

UNIVERSITY OF VAASA
FACULTY OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Irina Helskyaho

**ORGANISATION OF INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS IN FINNISH
UNIVERSITIES**

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UNIVERSITY OF VAASA**Faculty of Public Administration**

Author:	Irina Helskyaho	
Master's Thesis:	Organisation of International Affairs in Finnish Universities	
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ABSTRACT:

Organisations are in many ways the basis for the modern society and they relate to most spheres of life. Public, private and social organisations have long been objects of research in the field of commercial and administrative sciences as well as sociology. A distinguished character of organisations, since the last decades, has been internationalisation, brought about by globalisation. As in many organisations, internationalisation has also become a fundamental function of universities and other institutions of higher education. In recent years the study of internationalisation of higher education institutions has gained more interest and the field is established as a theme of research.

The aim of this research was to discover the different ways international affairs are organised in Finnish universities and to find out the factors affecting the organising. Also the challenges and their effect on international affairs were examined. The research subject was approached through exploring the core functions of organisations: coordination, control, decision-making and communication. These four became evident in studying organisation theories as well as the objectives of the organisations within universities promoting internationalisation.

The research is qualitative in nature since it examines emergence of certain processes, aims at describing things and looks for patterns and diversity. The study was conducted by examining literature on organisation theories, publications and previous research on internationalisation of higher education institutions, general and internationalisation strategies of Finnish universities as well as by interviewing directors of international affairs of 16 universities.

The central findings of the study were the types of coordination, control, decision-making and communication as well as the major factors and challenges effecting the organisation of international affairs. Internationalisation can be coordinated in four ways: as centralised, decentralised, with tendencies to centralise or with tendencies to decentralise. It became evident that there are several internal (structural and procedural) and external control systems in use. Decision-making in universities is juridical-administrative in nature, functionaries make proposals and the rector is the official decision-maker. The different means of communication in international affairs are formal and informal in nature and used in the communication with the exterior and interior of the organisation. The main factors affecting organisation of international affairs are: size and complexity, restricted resources, networks, laws and regulations, and the nature of the organisation and the field. Fundamental challenges in the field were related to decrease in numbers of outgoing exchange students, housing issues in some cities, and balancing between the workload and resources. Also administrative changes such as coalescence of universities and changes in the Universities Act create challenges in organising international affairs.

Internationalisation can be organised in different ways depending on the factors affecting the organisation. The field is dynamic, growing and changing, therefore it is essential to explore different ways of organising the international affairs and acknowledge the influential factors.

KEYWORDS: Organisation, Internationalisation, University

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Why Study Organisations in the Field of Internationalisation of Universities?

Organisations are social units or entities that are put together for a certain purpose, and in which a group of people work in cooperation, under a common code to reach set goals (Etzioni 1964; March & Simon 1966: 4; Hall 1977; Salminen 2002, 2004; Scott 2003). In many ways the direction of and changes in the society are determined by public, private and social organisation that affect all sectors of contemporary social life. Therefore, organisations play a significant role in the society. (Hall 1977: 3; Scott 2003: 1).

We are born in and educated by organisations in which most of us later on work. Even death and burial are dealt with in organisations. A state is an organisation as well as any social association, e.g. sports clubs and religious communities. The society is dense with organisations and most of the functions of a community are impossible to envision as non-organised operations. Furthermore, features of a modern society such as democracy, high standard of living and level of culture would not endure, nothing would really happen without an organisational basis. (Simon 1957: xv; Etzioni 1964: 1–2; March & Simon 1966: 2; Tannenbaum 1968: 3; Hall 1977: 3–7, 11; Kahn & Katz 1978: 2.)

Study of organisations has been and still is important in the field of commercial sciences, administrative sciences and sociology. Many theories have been established and research carries on. (Simon 1957, Etzioni 1964, March & Simon 1966, Olsen 1968, Hall 1977, Weber 1978, Scott 1995, 2003; Salminen 2002, Pollitt & Bouckaert 2004.) Modern society relies on organisations and organisations require examination, definition and classification in order to grow, develop and change. A distinguished character of organisational change in the last decades of the 20th century and the beginning of the new millennium has been Internationalisation. (Pollitt & Bouckaert 2004: 2.) Globalisation forces and enables organisations to act internationally. Hedley (2002: 5) summarises globalisation as follows:

“Globalisation is a complex set of human forces involving the production, distribution/transmission, and consumption of technical, economic, political and socio-cultural goods and services which are administratively and technologically integrated on a worldwide basis.”

Acting internationally is more specifically said, acting with or among different nations (Oxford English Dictionary 2008).

One of the areas of organisational research is the public sector organisations and public administration. In Many countries some, and in Finland all universities are public organisations and research on universities or institutions of higher education in general is its own field. Higher education research in Europe has been rather unstable and insignificant, but growing over the last three or four decades. As a research field higher education is interdisciplinary. It can have for example a pedagogic, psychological, sociological, economical or historical approach and the field can be analysed with the help of disciplines such as business studies, law and political science. As there are many disciplines, are there many phenomena in the field of higher education to focus on. (Teichler 2003: 47–48.) In this research a particular phenomena, internationalisation of universities is approached through organisational studies (both public and private organisations), focusing on the core functions of organisations.

Concern over the international cooperation and internationalisation of universities has long been rather minor, but in recent years has gained more interest in Europe and other parts of the world. Associations and organisations such as the International Association of University Presidents (IAUP), the Academic Cooperation Association (ACA), European Association for International Education (EAIE), Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) and especially its programme on Institutional Management in Higher Education (IMHE), the European Union (EU), all has as a main goal or as one of the purposes the internationalisation of higher education and as a result does research, produces information and directions, creates strategies and so on (Wächter, Ollikainen & Hasewend 1999: 11, OECD 1999).

IAUP is an association of university chief executives from higher education institutions around the world, established in 1964, the purpose of which is to increase the quality of

education in the higher education institutions and strengthen internationalisation, in order to promote global awareness, competence, peace and international understanding in an increasingly interdependent world (International Association of University Presidents 2006). ACA is an independent European organisation, founded in 1993, dedicated to management, analysis and improvement of higher education in Europe and between Europe and other parts of the world (Academic Cooperation Association 2008). EAIE is a non-profit organisation, aim of which is the stimulation and facilitation of the internationalisation of higher education in Europe and around the world. IMHE is an international forum for higher education institutions that enables them to handle the challenges of e.g. internationalisation. It serves policy-makers in national and regional authorities, managers of higher education institutions, and researchers. (OECD 1999.) The European Union has common goals regarding the future of the educational systems in the EU Commission and created an agenda on reaching the goals.

