

IBC comme mode d'entrée sur les marchés étrangers vise davantage à renforcer la marque institutionnelle qu'à générer des revenus. Le tableau 6.4 présente les différentes contributions des IBC à l'établissement d'origine.

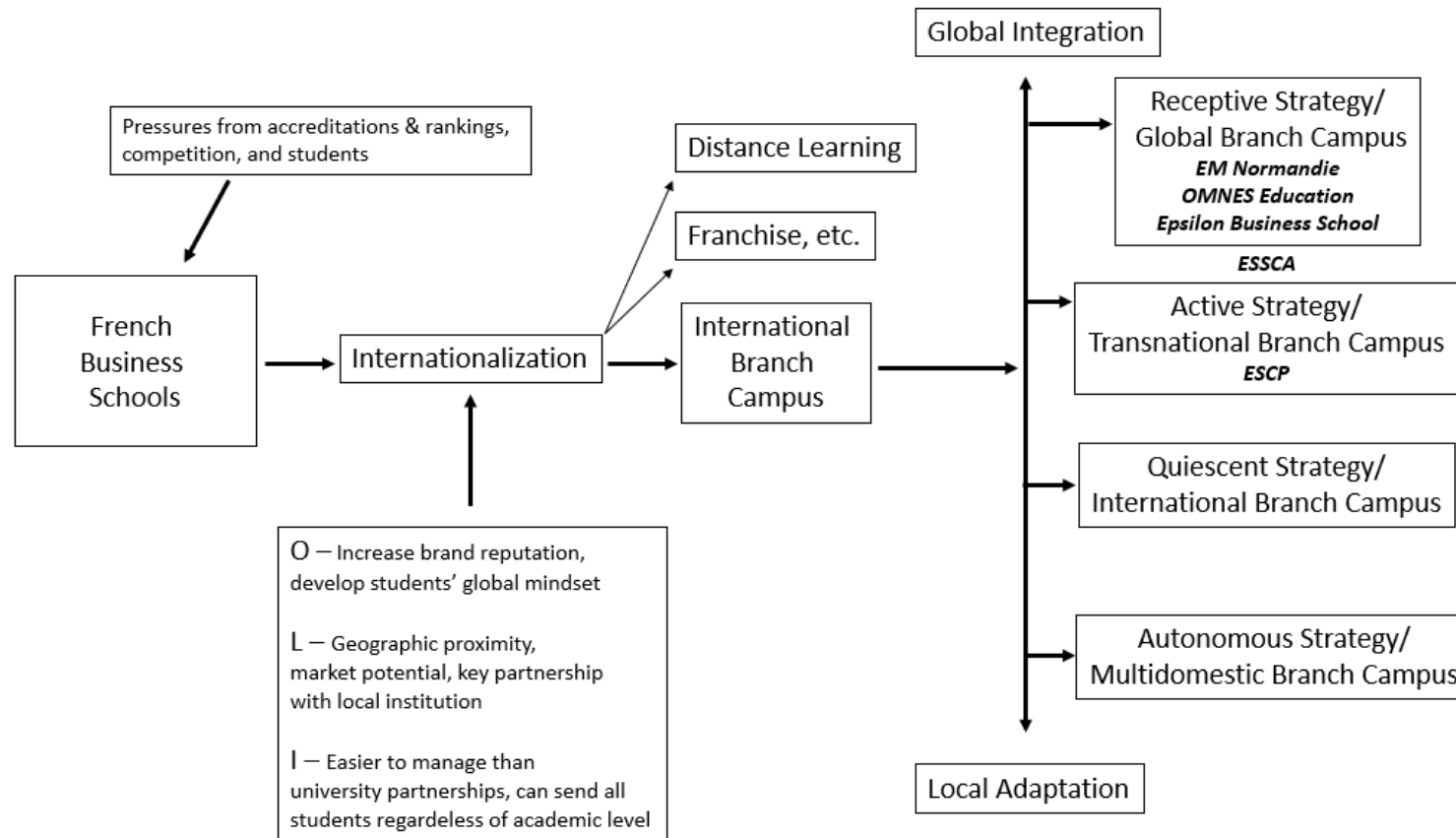
Enfin, nous plaçons nos résultats dans le cadre conceptuel. Le cadre montre les pressions isomorphes (DiMaggio et Powell, 1983) sur les écoles de commerce françaises pour qu'elles s'internationalisent et qui découlent des accréditations et des classements, de la concurrence et des étudiants. Les avantages de l'OLI (Dunning, 1980) expliquent pourquoi les écoles choisissent un campus international plutôt que les autres modes d'entrée sur le marché étranger (enseignement à distance, franchise, validation, programme commun). Les avantages O englobent la nécessité d'accroître la réputation de la marque de l'établissement et de développer l'état d'esprit global de leurs étudiants. Les avantages de L comprennent la proximité géographique, le potentiel de marché et un partenariat clé avec une institution locale. L'avantage est que les IBC sont plus faciles à gérer que les universités partenaires et que les écoles peuvent envoyer tous leurs étudiants sur le campus de la succursale, quel que soit leur niveau académique. Le niveau d'intégration globale par rapport à l'adaptation locale (Bartlett et Ghoshal, 1989) détermine le type de stratégie que le campus suivra. Sur les cinq écoles examinées dans le cadre de notre recherche, trois suivent une stratégie Global Branch Campus, une poursuit une stratégie Transnational Branch Campus et une se situe entre les deux.