Internationalisation has been a growing trend and has to some extent become an axiom for universities. Higher education has become commercial over the past decade and both creating an international studying and research environment and conditions as well as providing doors for the individuals to gain international experiences has become an important asset of universities. Turning universities into globally acting institutions is nowadays often the focus of the leaders of universities and the policy makers in the field. (Söderqvist 2002: 14; Kehm 2003: 110.)

Higher education institutions have become according to Sadlak (referred to in Söderqvist 2002: 15) central elements of modern society and their role has become to be determinants of social, cultural and economic relationships. Some new aspects and orientations have thus arisen in the purpose and functioning of universities, internationalisation being the main focus in this research. All of the Finnish universities are introduced strongly international and further internationalisation is an objective of most of them. Internationalisation is well established in the strategies of Finnish universities and creation of a national internationalisation strategy for higher education institutions is one of the objectives of the Ministry of Education in 2008. (Ministry of Education 2008b.) Internationalisation is described as one of the core objectives of development, and as one

of the cornerstones of the strategy in several Finnish universities, or as one of the basic values of the university (University of Tampere 2006; University of Vaasa 2007; University of Helsinki 2008b; University of Joensuu 2008b; University of Jyväskylä 2008c; University of Turku 2008a.) Some research and writings on internationalisation of Finnish universities, its present state and anticipated future have also been produced (Söderqvist 2002; Lammi 2003; Michelsen 2004).

Some of the previous research on internationalisation of higher education has aimed for example at analysing different understandings of higher education internationalisation concepts, and different understandings of managing it through education policies, as well as business, management and organisation research (Söderqvist 2002: 21). Aims of previous research have also been examination of strategic thinking and implementation of strategies (general and internationalisation) in universities. In the following chapter the aims of this study are presented along with the methods of doing it.

1.2. The Objectives and Method of the Research

The main objective of the research is to examine:

- How the international affairs are organised in the Finnish universities and what factors affect the organising?
- What are the internal and external factors affecting the different ways of organisation and what are the challenges and their effect in the organisation of international affairs in the universities?

Four core functions of organisations form the theoretical basis for the analysis of the international affairs of the 16 Finnish universities. The research will concentrate on the administrative functions of the international affairs.

There are 20 universities in Finland (Universities Act 1:1). For the purpose of this research some basic information about the universities was gathered, in order to get a picture of their size, the number of students, staff and faculties was indicated. The ex-

tent of internationalisation operations is presented in figures of international student and staff mobility, and the number of staff working fulltime for the internationalisation of the university. Two universities with notably smaller scale of internationalisation were left out of the research group. In both of them the numbers of students going abroad or coming in as exchange students were between nine and twenty-three per year and there were only around thirty international degree students. Two of the 18 universities contacted were unable to take part in the research. Therefore, the total number of universities examined in this research is 16. The key numbers of the 20 Finnish universities are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Finnish Universities in Numbers.

	Faculties (present)	Students (2007)	Staff (2006)	Staff Work- ing Fulltime on International Affairs (present)	Incoming/ Outgoing Exchange Students (2007)	International Degree Students (2007)
Uni Helsinki	11	38365	7707	10 to 15	849/797	1233
Uni Turku	6	16204	3000	14	283/356	262
Uni Oulu	6	15793	3000	11	442/268	296
Uni Tampere	6	15725	2200	9	388/352	407
Helsinki Univ. of Technology	4	14535	3700 (2007)	13,5	358/287	783
Uni Jyväskylä	7	13748	1264	11	379/480	333
Tampere Univ. of Technology	5	11850	1900	14	405/206	314
Uni Joensuu	8	8328	1400	9	220/210	230
Åbo Akademi	7	6662	1206	-	201/168	341
Uni Kuopio	5	6229	1762	6,5	151/111	133
Lappeenranta Univ. of Technology	3	5784	900	8,5	165/148	174
Uni Vaasa	4	5055	464	7	163/184	162
Uni Lapland	5	4742	650	6,5	215/137	81
Helsinki School of Economics	-	4276	487	7	228/253	153
Turku School of Economics	5	2473	328	2	125/124	27
Swedish School of Economics and Business Administration	-	2465	218	-	95/114	167
Univ. of Art and Design Helsinki	6	1900	469	5	144/71	152
Sibelius Academy	-	1475	380	3	68/52	133
The Theatre Academy	-	425	129	-	9/11	20
Finnish Academy of Fine Arts	-	272	65	-	23/14	33

The sources for the numbers in Table 1 are the Ministry of Education's KOTA-database, the websites of different universities and the interviews (Tampere University of Technology 2007; The Theatre Academy 2007; Åbo Akademi University 2007; Finnish Academy of Fine Arts 2008; Helsinki School of Economics 2008; Helsinki University of Technology 2008; Lappeenranta University of Technology 2008; Ministry of Education 2008a; Sibelius Academy 2008; Swedish School of Economics and Business Administration 2008; Turku School of Economics 2008; University of Art and Design Helsinki 2008; University of Helsinki 2008a; University of Joensuu 2008a; University of Jyväskylä 2008a; University of Kuopio 2008a; University of Lapland 2008; University of Oulu 2008; University of Tampere 2008; University of Turku 2008b; University of Vaasa 2008a).

The research is qualitative in nature. Qualitative research examines the emergence of processes, aims at describing things and looks for patterns and diversity in different phenomena. It brings out the meanings of specific behaviour and its context as well as enables the observation of different influences. (Hirsjärvi & Hurme 2000: 25–27.)

Because the aim of the research is to find out what contributes to the way, and how international affairs are organised in Finnish universities, a qualitative method is suggested. Another reason for choosing to make qualitative research is that the research subject is composed of a rather small, thus well manageable, number of universities. The number of universities was small enough to conduct the research by interviewing international relations officers of each university, yet great enough to give plenty of empirical data for reaching the aim of the research. In addition to making interviews the research is carried out by examining the literature and previous research on organisations as well as on higher education internationalisation. The literature is the basis for the theoretical framework, which is bind together with the empirical part by thoroughly analysing the interviews.

The directors of international relations of each university were approached by mail and contacted by phone. As mentioned before 16 out of the 18 were able to take part in the research. The 16 directors of international affairs were interviewed by telephone and the

interviewees were able to get acquainted with the questions well in advance. The interview consisted of 14 questions regarding the organisation of international affairs, factors affecting and guiding the operations and challenges of international affairs (see Appendix 1). The questions were related to the coordination of work, structure of the organisation, networks and partners in cooperation, means of communication, limiting and causative factors of the different operations as well as the monitoring of functions.