La figure 6.3 montre le cadre conceptuel tel qu'il a été appliqué aux cinq écoles de commerce françaises de notre étude.

Tableau 6.4 Contributions des IBC à l'établissement d'origine

	EN Normandie	L'ESCP	L'ESSCA	OMNES Éducation	Epsilon Business School
<i>Contributions des IBC aux institutions</i>	<p>Avoir un effet positif sur l'image et la réputation de l'école.</p> <p>Avoir un impact positif sur les accréditations et les classements.</p>	<p>Avoir un effet positif sur l'image et la réputation de l'école.</p> <p>Avoir un impact positif sur les classements.</p>	<p>Avoir un effet positif sur la notoriété de la marque de l'école.</p> <p>Avoir un impact positif sur les classements.</p> <p>Rassurez les familles qui craignent que l'enfant étudie à l'étranger.</p>	<p>Avoir un effet positif sur l'image de l'école.</p>	<p>Avoir un effet positif sur l'image et la réputation de l'école.</p> <p>Avoir un impact positif sur les classements.</p>
<i>Performance financière des IBC</i>	Non divulgué.	Fonctionnent avec un profit mais dépendent du flux d'étudiants du campus d'origine.	Fonctionnent à perte et sont subventionnés par le campus d'origine.	Cela va de l'obtention d'une marge bénéficiaire de 20 % à l'exploitation à perte et au fait d'être subventionné par le campus d'origine.	Fonctionnent à perte et sont subventionnés par le campus d'origine.

Figure Le cadre conceptuel appliqué aux cinq écoles de commerce françaises



Analyse

Dans cette section, nous discuterons de nos résultats en fonction de nos sous-questions de recherche. Suivront les implications théoriques, les implications méthodologiques et les apports managériaux.

Pourquoi les établissements d'enseignement supérieur choisissent-ils de créer des campus internationaux ?

Les cinq écoles étudiées ont des motivations différentes pour s'internationaliser et plusieurs raisons de choisir des campus internationaux comme moyen d'aller à l'étranger. Les résultats seront discutés dans le contexte de notre cadre conceptuel.

Les écoles de commerce sont confrontées à des pressions isomorphes (Teixeira et Maccari, 2018 ; Wedlin, 2007 ; Yoon et coll., 2021). Notre étude met en évidence plusieurs pressions coercitives, mimétiques et normatives qui affectent les établissements d'enseignement supérieur, et en particulier les écoles de commerce françaises (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Toutes les écoles ont cité les étudiants comme l'une des principales raisons de s'internationaliser. La raison d'être est double : les étudiants veulent avoir l'expérience internationale et les compétences dont les gestionnaires ont besoin dans l'environnement d'aujourd'hui, et les étudiants doivent étudier à l'étranger comme exigence du programme de l'école. À notre connaissance, c'est la première fois que des données empiriques montrent que les étudiants sont la principale pression coercitive exercée sur les écoles pour qu'elles s'internationalisent. Une autre pression coercitive provient des agences d'accréditation AACSB, EQUIS et AMBA. Cela est cohérent avec des études empiriques antérieures qui montrent que les écoles de commerce subissent des pressions de la part d'organismes d'accréditation internationaux (par exemple, Prasad et al., 2019 ; Yoon et coll., 2021). Les écoles de commerce françaises sont en concurrence sur un marché concurrentiel et l'obtention d'une accréditation donne une légitimité à l'établissement dans le domaine de l'enseignement supérieur (Darley & Luethge, 2019 ; Durand et McGuire, 2005 ; Klarin et coll., 2021). Cependant, il n'est plus considéré comme un avantage concurrentiel pour une école, mais comme une exigence (Carton et al., 2018). Bradford et al. (2017) affirment que les écoles de commerce s'inspireront d'organisations similaires qui sont perçues comme plus performantes. Les trois écoles de commerce françaises les mieux classées – HEC, ESSEC et ESCP – ont toutes des campus internationaux et d'autres écoles peuvent imiter leur stratégie pour rester compétitives (Bradford et al., 2017 ; Équipe de recherche sur l'éducation transfrontalière, 2023 ; L'Étudiant, 2023). En ce qui concerne les pressions normatives, toutes les écoles déclarent que les classements ont une influence majeure sur leurs efforts d'internationalisation. Ce résultat corrobore d'autres études empiriques qui concluent à l'importance des classements pour les écoles de commerce. (p. ex., Drori et coll., 2015 ; Dubois et Walsh, 2017 ; McKiernan et Wilson, 2012 ; Wedlin, 2007).

Le choix des écoles de commerce françaises pour créer un campus international peut s'expliquer sous l'angle de l'OLI (Dunning, 1980). En ce qui concerne les avantages en matière de propriété, chaque école déclare que l'augmentation de la réputation de sa marque est l'une des principales raisons de créer un IBC par rapport à d'autres formes de modes d'entrée sur le marché. La plupart des écoles de commerce n'ont pas la même reconnaissance que les grandes écoles comme Harvard et doivent accroître leur

visibilité et leur notoriété pour rester compétitives (Guillotin et Mangematin, 2015). Les établissements d'enseignement supérieur adoptent de plus en plus de stratégies de marketing et d'image de marque pour renforcer leur notoriété sur la scène internationale (Hemsley-Brown et al., 2016). Cependant, Engwall et Kipping (2013) affirment qu'il s'agit encore plus d'accroître la notoriété de l'institution sur le marché domestique. Les entreprises de services professionnels créeront des filiales à l'étranger afin d'accroître la notoriété de leur marque (Javalgi et Grossman, 2014 ; Jensen et Peterson, 2014).

Une deuxième raison invoquée par les écoles pour créer un IBC est de développer l'état d'esprit global de leurs étudiants. Il est important pour les étudiants en commerce d'avoir un ensemble de compétences internationales afin de rester compétitifs sur le marché du travail (Acker et Bocarro, 2021 ; Nonis et coll., 2020). L'EM Normandie a également indiqué que le fait d'avoir un IBC a un effet positif sur les accréditations.

Les avantages de l'emplacement sont basés sur des partenariats clés, l'emplacement géographique et le potentiel du marché. Toutes les écoles mentionnent avoir des partenaires clés dans leurs choix d'implantation : British Study Centre pour les deux campus de l'EM Normandie, Corvinus University et Shanghai International Studies University pour l'ESSCA, et des partenaires universitaires clés pour Epsilon Business School sur leurs campus. L'ESCP, bien qu'ayant créé des IBC, a un partenaire clé avec l'Université Kominski pour son campus de Varsovie. OMNES Education ne mentionne pas de partenaires académiques clés, mais ils ont des liens avec des partenaires professionnels. Le fait d'avoir l'aide de partenaires locaux clés aide les institutions à réduire *la responsabilité de la nouveauté et la responsabilité de l'étranger* sur le marché (Cuervo-Cazurra et al., 2007). Offrir des programmes enseignés en anglais, que ce soit dans un pays anglophone ou non, est important pour toutes les écoles. Avoir des cours dispensés en anglais est un moyen de légitimer l'aspect international de l'institution (Escriva-Beltran et al., 2019). Les écoles utilisent également les avantages de l'emplacement d'une manière similaire aux « actifs acquis à l'étranger » pour construire leur réputation sur le marché national (Meyer, 2015 ; Zaheer et Nachum, 2011). L'EM Normandie, par exemple, utilise l'identité et la réputation d'Oxford comme une ressource spécifique à l'entreprise dans ses efforts de marketing.

Pour le potentiel de marché, OMNES Education a créé un campus à Abidjan pour répondre aux besoins de la demande croissante d'éducation en Afrique (Darley & Luethge, 2019). Epsilon Business School exploite le potentiel du marché chinois en disposant de deux campus dans le pays.

Il y a deux principaux avantages à l'internalisation d'avoir des IBC : Avoir un campus est plus facile à gérer que des partenariats universitaires et tous les étudiants inscrits dans l'établissement d'origine peuvent étudier sur le campus de la succursale, quel que soit leur niveau académique. Le fait d'avoir leur campus permet aux écoles de contrôler la qualité de l'offre de programmes. Bien que plus coûteux, il est moins compliqué que les accords d'échanges internationaux avec des universités partenaires (Atalar, 2020). Cela réduit également l'incertitude liée aux études à l'étranger pour les parents et les étudiants, car le campus est géré par l'établissement d'origine (Ferreira et al., 2013). Les résultats confirment la conclusion de Carton et al. (2018) selon laquelle les écoles de commerce françaises utilisent principalement leurs campus annexes pour envoyer leurs propres étudiants.

Comment les établissements d'enseignement supérieur peuvent-ils contrôler et coordonner leurs campus internationaux ?