Structurally, after the introduction, in chapter two the four core functions of organisations are defined. The works of numerous organisation theorists are examined in order to introduce the theoretical framework of the research. Previous research on organisations in general as well as on public and private organisations particularly are acknowledged. Different types or implications of each function (coordination, control, decision-making and communication) as well as the factors affecting them or being impetus to are explored. Also the actual process of each function is presented. Chapter three leads to the exploration of the four core functions in the context of internationalisation of Finnish universities. Before closer examining processes of organisations and their embodiment in the organising of internationalisation in Finnish universities, it is well in place to define the terms organisation and internationalisation in the context of higher education. This is done in the two final chapters of the introduction.

1.3. Organisations Within Universities Promoting Internationalisation

Operations related to internationalisation of universities cover the internationalisation of teaching, students, staff and research. In most universities a unit or some quarter of the institution exists that focuses only on internationalisation of research out of all the internationalisation operations, whereas the former are often linked together as an entity of operations. The quarters that are responsible for internationalisation of research have numerous other responsibilities not related to international affairs, but the organisations carrying out the other internationalisation functions are often very much focused solely on international affairs. The internationalisation of research is ruled out of the study also because the number of incoming and outgoing researchers (and teachers) is in most uni-

versities (exception being the University of Helsinki) under 100 or even under 20 (in the smaller universities).

Although research is one of the core purposes of universities, it affects a rather small group of functionaries and members of the organisation, especially when it has an international dimension. Internationalisation of teaching and students affect a much larger group of organisation members and is dependent on cooperation with other universities, organisations and networks in Finland and abroad. It is common that there are specific units of international affairs in universities. These units often have a central role in carrying out the international affairs, but most likely they form an organisation of internationalisation with the faculties, student services and other units. (Torenbeek 2005: 1–3.)

The roles and responsibilities of the above-mentioned parts of the organisation vary between universities, but together they form an organisation that carries out the planning and implementation of internationalisation in the form of agreements and programmes, international and national networking, serving students in mobility issues, international marketing, internationalisation at home and communication of international affairs internally and externally (Torenbeek 2005: 31, 33–34, 36, 46–47, 51, 55–56).

1.4. Definition of Organisation

Hall (1972: 3) describes organisations to reach most parts of life and society. He lists social entities from sports clubs, family activities and congregations to political parties, labour unions and governmental units under the term organisation. Companies, corporations, institutions, bureaus, municipalities (Salminen 2002: 16) as well as associations and unions are organisations. Etzioni (1964: 3) in turn puts corporations, armies, schools, hospitals, churches and prisons but not tribes, classes, ethnic groups, friendship groups or families, under the definition although he also designates organisations all-embracing as social units. Olsen (1968: 84) on the contrary lists down populations, aggregations, classes, groups, families, communities, associations, networks, societies,

and confederations when presenting and discussing social organisations. Although these lists are not exclusive and the entities can be subdivided into several, more precisely defined, subtypes, it gives a good picture of what can be defined as an organisation and how large the list can be.

Several summarising definitions for organisation can be given. Salminen (2002: 16) defines organisations as groups of people or social units that are created for a certain purpose and are constantly reconstructed. Organisations are systems of cooperation that have structures for authority and work distribution, and that operate under agreed order and rules. They have boundaries that include and exclude parts of population and hierarchy is an essential element. Social relationships are the basis for organisations: the individuals inside interact together and with the individuals outside. Within an organisation there are a normative order, ranks of authority, communications systems, and membership-coordinating systems. (Hall 1972: 19, 22–23.)

Etzioni (1964: 3) explains organisations through three factors. Firstly, through division of power as well as through labour and communication responsibilities. Secondly, through existence of one or more power centres. And finally, through personnel and especially its replaceability, and removability within an organisation. These points are essential for organisations in reaching its goals as well as in controlling and directing its functions and human resources. Simon (1957: xvi) defines organisations as intricate patterns formed by relations and communications within a group of people. Specific information, assumptions, goals and attitudes arise from the patterns. They affect the decision-making, behaviour and reactions of the members of the organisation. Each member knows what to expect the others to do and can have some kind of an idea of what the others think about each other's actions and ideas.

Scott (2003: 25) views organisations from three perspectives: rational system, natural system and open system perspective, and makes three definitions. The first mentioned is a dominant perspective in the field of organisations, it guides both the academics and the practitioners (e.g. managers). Seen from rational system perspective, organisations primarily reflect the above presented definitions. They are entities of goal specificity

and formalisation. In that sense organisations can be distinguished from other types of collectives such as families, communities and social movements that do not have such exact goals and formal structures for operating. A rational system definition focuses on the distinctive features and normative structures of organisations.

Natural system definition focuses on the behavioural structures of an organisation. Organisation seen from this perspective is a collective in which people work out of common and divergent interests, take the organisation itself as a resource and are guided by personal relationships and behaviour of participants more than by the formal structures in their functions. As opposed to the previous two definitions, the third shows organisations as open systems. Viewed from an open system perspective organisations are affected by the environment. The environment shapes, supports (with personnel, other resources and information from outside), and infiltrates organisations. (Scott 2003: 25–30.) Open systems are vulnerable to influences from the environment of the organisation, and the internal management is frequently challenged with many conflicting forces from outside (Johnson 1992: 87).

Organisations can seemingly be defined as formalised and goal oriented, as social systems where behaviour of people have the biggest role, or as activities affected by and dependent on the environment. The above definitions are rather versatile. They do not distinguish public and private organisations. Although organisations can have characteristics of both private profit making and public non-profit organisations, there are some differences between them. The last-mentioned has differing features such as a legalistic and political nature, the objective of providing good service instead of making profit, relation to democratic decision-making processes, and tendency to adapt bureaucratic and formal structures. (Salminen 2002: 17–18.) Public organisations are entities of knowledge, power and will to reach certain goals. Forms of organisations vary depending on the functions they carry out but hierarchy is a basic principle of an organisation formed by people. A core of authority or leadership is essential for an organisation to be able to reach its goals. (Johnson 1992: 78, 80–81.)

Government agencies and units at state, county, municipal and local levels are public organisations (McNabb 2006: xi). They produce certain goods and/or services to the public and maintain order in the society. They have a right and duty to for example, collect taxes and compel citizens to obey laws. (Johnson 1992: 4–5.) Johnson (1992: 6–10) lists the following as purposes of public organisations: protecting lives, property and rights of the citizens, maintaining the supply of essential resources (such as energy, water, food), helping the people that can not take care of themselves, support the balanced growth of economy, promote quality of life and opportunities to succeed personally, environmental protection and support the technological and scientific development. Purposes are numerous, which make the functioning of public organisations somewhat problematic. Limited resources, legal standards, political demand and the public accountability are challenges to public organisations.