Dans les écoles étudiées, le Comité Exécutif (COMEX) est chargé de formuler et de déterminer les initiatives stratégiques de l'école. Il établit des politiques et des procédures conformément aux directives établies par le conseil d'administration. Ces décisions sont ensuite transmises au Comité directeur (CODIR), qui supervise les opérations quotidiennes de l'établissement et veille à la mise en œuvre des politiques globales sur les campus des filiales. Ce mécanisme centralisé facilite des flux de connaissances efficaces au sein de l'organisation, comme le soulignent Zeng et al. (2023). Muzio et Faulconbridge (2013) qualifient cette approche centralisée de modèle « entreprise unique » (p. 897), où des éléments essentiels tels que la stratégie, la structure organisationnelle et les pratiques globales sont décidés par un comité de direction. Par la suite, ces décisions sont prises par les différentes filiales.

Le cadre de gouvernance des IBC maintient un lien fort avec leur institution d'origine, ce qui leur confère un certain niveau d'indépendance dans la gestion quotidienne de leurs opérations. Bien que les IBC adhèrent à la structure globale de l'établissement d'attache, les gestionnaires responsables des différents campus et programmes participent à une collaboration en réseau. Cette collaboration implique des interactions intermittentes et routinières, englobant des échanges d'informations formels et informels.

Les institutions utilisent deux formes de mécanismes de coordination : personnels et impersonnels (Harzing, 1999). Les mécanismes personnels comprennent des réseaux formels, tels que la réunion annuelle du personnel, la réunion semestrielle du corps professoral et divers groupes de travail, qui impliquent des efforts de coordination entre les directeurs de programme. Ces rencontres régulières jouent un rôle crucial dans la standardisation des échanges et l'amélioration de l'efficacité du transfert de connaissances (Palmié et al., 2016). Cela cultive un sentiment d'appartenance à la communauté et facilite une communication efficace entre les parties prenantes. Les efforts de coordination visent à établir des liens entre les campus des succursales afin d'instaurer la confiance et l'engagement entre les directeurs de campus (Martinez et Jarillo, 1989 ; Vahlne et Johanson, 2021).

Les mécanismes impersonnels englobent les lignes directrices stipulées à la fois par l'établissement d'origine et par les organismes d'accréditation tels que l'AACSB, l'EQUIS et l'AMBA. Ces lignes directrices constituent un cadre qui oblige les IBC à se conformer aux normes et aux pratiques établies, en assurant l'uniformité et la qualité dans l'ensemble de l'organisation. De plus, les évaluations individuelles de la performance, qui constituent une forme de système de récompense, sont basées sur les contributions annuelles à l'établissement. Selon Fossats-Vasselin (2021), l'alignement des objectifs de l'entreprise sur ce système de récompense apparaît comme une stratégie plus efficace pour communiquer et mettre en œuvre des changements.

En ce qui concerne l'intégration globale par rapport à la réactivité locale des campus internationaux, nous appliquons la typologie d'Edwards et al. (2014) intégrée aux catégorisations de Jarillo et Martinez (1990) et Taggart (1998).

Trois écoles poursuivent une stratégie Global Branch Campus, tandis qu'une autre institution a une stratégie Transnational Branch Campus. Il y a une école qui se situe entre ces deux approches. Dans le cadre de la stratégie Global Branch Campus, les établissements ont des campus de marque responsables de l'exécution de la stratégie et des décisions globales de l'école. Les postes de direction sur le campus d'attache et sur le campus de la succursale sont occupés par le personnel du campus d'attache, ce qui assure l'uniformité des programmes de base et de l'image de marque dans toutes les succursales. Suivant la typologie de Jarillo et Martinez (1990), ces campus adhèrent à une stratégie de *filiale réceptive*, avec seulement quelques fonctions généralement exercées dans le pays d'accueil maintenant un niveau élevé d'intégration avec l'institution d'origine. L'EM Normandie, OMNES Education et Epsilon Business School sont des exemples d'établissements qui mettent en œuvre cette stratégie.

Une stratégie de campus transnational implique une institution qui est intrinsèquement multicentrique, avec des responsabilités de leadership réparties entre le campus parent et le campus de la succursale, chacun se spécialisant dans des domaines spécifiques de l'enseignement et de la recherche. Notamment, cette approche s'écarte de la notion conventionnelle de « campus de succursale ». Selon la typologie de Jarillo et Martinez (1990), ces campus adoptent une *stratégie subsidiaire active*, car de nombreuses activités sont situées dans le pays d'accueil et sont exécutées en étroite coordination avec l'établissement d'origine.

L'ESSCA est en train de passer d'une stratégie de branche mondiale à une stratégie de branche transnationale en raison de changements organisationnels. Les changements dans l'environnement peuvent amener les institutions à passer d'une stratégie à une autre (Bartlett et Ghoshal, 1987).