1.5. Definition of Internationalisation of Universities

Kehm (2003: 110–111) distinguishes internationalisation of higher education from Europeanisation as well as globalisation. She states that aspects of cooperation and exchange are characteristics of internationalisation, competition of globalisation and regionalism of Europeanisation. Internationalisation is wider than Europeanisation but not as wide as globalisation, but regardless of the scope they all have an effect on the processes and tasks as well as the structures, societal missions and visions of higher education institutions such as universities. Processes of internationalisation influence students, teachers, other staff members, teaching, studying and research, in other words, the core of the University. It is also in close relation with the quality development and competitiveness of the institution both in its home country and internationally.

Internationalisation of higher education means adding an international dimension to the teaching and research at higher education institutions. Activities such as student, teacher and staff mobility, creation of international curricula, organisation of foreign language tuition, recognition of degrees and credit transfer systems, creation of contacts and networks enabling the international cooperation, common quality assurance and marketing

and provision of information are parts of the process of internationalisation. (Knight 1999: 15–16; Wächter et al. 1999: 12, 25–42, 48.) Söderqvist (2002: 29) defines internationalisation of higher education institutions (HEI) as follows:

“ The internationalisation of HEI is a change process from a national HEI into an international HEI leading to the inclusion of an international dimension in all aspects of its holistic management in order to enhance the quality of teaching and research and to achieve the desired competencies. ”

Wächter, Ollikainen and Hasewend (1999: 12) note that sometimes a distinction between internationalisation and international cooperation is made. The dividing feature is the involvement of cooperation with foreign countries and universities (or other institutions of higher education). Knight (1999: 13–14) clearly distinguishes internationalisation from globalisation, although the concepts are linked together. She states that flow of technology, economy, knowledge, people, values, and ideas between countries is globalisation and affects each country differently. And internationalisation of higher education is one way a country responds, respecting the individuality of other nations, to the impacts of globalisation.

Motives for internationalisation are educational, academic, economic, cultural, social and political. Other impetus for internationalisation is for example the promotion of peace and global responsibility, regional integration and development. The need for highly educated, internationalised professionals in the employment system has risen from the increase of global cooperation and competition creates an educational motive. Students, the clients of universities want to better their opportunities in the global labour market as well as in the internationalised labour markets of their home countries.

Since the late 1990's the trend towards a higher education market with competition, in many cases reduced state funding for universities and a need to maintain a country's competitiveness has brought about economic motives to higher education. Academic motives refer to the achievement of international standards for teaching and research. This is in connection with the increased competition universities are faced with nowadays. Internationalisation can be considered as a way to promote and in some countries strengthen culture and national identity. It is also a means to revitalize, create or main-

tain communication and diplomatic relations with other countries and increase understanding differences between cultures. (Knight 1999: 17–20; Wächter et al. 1999: 15–24; van der Wende referred to in Eggins 2003: 3–8.)

2. CORE FUNCTIONS OF ORGANISATIONS AS THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

After stating the significance of organisations as the core of the society, it is in place to focus on the central functions existing in them. Luther Gulick and Lyndall Urwick have in the late 1930's, based on Henri Fayol's classifications on management principles, presented an organisational philosophy called POSDCORB. The acronym is a model representing administrative organising and summarizes the primary activities of executives in organisations. POSDCORB consist of words: planning, organising, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting and budgeting. Closer definition of the parts of the acronym will partly explain the selection of coordination, control, decision-making and communication as the theoretical basis for this research. (Harmon & Mayer 1986: 127; Salminen 2002: 12.)

Firstly, Planning refers to outlining what needs to be done and how in other words setting the goals and choosing the means to reach them. Organising refers to creation of the formal structure of authority in order to arrange, define and coordinate different units for reaching the objectives. Staffing consists of bringing in and training of the functionaries as well as of taking care of the working conditions. Directing stands for decision-making, making guidelines and rules and serving as the leader of the organisation. Coordinating is interrelation of different parts of the work and reporting refers to keeping records and doing research and inspection in order to keep liable ones informed of all the activities of the organisation. Finally, Budgeting stands for fiscal planning, accounting and control. (Gulick referred to in Harmon & Mayer 1986: 128; Salminen 2002: 12.)

Reviewing the preceding definitions with the help of further examination of the functions gives grounds for referring to organising and coordinating as coordination; to staffing, reporting and budgeting as control, to planning and directing as decision-making and to reporting as communication. Also the subject of research, the internationalisation of universities, gives reason to reducing, or better to say, connecting the terms in POSDCORB to coordination, control, decision-making and communication.

Universities' strategies and rules of procedure imply that coordination, communication and control have a vital role in internationalisation. According to for example the internationalisation strategy of the University of Vaasa (University of Vaasa 2000), internationalisation requires resources and coordination of the key actors and central operations of international affairs. Operations related to communication, such as marketing, information and public relations as well as use and expansion of information networks are listed as part of internationalisation. And partnership is established with numerous universities around the world. (University of Vaasa 2000; University of Joensuu 2007; University of Jyväskylä 2008c; University of Kuopio 2008b: 4.) Control mechanisms such as execution of evaluations, development of feedback systems, production of financial statements and annual reports are often listed in strategies (University of Jyväskylä 2004; Tampere University of Technology 2008: 14; University of Turku 2008a: 11).

Above are just a few examples of expressions of coordination, communication and control, existing in the general and internationalisation strategies of Finnish universities. Viewing the websites of the universities it becomes evident that these core functions are closely related to internationalisation functions. Coordination of internationalisation functions, internal and external communication of international affairs, international marketing, as well as controlling the financial resources allocated to internationalisation are mentioned as some of the operations of international affairs. (University of Lapland 2007; University of Jyväskylä 2008b; University of Vaasa 2008b.) The existence of strategies alone implies that decisions, regarding internationalisation has been made. The directions and aims are decided. It also becomes evident in some of the rules of procedures of universities that decision-makers in international affairs are clearly designated. In addition to the theory of POSDCORB, the strategies, rules of procedures and descriptions of international affairs support the selection of the four core functions.

In the following chapters the four core functions are examined in detail. Different types, forms or natures of each function are explored. The factors affecting or challenges related to them are established and the processes are described. Table two in the end of

chapter two concludes the theoretical framework not inclusively but gathering its central content.

2.1. Coordination

Coordination is an important duty of the management of the organisation. In brief it is interrelating various parts of the work carried out in an organisation and relating the activities of an individual or a unit to the activities of others in the organisation. Success of coordination relies on the cooperation of the members and the important duty of the management in coordination is to get the members to adopt decisions made regarding goals and plans made regarding the attainment of those goals. (Simon 1957:103, 139; March & Simon 1966: 26.)

When considering coordination in the context of public sector it can be further defined by explaining not only how are things done but also under what conditions will the actions of the different operators lead to satisfactory performance. There are various levels of social reality on which coordination takes place: intra-individual, inter-individual, intra-organisational and inter-organisational. (Kaufmann 1985: 212–213.) Elements within an organisation that can be coordinated are according to Mulford and Rogers (1982: 27) the programmes and programme development, resources, clients and recipients, and information. In the following subchapters different types of coordination, the process of coordination and the causative and limiting factors for coordination are presented.

2.1.1. Types of Coordination

There is no one single way of coordination, but it is an essential function in an organisation (Gulick 1937: 90, 97). It may be procedural or substantive in nature. Procedural coordination defines the roles of the members of the organisation, who has the authority and what are the positions of the other actors. Substantive coordination in turn defines

the actual content of the work of each member. (Simon 1957: 10, 140.) Kaufmann (1985: 213) speaks of institutional and operational coordination, or in other words of coordination by configuration of rules and coordination by mutual adjustment and interaction. These two go hand in hand. Operations and interactions are supported and to some extent dependent on institution and common rules in an organisation (Kaufmann 1985: 224).

March and Simon (1966: 160) states that there are two bases for coordination: coordination by plan and coordination by feedback. Activities can be organised according to pre-established schedules and the more stable and predictable the conditions in an organisation are the more likely it is to function relying on coordination by plan. On the contrary, the more variable and unpredictable the conditions in an organisation, the more likely it is to rely on coordination by feedback. That is coordination that encompasses transmission of new information. It is essential for an organisation to coordinate on both bases, not solely on one or the other (Kahn & Katz 1978: 517). The type of coordination used affects for example the extent of involvement of the top-level functionaries in innovation: Coordination by feedback increases and coordination by plan decreases it (March & Simon 1966: 198).

2.1.2. The Process of Coordination and the Ways to Achieve It

According to Gulick (1937: 92) coordination can be achieved by two ways: organisation and dominance of an idea. The activities are to be organised so that the superiors can give orders to subordinates, who can then be an authority to the ones carrying out various tasks and assignments. The purpose of 'dominance of an idea' is to make the staff do their work with enthusiasm and the skill they have and to make them acknowledge the central purpose of their work and the whole organisation. Communication plays a central role in coordination, in communicating the plan and the rules as well as the feedback discussed earlier. Therefore, it is necessary that centres of communication and corresponding executives exist. (Barnard 1970: 215–217.)

Coordination may also be achieved by hierarchy, network or market (Hegner 1985: 413–417; Pollitt & Bouckaert 2004: 83). Traditionally seen coordination is use of power in an organisation, in other words giving orders from the top of the hierarchy to the lower level functionaries. More informal way of achieving coordination is doing it by network and voluntary cooperation within it. This way of coordination usually works in organisations where the goals are common as well as known to all members and, where operations are small-scale and communication is easy. Coordination by market is related to the market mechanisms, especially to prices and to the relation of supply and demand. (Pollitt & Bouckaert 2004: 83.)

The actual process of coordination can become evident in two ways, as self-coordination or as a group plan. When an organisation member simply observes what the other members are doing and unprompted brings his activities into the activities of others and they work in a group but as individuals without a common plan, it can be called self-coordination. (Simon 1957: 104.) This kind of behaviour could also be referred to intra-individual coordination, which was mentioned previously. In contrast to self-coordination, group planning is a process in which several or a few members create a plan according to which everyone will work (Simon 1957: 107). This process could also be referred to inter-individual coordination. Before its implementation, the plan is communicated to the ones involved.

The process of coordination in this case consists of three elements: 1) creation of common behaviour plan to the members of the organisation, 2) communicating the plan to the participants and 3) the willingness of the members to accept guiding of their behaviour in order to operate according to the plan, in other words the acceptance of the plan. (Simon 1957: 106–108.) Units within an organisation working together towards a common goal, according to the plan and set rules can be referred to intra-organisational coordination. When two or more organisations operate collectively according to same rules and within the same task field it is the inter-organisational coordination in question. In this kind of process the organisations involved can make common plans but operate independently or use a combination of independent and joint plans and actions. (Mulford & Rogers 1982: 12.)

2.1.3. Factors Affecting Coordination

Coordination is necessary but can be problematic and limitations, such as time and complexity created by size affect it (Gulick 1937: 92; Blau & Schoenherr 1971: 90, 311–312). In small organisations the structure of authority and the goals and purposes are clear to all participants, whereas in larger organisations the lines of authority and the central purpose of the organisation can be forgotten or difficult to indicate by the functionaries. Time turns into a problem in coordination when an organisation needs to be built up or altered in a short period of time. People are creatures of habit and change of routines and rules can be difficult to adopt quickly. Building up a network of communication and control between the management and the subordinates is a key element in managing problems related to coordination. (Gulick 1937: 92–93.)

The extent of specialisation and the amount of work division in an organisation contribute to the demand of coordination. The more the subunits carry out specialised activities and the greater the division of work, the greater the need for coordination. (Hall 1972: 143–145; Kahn & Katz 1978: 110; Pollitt & Bouckaert 2004: 84–85.) Competition is another factor that affects coordination in an organisation. A competitive environment of the organisation can create a larger demand for coordination (Hall 1977: 188). March and Simon (1966: 27) list several reasons why coordination can be difficult to achieve. First, external and internal events contribute to when and how often activities are performed. Second, the necessity or appropriateness of an activity depends on the functions of the whole organisation and thirdly, all performed activities and set goals may affect other goals and activities taken on within the organisation. In other words the what and when of single activities are strongly connected to all activities performed in an organisation and these relations make the coordination more complex or even infeasible.

Coordination process between organisations (inter-organisational coordination) require according to Rogers and Click (referred to in Mulford & Rogers 1982: 57) positive attitudes towards collaboration with each other, acknowledgement of the common problem and choosing of the suitable solution and the part-taking members from the organi-

sations. Similar organisational goals and structures as well as some level of interdependency on each other's resources are preconditions of functional coordination between two or more organisations. (Mulford & Rogers 1982: 58–58.)

2.2. Control

As described before, organisations are entities in which individuals perform more or less defined activities, under certain rules and guidance, in order to reach predetermined goals. Organisation implies control, and control is something to which all the members of an organisation must adjust. When a person or a small group determines the behaviour of an individual or a group within an organisation or of an organisation as a whole, control can be referred to. In broader sense due to this simple definition, the term control is also used synonymously with terms influence, power, empowerment and exercise of supervision, which can also be to some extent defined as above. (Tannenbaum 1968: 3, 5; Barnard 1970: 223; Fineman, Sims & Gabriel 1993: 35.)

Control is, as expressed before, a central feature of organisations and one of the main functions of the management. Depending on the purpose of an organisation and its activities, the resources, outputs, processes, machinery, information and the environment are controlled, but in general in all organisations the individuals are controlled in order to assure stable and predictable performance. In the following chapter internal control systems of organisations are examined. Some of them are perhaps more typical in public organisations and paid more attention to. There are also a few external control systems characteristic of public organisations presented. In addition the impetus for control in organisations and the actual process of control are explored.