Quels sont les apports des campus internationaux pour les établissements d'enseignement supérieur ?

Pour les cinq écoles, il y a deux effets principaux des campus annexes sur leurs établissements d'origine. Tout d'abord, il y a une influence positive sur l'image et la réputation de l'établissement d'origine, ce qui est crucial pour attirer les étudiants, les professeurs, les financements et les collaborations. Une solide réputation améliore également la qualité globale de l'éducation et la réussite post-diplôme des étudiants (Amado Mateus et Juarez Acosta, 2022). La concurrence intense entre les établissements d'enseignement supérieur pour attirer les étudiants et les ressources a incité beaucoup d'entre eux à investir massivement dans la construction et le maintien de la réputation de leur marque (Lafuente-Ruiz-de-Sabando et al., 2018 ; Wilkins et Huisman, 2014).

Deuxièmement, il y a un effet bénéfique sur les agences d'accréditation et les systèmes de classement. La réputation positive cultivée par les campus internationaux joue un rôle dans l'influence des classements et des accréditations (Haas et Unkel, 2017). Les classements influencent fortement la réputation internationale d'une école (Dubois et Welch, 2017).

En ce qui concerne la performance financière des IBC, la majorité d'entre eux fonctionnent à perte et dépendent des subventions de l'établissement d'origine. Les institutions prévoient généralement un délai de cinq à 10 ans pour atteindre le seuil de rentabilité de leurs IBC, et jusqu'à ce moment-là, des pertes substantielles peuvent être subies (Wilkins, 2021). Girdzijauskaite et al. (2019a) suggèrent que l'utilisation

des IBC comme mode d'entrée sur les marchés étrangers vise davantage à renforcer la force de la marque institutionnelle qu'à générer des revenus immédiats.

En conclusion, les motivations des établissements d'enseignement supérieur dans la création de campus à l'international se concentrent sur cinq écoles de commerce françaises. Les pressions coercitives, mimétiques et normatives, y compris la demande des étudiants et les exigences d'accréditation, motivent la décision de s'internationaliser. Les écoles visent à améliorer la réputation de la marque, à favoriser un état d'esprit mondial chez les étudiants et à tirer parti des avantages de l'emplacement grâce à des partenariats clés et à des programmes en anglais.

Le contrôle et la coordination des IBC sont similaires entre les cinq écoles. Le Comité exécutif (COMEX) formule les initiatives stratégiques, et le Comité directeur (CODIR) supervise les opérations quotidiennes, en utilisant un modèle centralisé de « société unique ». Les mécanismes de coordination font appel à des réseaux personnels, à des réunions formelles et au respect des lignes directrices des organismes d'accréditation. La dichotomie entre l'intégration et la réactivité est discutée, avec trois écoles poursuivant une stratégie Global Branch Campus, une adoptant une approche Transnational Branch Campus, et une autre effectuant une transition entre les deux en raison de changements organisationnels.

Deux effets principaux des IBC sur l'établissement d'origine sont identifiés : l'amélioration positive de l'image et de la réputation de l'établissement d'origine, cruciale pour attirer diverses parties prenantes, et une influence bénéfique sur les systèmes d'accréditation et de classement. Malgré les défis financiers, les IBC sont considérés comme un investissement à long terme dans le renforcement de la présence de la marque institutionnelle plutôt que comme une source de revenus immédiats. Cette étude donne un aperçu des multiples aspects de la décision des établissements d'enseignement supérieur de créer des CIB, de leurs mécanismes de coordination et des effets qui en résultent sur l'établissement d'origine.

Implications théoriques

Notre recherche a plusieurs implications théoriques qui seront discutées dans les paragraphes suivants.

Tout d'abord, il ajoute des preuves empiriques à la compréhension de l'internationalisation des écoles de commerce, répondant à un appel de Klarin et al. (2021) pour plus d'études sur le sujet. Les chercheurs se demandent si l'expansion internationale affecte la qualité et la valeur du programme d'études d'une école. En raison des lignes directrices mises en place par les cinq établissements étudiés pour cette recherche, ainsi que des réglementations établies par les organismes d'accréditation, l'expansion ne semble pas avoir d'impact sur la qualité de l'offre des écoles.

Une grande partie de la recherche sur les IBC est fournie dans la littérature grise, comme les rapports publiés par des organismes gouvernementaux et de réglementation, des établissements d'enseignement supérieur ou des organisations non gouvernementales. Cette documentation est souvent difficile d'accès parce qu'elle est confidentielle ou qu'elle doit être payée pour obtenir une récupération sécurisée (Wilkins,

2021). Cette étude empirique ajoute des informations pertinentes sur les campus internationaux et répond à l'appel à davantage de recherches sur le sujet (Escriva-Beltran, et al., 2021).

Il est nécessaire de mieux comprendre les établissements d'enseignement supérieur en tant qu'entreprises de services professionnels et leurs efforts d'internationalisation (Czinkota et al., 2009 ; Javalgi et Grossman, 2014 ; Paul et Feliciano-Cestero, 2021). La littérature sur le choix des modes d'entrée sur le marché pour les entreprises de services professionnels est limitée (Suseno et Pinnington, 2018). Il est nécessaire d'effectuer davantage de recherches sur l'internationalisation des entreprises de services professionnels qui ne sont pas des organisations basées aux États-Unis (Meyer et Su, 2015). Cette étude explore cinq écoles de commerce françaises et leur choix de l'investissement direct étranger comme mode d'entrée sur le marché via la création de campus internationaux, comblant ainsi les lacunes susmentionnées.

La recherche permet de mieux comprendre la coordination intraentreprise entre plusieurs filiales d'une même entreprise (p. ex., Athreye et al., 2014 ; Boussebaa, 2015). Des entretiens ont été menés avec des managers de 17 campus d'agences créés entre 1973 et 2019 appartenant à cinq écoles de commerce françaises : l'EM Normandie, l'ESCP, l'ESSCA, OMNES Education et Epsilon Business School.

Les théories couramment utilisées dans la recherche sur les affaires internationales doivent être davantage appliquées dans l'étude des campus internationaux (He et Wilkins, 2018 ; Sham et Huisman, 2012). Cette analyse utilise l'isomorphisme institutionnel, le paradigme OLI et le cadre I-R pour explorer les relations entre les établissements d'enseignement supérieur et leurs campus internationaux. L'isomorphisme institutionnel met en évidence les pressions exercées sur les écoles de commerce françaises pour qu'elles s'internationalisent, notamment par les agences d'accréditation ; les parties prenantes internes et externes telles que les élèves, les parents et les entreprises ; ainsi que des systèmes de classement. Les avantages de propriété sont liés à l'augmentation de la réputation de la marque de l'établissement, ainsi qu'à l'acquisition par les étudiants d'un ensemble de compétences nécessaires pour travailler dans le domaine de la gestion internationale. Les avantages de l'emplacement comprennent le fait d'avoir des partenaires locaux clés, l'apprentissage basé sur l'anglais et le potentiel de marché. La facilité de gestion par rapport aux universités partenaires et la possibilité d'envoyer tous les étudiants quel que soit leur niveau académique résument les avantages de l'internalisation pour créer un IBC. Le cadre I-R (Bartlett et Ghoshal, 1989) met l'accent sur le niveau d'adaptation du campus de la branche internationale dans le pays d'accueil. Cette question est explorée à l'aide de la typologie décrite par Edwards et al. (2014) et combinée à celles fournies par Jarillo et Martinez (1990) et Taggart (1998). À notre connaissance, c'est la première fois que ces typologies sont appliquées ensemble dans une étude empirique.

Trois écoles, à savoir l'EM Normandie, OMNES Education et Epsilon Business School, poursuivent une stratégie Global Branch Campus. Cette approche implique la mise en place de campus de marques dans le monde entier. Fonctionnant dans le cadre d'une stratégie de filiales réceptives, ces campus maintiennent un haut niveau d'intégration avec l'établissement d'origine, avec seulement quelques fonctions généralement exercées dans le pays d'accueil. L'ESCP utilise une stratégie de campus transnational car il s'agit d'une institution multi-sites avec des responsabilités de leadership réparties entre

le campus parent et le campus de la succursale. Les campus de l'ESCP suivent une stratégie de filialisation active, avec de nombreuses activités situées dans le pays d'accueil et exécutées en étroite coordination avec l'établissement d'origine. En particulier, l'ESSCA est en train de passer d'une stratégie de branche mondiale à une stratégie de branche transnationale, reflétant des changements organisationnels et une évolution de son approche de l'expansion mondiale.

La coordination des campus internationaux a été examinée à l'aide de mécanismes de coordination personnels et impersonnels (Harzing, 1999). Les mécanismes personnels comprennent les réunions annuelles avec le personnel et le corps professoral, la coordination des programmes et les échanges informels. Les mécanismes impersonnels comprennent les règlements et les lignes directrices fournis par l'établissement d'origine et les organismes d'accréditation, ainsi que les évaluations individuelles du rendement.

Contributions méthodologiques

La méthodologie appliquée s'appuie à la fois sur le siège (établissement d'origine) et sur la filiale (campus internationaux) afin d'obtenir une compréhension approfondie du phénomène. Cette approche a déjà été adoptée dans le cadre de recherches antérieures sur le commerce international (p. ex., Beddi, 2012 ; Chung et al., 2014) et est utile pour mener des activités transfrontalières de multinationales.