2.2.1. Mechanisms of Control

The list of forms and systems of control is rather large. Some of them are presented here and further examination is done in the following chapter. Precise prescriptions and pro-

cedures, rules and regulations, monitoring and assessing performance of the individuals in the organisation, giving feedback, sanctions as well as things perhaps more subtle such as organisational values, culture and reward structures are forms of control. Adoption of the culture and values of the organisation should ensure the willingness of the members to behave certain, common and wanted way. (Petit 1975: 65; Fineman et al. 1993: 29, 35, 240.)

Scott (2003: 309) defines control for example through structure of power and authority and lists the following as manifestations and instruments of control (some overlap to the previous may occur): administration, authority, automation, boundaries, bureaucratisation, centralisation, contracts, coordination, culture, decision premises, discipline, evaluation, formalisation, hierarchy, incentives, integration, internalisation, performance programmes, procedures, routinisation, rules, sanctions, socialisation and supervision. Most of these can be seen falling into clear categories of interpersonal, structural, procedural and humane control systems, which are further explored.

Authority is often defined as legitimate power or as an unequal relationship between the superior and the subordinates in which the subordinate accepts orders as legitimate (Fineman et al. 1993: 231; Scott 2003: 314). Emerson (referred to in Scott 2003: 309–310) sees also power as relational, although to some extent reciprocal as well as situational. Power division reflects distribution of control in an organisation. Tannenbaum and Kahn (referred to in Tannenbaum 1968: 12–14) represent there to be from little or none to a very great deal of control distributed between the hierarchical levels of the organisation. Power in the organisation is centralised when it is not independent and autonomous at the lower levels and when it is derived from the levels immediately above. Also when the functionaries are responsible to the superior level power is centralised. All the actions of the functionaries are supervised, in other words they are subject to control from the superiors. (Olsen 1968: 305–306.) On the contrary, power is decentralised when it is divided between many subunits, which all have a certain level of independency (Simon, Kozmetsky, Tyndall & Guetzkow 1954: 1; Berkley, Rouse & Begovich 1991: 80). Also when power is exercised in all directions and divided be-

tween functionaries according to their expertise, skill, knowledge and experience (Olsen 1968: 303–304), power is decentralised and little control by the superiors exists.

Both power and authority are instances of social relation and are forms of interpersonal control. Through describing the relation between power division and control in an organisation it becomes evident that in Scott's list in the beginning of chapter 2.2.1. authority, hierarchy, and supervision are interpersonal control mechanisms. Making decisions is formulation of goals and procedures that all members need to adapt to or one person or a group of people defining the activities of the other members in the organisation. In addition, often decisions are made in cooperation, exploiting the expertise of some members of the organisation. Rules are formed and discipline maintained most likely by authority. Thus, decision premises, discipline and rules are seemingly also interpersonal control systems.

Boundaries, bureaucratisation, centralisation, formalisation and integration can be seen as structural control systems. As described in chapter 1.1, organisations are social entities with boundaries which define who are the members of the organisation and what is the field it actions in. Bureaucracy is a form of organisation common for especially the public sector, since it gives a structure to accomplishing complex tasks of the modern society (Johnson 1992: 78). It is perhaps not a form of control in its entirety but it does comprise some mechanisms of it.

Some of the characteristics Weber (1978: 956–958) gives to bureaucracy imply control: for example 1) Jurisdiction of an official is fixed and taking care of the certain official affairs is tied down to rules. Also the work of the management follows somewhat stable rules. 2) Hierarchical structure in which officials serve according to their competence. 3) Management is based upon written documents as well as decisions and rules are established in written form. The last one of the three entails also formalisation in an organisation which means, briefly, that the expected behaviour (actions and reactions) of the functionaries is in written form or otherwise stable and predictable, therefore, controllable. (Piffner & Sherwood 1960: 208–209.)

Centralisation or integration as a structural control mechanism is about division of responsibilities and tasks in an organisation. Tasks are performed by one person or a small group of people, in one location and the more the actions are centralised the more they are controlled. (Olsen 1968: 305–306; Johnson 1992: 103; Torenbeek 2005: 1.) The equation is, however, not invariable. One of the factors affecting whether functions are centralised or decentralised is the size of the organisation. It is in fact so that to a certain point of growth centralisation is effective considering control, but after that point it becomes difficult for the certain group to perform the increasing amount of activities alone and for the management to control the increasing number of functionaries and their expertise. (Hall 1977: 183–184.)

Automation, contracts, coordination, performance programmes, procedures, routinisation and regulation can be viewed as procedural control systems. Coordination has its own chapter in the research and will, therefore, not be further examined here. Routinisation and automation refer closely to manufacturing and production of goods, which taken in consideration the context this research, are left unexplored. However, procedures and performance programmes are a common form of control in organisations. Strategies and process descriptions are for example ways to define the roles and duties of the organisation members.

The remaining control mechanisms in Scott's list, culture and values, incentives, internalisation, sanctions, reward structures and socialisation can be categorised as humane mechanisms. According to Scott (2003: 309) culture exists in all organisations and is in some organisations regarded as a form of control more than the more formalised control systems discussed above. These organisations rely on development of a set of common, shared and internalised beliefs and norms that all the members lean on and base their actions on. In some organisations the effect of cultural control is in fact so strong that the members are either committed to it or out of the organisation. (Peters & Waterman referred to in Scott 2003: 319; Scott 2003: 318–319, 324.) Cultural control should enhance the efficiency, productivity, innovation and service (Fineman et al. 1993: 241), thus, it should assure stability of the performance in the organisation. Public sector or-

organisations have some peculiar values, such as democracy, accountability, equity and probity that determine and control its functions (Pollitt & Bouckaert 2004: 9).

Control systems viewed above are somewhat impersonal or interpersonal. Interpersonal control can be viewed as either passive or active. Passive control describes the degree to which each hierarchical level is controlled where as active control refers to the amount of control each hierarchical level in the organisation exercises. Tannenbaum and Georgopoulos (referred to in Tannenbaum 1968: 49) propose that the amount of active control is highest at the upper levels of hierarchy, which makes control rather oligarchic in organisations. Passive control in turn tends to be greatest in the lowest levels of the organisation. There is also often more differentiation between the hierarchical levels in the amount of active control, than there is in passive control. The difference between the amount of control exercised by the higher management and the lower level functionaries is bigger than the difference in the degree of being controlled at the higher and lower levels of the organisation hierarchy. (Tannenbaum 1968: 46–49.)