Nous avons utilisé une approche analytique d'appariement de modèles pour analyser nos données (Yin, 2018). Notre analyse a consisté à comparer les modèles empiriques avec ceux théoriquement attendus, tels qu'ils sont décrits dans la revue de la littérature, et exprimés par les participants à nos entrevues d'étude. Tout d'abord, nous avons importé toutes les transcriptions d'entretiens dans NVivo, nous avons catégorisé les transcriptions individuelles en cas et codé chacune d'entre elles en fonction des modèles de réponse des acteurs. Les codes émergents ont ensuite été organisés en sous-thèmes, formant finalement les thèmes généraux de l'étude.

Trois thèmes clés ont été identifiés : 1) l'identité et le contexte de l'entreprise, 2) le campus international de la succursale et ses relations, et 3) les contributions du campus de la succursale à l'institution. Le premier thème englobait des éléments liés à la structure organisationnelle, à la stratégie internationale et aux motivations de l'internationalisation. Les données codées sous ces codes visaient à nous aider à comprendre les principales motivations des écoles à s'internationaliser, tant du point de vue du campus d'origine que des campus internationaux. Cela a permis de voir s'il y avait une divergence entre les points de vue des gestionnaires de l'établissement d'attache et des campus des filiales. Cela a également permis d'aborder l'aspect d'isomorphisme institutionnel de notre cadre conceptuel.

Le deuxième thème, axé sur les campus internationaux, comprenait des sous-thèmes tels que le programme d'études de l'IBC, le choix de l'emplacement et les risques et avantages perçus. Cela nous a aidés à comprendre les avantages de l'OLI et l'intégration mondiale par rapport à la réactivité locale des campus internationaux (Bartlett et Ghoshal, 1989 ; Dunning, 1980 ; Edwards et coll., 2014 ; Jarillo et Martinez, 1990 ; Taggart, 1998).

De plus, nous avons exploré des sous-thèmes concernant les relations entre le IBC et le campus d'origine, les connexions entre les IBC et le rôle du IBC dans le réseau local. Cela a permis d'identifier les différents mécanismes de coordination utilisés au sein de l'institution (Harzing, 1999)

Le troisième thème portait sur la contribution du CIB à l'institution, en examinant les sous-thèmes liés aux résultats et aux recommandations. Cela a permis de mieux comprendre les effets du IBC sur l'établissement d'attache.

Au cours de la phase subséquente de l'analyse des données, nous avons effectué une lecture horizontale de chaque question afin d'éclairer les données de chaque catégorie, en tenant compte des divers points de vue des gestionnaires du campus d'attache et du IBC. Tout au long du processus, les codes initiaux ont été affinés et de nouveaux ont émergé. Des thèmes communs ont été identifiés et recoupés entre les cinq établissements de cas. Enfin, nous avons comparé les preuves empiriques avec la théorie existante pour construire une interprétation théorique du phénomène étudié.

La recherche menée répond à un appel à la nécessité de disposer de plus de données empiriques sur les IBC (p. ex., Escrivá-Beltrán et al., 2019 ; Wilkins, 2021) D'un point de vue méthodologique, afin de mieux comprendre comment les établissements d'enseignement supérieur gèrent les relations avec leurs campus internationaux, nous avons inclus des questions spécifiques dans le guide d'entretien et nous nous sommes entretenus avec plusieurs responsables des différents sites afin d'obtenir des informations à la fois du point de vue de l'établissement d'origine et du campus de la succursale. L'étude menée montre l'intérêt de comprendre les relations entre les établissements d'enseignement supérieur et leurs campus internationaux dans une perspective de commerce international.

Contributions managériales

Notre recherche a plusieurs implications managériales pour les établissements d'enseignement supérieur qui envisagent ou exploitent actuellement de tels campus.

Les institutions devraient évaluer soigneusement les motivations de la création de IBC, en tenant compte des différentes pressions isomorphes auxquelles elles sont confrontées pour s'internationaliser (DiMaggio et Powell, 1983). Comprendre les facteurs spécifiques, tels que la demande des étudiants et les exigences d'accréditation, peut éclairer la prise de décisions stratégiques. Les gestionnaires doivent reconnaître l'impact des IBC sur l'image et la réputation de l'établissement d'attache, les gestionnaires donnent la priorité aux stratégies de gestion de la marque s'ils envisagent de créer un IBC. Investir dans le marketing, l'image de marque et l'assurance qualité peut contribuer à des perceptions positives, en attirant les étudiants, les professeurs et les collaborations.

Reconnaissant l'influence des IBC sur les résultats en matière d'accréditation et de classement, les établissements devraient harmoniser leurs stratégies en matière de GRC avec les exigences des organismes d'accréditation. Cela implique de maintenir des normes de qualité élevées et d'adapter les programmes pour répondre aux exigences d'accréditation internationales.

Étant donné que de nombreux IBC fonctionnent à perte au départ, les institutions devraient s'engager dans une planification financière approfondie (Wilkins, 2021). L'établissement d'un budget sur une période réaliste, par exemple de cinq à dix ans, est essentiel pour atteindre la viabilité financière. Il est également essentiel d'élaborer des stratégies pour minimiser les pertes au cours de la période initiale. Les gestionnaires doivent comprendre les raisons de la création des IBC. Mettre l'accent sur les avantages de propriété, tels que l'amélioration de la réputation de la marque, et tirer parti des avantages de l'emplacement par le biais de partenariats stratégiques peut contribuer au succès des initiatives du IBC. D'où l'importance de favoriser un état d'esprit global chez les étudiants, les établissements devraient intégrer des perspectives mondiales dans leurs programmes d'études. Il s'agit de concevoir des programmes qui offrent des expériences internationales, préparant les étudiants au marché du travail mondial.

Il est essentiel de mettre en place des mécanismes de coordination efficaces entre l'établissement d'origine et les IBC. La mise en œuvre d'une structure de gouvernance centralisée, comme on le voit dans le modèle « entreprise unique », peut faciliter l'efficacité des flux de connaissances et l'uniformité entre les campus. Les établissements doivent rester capables de s'adapter aux changements dans le paysage mondial de l'éducation. Il s'agit notamment de s'adapter à l'évolution des exigences en matière d'accréditation, aux demandes du marché et aux tendances générales en matière d'éducation. Les stratégies de gestion du changement sont essentielles, en particulier lors de la transition entre différentes stratégies IBC.

Les institutions doivent explorer le potentiel du marché de manière stratégique lorsqu'elles choisissent l'emplacement des IBC. L'identification des partenariats clés, la compréhension des demandes du marché local et l'offre de programmes en anglais peuvent améliorer l'attractivité et le succès des IBC.

Les gestionnaires doivent adopter une perspective à long terme lorsqu'ils évaluent le succès des IBC. Reconnaissant que les avantages, tels que l'amélioration de la réputation de la marque, peuvent prendre du temps à se matérialiser, les institutions devraient rester engagées dans leurs stratégies d'internationalisation.

Les implications managériales de la recherche sur les campus internationaux soulignent l'importance de la planification stratégique, de la gestion de la marque, de la viabilité financière, du développement de l'état d'esprit mondial, de la coordination efficace et de l'adaptabilité pour assurer le succès de ces initiatives dans le paysage dynamique de l'enseignement supérieur.

Cette étude examine les motivations qui sous-tendent l'implantation de campus internationaux au sein des établissements d'enseignement supérieur, en mettant l'accent sur cinq écoles de commerce françaises. La décision d'internationaliser est motivée par des pressions isomorphiques, notamment la demande des étudiants et les exigences d'accréditation. Les objectifs de ces écoles comprennent l'amélioration de la réputation de la marque, la promotion d'un état d'esprit mondial chez les étudiants et la capitalisation des avantages de l'emplacement grâce à des partenariats stratégiques et à des programmes de langue anglaise. La coordination des IBC par les cinq écoles suit une structure similaire. Le Comité exécutif (COMEX) formule les initiatives stratégiques, tandis que le Comité directeur (CODIR) supervise les opérations quotidiennes à l'aide d'un modèle centralisé « d'entreprise unique ». Les mécanismes de coordination englobent les réseaux personnels, les réunions formelles et le respect des lignes directrices des organismes d'accréditation. L'étude explore également la dichotomie entre l'intégration et la réactivité, avec trois écoles poursuivant une stratégie Global Branch Campus, une adoptant une approche Transnational Branch Campus et une autre subissant une transition en raison de changements organisationnels.

Deux effets principaux des IBC sur l'établissement d'origine sont identifiés : une amélioration positive de l'image et de la réputation de l'établissement d'origine, cruciale pour attirer diverses parties prenantes, et un impact bénéfique sur les systèmes d'accréditation et de classement. Les IBC sont considérés comme un investissement à long terme dans le renforcement de la réputation de la marque institutionnelle plutôt que comme une source de revenus. Les résultats de cette étude fournissent des informations précieuses sur les processus décisionnels complexes, les mécanismes de coordination et les effets globaux des campus internationaux sur les établissements d'enseignement supérieur.

Cette étude empirique apporte de précieuses connaissances théoriques, méthodologiques et managériales au domaine des campus internationaux, répondant à l'appel à davantage de recherches sur le sujet (Escriva-Beltran, et al., 2021).