2.2.2. Impetus for Control and Its Effects in Organisations

As stated before, control tends to be centralised by nature. It is exercised by one member or by a small group of members of an organisation. Robert Michels (referred to in Olsen 1968: 310, referred to in Tannenbaum 1968: 8) sees that control must inevitably become oligarchic in organisations and he states there are several reasons for it. Firstly, often rank and file members of the organisations are gratified with leaving the power to the willing and not having to deal with the problems of leadership or control over other members in the organisation. Second, in large organisation of elaborate work division, control by a group of fewer organisation members is more effective, than trying to arrange the activities so that all views of all individuals are considered. Also decisions can be made faster and more efficiently when made collectively by fewer actors at the top levels of the organisation, which is particularly important in conflict or crises situations. Third, the small group of high-level functionaries that have the power in an organisation become more or less irreplaceable because of their skill and experience, and the subordinate officers are less likely to oppose them or even deprive them of power. In other

words reluctance to exercise control, impracticality of democracy and the character and mandatory role of the leaders are impetus for oligarchy to form.

Viewing an organisation from a closed system perspective it is seen as an entity that gears its arrangements and decisions to clearly specified goals, and aims at more and more rational functioning by adhering to its goals (Hall 1972: 15–16). In closed organisations actions are appropriate and outcomes of the actions are predictable (Thompson 1967: 6), and because of the certainty of the functioning, control is somewhat unnecessary. Most organisations are, however, open systems that are open to inputs from the environment and are in fact dependent on them (Kahn & Katz 1978: 2). The environment does also generate disturbances and control is a key instrument to attain the organisational goals, the process which is dependent on the environment but can also be disturbed by it (Petit 1975: 219). The open nature of most organisations is thus a great impetus for control.

Behaviour of the organisation's members and the goals can be unified through control. In other words control creates conformance in an organisation. In addition to affecting the internal relations and activities, control is related to the external relations of the organisation. (Tannenbaum 1968: 3–4.) Tannenbaum and Kahn (referred to in Tannenbaum 1968: 12) state that distribution of control has certain effects on the members of the organisation. Although control merely by the top management is necessary for maintaining the direction and steady administration of the organisation, Tannenbaum and Kahn argue that organisational effectiveness increases if rank-and-file members have more control. If an individual is involved in decision-making of the organisation he/she is part of, his/her motivation and loyalty increase and the conditions of identification are fostered, which in turn affects the effectiveness.

2.2.3. Process of Control

Petit (1975: 65–66, 219) states that regardless of the level of organisation on which control is exercised it consists of certain basic elements: 1) Setting predetermined standards and objectives, which represents the phenomenon to be controlled. 2) Comparison

of actual and standard results with sensory devices or in a control unit. 3) Corrective actions in the action unit. By the first element Petit means tangible or intangible, vague or specific standards and objectives that everyone needs to understand. By the second element Petit refers to the fact that problems should be reported to the people in the organisation who know what to do and are able to do something about the problems. Corrective actions refer to the remedying of the factors causing problems.

Although the process of control is slightly different depending on the purpose of the organisation a basic formula of it has been created. In the Figure 1 input and output represent the predetermined standards and objectives. And during the transformation process data is gathered to enable the comparison of actual and standard results. If the actual and standard results are not the same deviations are detected and by exploiting feedback corrective actions are taken (see Figure 1). Feedback is a crucial implement in the control process. Feedback stands for information on how well things are going in an organisation, how well does the outcome correspond with the set goals. (Petit 1975: 220.)

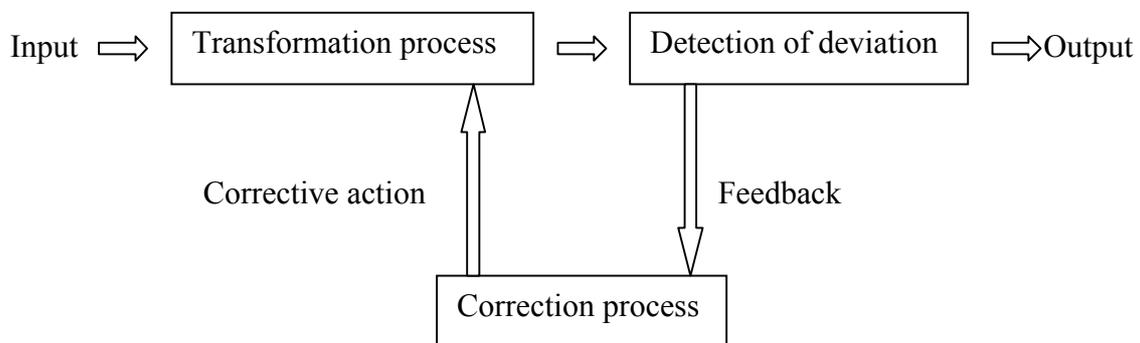


Figure 1. Simple Control Process (Petit 1975: 65).

The measurement of output, Information flow and standards are the three common problems of control presented by Johnson, Kast and Rosenzweig (referred to in Petit 1975: 221). When the functions cannot be measured it is difficult to compare the actual and planned performance, which is a basic element of the control process. If there are

imperfections in the information flows, feedback, the crucial tool in the process, is not transferring. Setting standards or control limits itself can be a problem in many organisations.

Excessive and unnecessary control can also be a problem in the control process. Sometimes actions are controlled even though there is no need for it, for example when functionaries seemingly perform a task well enough and with stability. Misused or even unused feedback creates limitations to control as well as the costs. Because feedback is the essential tool in control, underestimation of it is clearly a problem in the process of control. Control systems are not always seen very cost effective thus setting up of them is not either seen attractive. (Jones 1962: 479–481.)

2.3. Decision-making

Organisations are functional entities of which decision-making is a core function. It is the heart of Administration (Simon 1957: xlvi). It is impossible to carry out many of the other functions in an organisation such as plan, control, staff, direct, organise or perform management functions without making decisions (Denhardt 1991: 349). Making both, new decisions and decision based on previous ones, is the everyday purpose of organisations. Simply put, the process of decision-making is choosing from alternatives of solutions. (Yuill 1966: 142; Petit 1975: 58; Salminen 2002: 81.) A decision-maker is faced with different alternatives of solution for a problem and needs to choose the best one by judging the various possibilities of outcome (Weber 1993: 170). According to Kahn and Katz (1978: 447, 522) decision-making is formulation of organisational goals and procedures to reach objectives as well as routine administration. It is an aspect of organisational change and expresses leadership in the organisation.

Decision-making is a process of choice, which leads to action in an organisation. Both decision-making and actions are ongoing and necessary processes that define each other: decisions define what is to be done and how, and the effectiveness of what is done, in turn, reflects the correctness of the made decisions. (Simon 1957: 1.) Hall

(1972: 626) states that almost all positions in an organisation make some kind of decisions but the leaders are expected to make the major decision concerning the functions of an organisation. They set goals, decide with which means the goals are reached, defend the organisation from “attacks” from the outside and resolve conflicts inside the organisation.

Kahn and Katz (1978: 477–478) describe decision-making through three dimensions: level of generality or abstraction of the decision, amount of organisational space (internal and external) affected by decisions, and the duration of making the decision. They state that decision-making falls into categories of policy formulation, routine administration and ad hoc decisions. The first refers to creation of substantive goals and objectives, and the second to prescribed means and the small decisions to use them in implementing existing policies. The third refers to decisions without acknowledged implications and lack of continuity of direction of the organisation. In this chapter several types of decision-making are presented, the process of decision-making is examined and the factors that influence the process are presented.

2.3.1. The Different Natures of Decision-making

Thompson defines four types of decision-making strategies using the alternations of certainty and uncertainty, the basic variables of decision. Computational strategy is in question when there is certainty regarding both causation and outcome preferences but when there is certainty on outcome preferences but uncertainty on causation, the term judgmental strategy is used. Compromise strategy is in question when there is certainty regarding causation and uncertainty regarding outcome preferences and when there is uncertainty on both dimensions Thompson speaks of inspirational strategy in decision-making. Figure 2 presents the four types of decision issues by Thompson.

	Certainty regarding outcome preferences	Uncertainty regarding outcome preferences
Certainty regarding Causation	Computational Decision-making	Compromise Decision-making
Uncertainty regarding Causation	Judgemental Decision-making	Inspirational Decision-making

Figure 2. The Four Types of Decision Issues (adapted from Thompson 1967: 134).

According to Salminen (2002: 89–99) Computational decision-making refers to routines, compromise decisions cause limitations on maximising the benefits, and judgemental decision-making lacks information and facts needed in the process. He comments that inspirational decision-making is not rational and factual and is thus, a very unlikely form of making decisions as is the computational strategy due to the fact that it is only based on routines. The compromise and judgemental decision-making are the realistic forms of decision according to Salminen (2002: 89–90). In addition to Thompson's (1967: 134–135) types of decision-making (computational, judgemental, compromise and inspirational) strategies, there are several other types of decision-making, presented below.

Rational decision-making is goal oriented and the emphasis is on efficiency, and comprehensiveness. It calls for formal structures with high level of hierarchy, and professional management. (Salminen 2002: 78.) Simon (1957: 75–77, 240–241) describes rational decision-making as choosing from available alternatives the one that leads to reaching the organisational goals, but states that the human rationality has its limits, which together with the effects of the organisational environment, hinders the decision-making process. An individual's unconscious skills, habits and reflexes; values and conceptions of purpose; and extent of information and knowledge are limitations to ra-

tionality of the decision-maker. Because of the limitations, rational decision-making is a rather unrealistic form of decision-making.

Incremental decisions are made gradually, by making minor ones on the way. No exact goal is set, it is formed in the process. Changes and compromises are made and problems avoided on the way, in order to get a satisfactory result. (Braybrooke referred to in Kahn & Katz 1978: 496, Salminen 2002: 78.) Eight characteristics of incremental decision-making process have been listed. Firstly, the given general and political state of the organisation and its organisation are considered when making choices. Second, the variety of possible choices is considered incrementally as small changes in the present state of the organisation. Consequences are considered and the objectives are adjusted so that the means meet the ends.

A character listed fifth in the list is the transformation of the problem in the course of examining relevant data. The final three characteristics listed are the fact that incremental decision-making consists of long chains of amended choices, and the analysis and evaluation of the problem (or the matter to be decided on) by focusing on remedying a negatively perceived situation rather than on reaching some predetermined goal. Finally in incremental decision-making the analysis and evaluation of problems and possible solutions are carried out through somewhat decentralised processes in which especially public organisations include the society as well. (Braybrooke referred to in Schoettle 1968: 151.)

Mixed-scanning decision-making is, according to its name, a mix of the two previous types of decision-making (incremental and rational). It aims to distinguish basic, everyday decisions from the ones of more restricted nature. Restricted in the sense that they are smaller decisions made in order to reach the goal of the basic decisions. Avoiding the problems that might occur in rational or incremental decision-making is an attractive feature of mixed-scanning decision-making. (Salminen 2002: 79–81.) Simon (1957: 4) states that great decisions always involve minor decisions. To reach a final aim, a selection of goals needs to be set and a cluster of actions picked. The incremental decision-making presented by Salminen reflects Simon's outlook, exception being the lack of

determined goal in Salminen's approach. Both definitions pinpoint the fact that Decisions consist of many decisions and goals are reached gradually.

Torenbeek (2005: 6) describes three ways of decision-making: autocratic, consultative and democratic. The first one is in question when only one person, most likely the manager, makes the decision. Decision-making is consultative when the manager takes the responsibility of the made decision but consults the other members of the organisation concerned. The others have the possibility to express their opinion but the decision is not necessarily made accordingly. Democratic decision-making is in question when the whole group of organisation members concerned take part in the process. The majority rules even if the manager has a differing opinion.

2.3.2. Factors Affecting the Decision-making Process

The process of decision-making is complex. Facts and values are taken in notice, the consequences are measured and evaluated beforehand, and the possible affects on the organisation's environment are considered. There are several internal and external factors that affect who makes decisions and how. The structure (centralised or decentralised) and the nature (open or closed) of the organisation, individualistic and content related factors, as well as questions regarding whether the organisation is public or private affect the decision-making process.

The structures and nature of the organisation affect the decision making process. Structures provide frames (or boundaries) in which decision are made and they can be considered as means that can be altered in order to for example improve performance (Scott 2003: 36). In organisations of decentralised structure the top management delegates discretion and authority to make important decisions to the lower level officials (Simon et al. 1954: 1; Berkley et al. 1991: 80). Most decisions are in fact made at the lower levels of the organisation, or as Olsen (1968: 303) states on all levels of organisation. Decisions are made according to many, narrowly defined policies and on problems that are not covered with these policies, the personnel has discretion of. (Melcher referred to in Hall 1977: 182–183.)

Advantages of decentralised structures on decision-making are according to Simon (1957: 236–237) the fact that the “expensive hours” of the superior would be used more effectively. He states that a superior with higher level of competence is more expensive because he is likely to have a higher pay than his subordinates. Therefore, a lot of money may be saved if decisions can be made at the lower levels of the organisation. Decisions are also made quicker within decentralised structures.

In a centralised organisation most of the decisions are made at the top of the organisation. Policies, procedures and rules do however restrict the power distribution. (Hall 1977: 182; Simon et al. 1954: 1.) If the decisions are made by the operating personnel, they are guided by many, narrowly defined policies. In case of problematic decision-making, the personnel is obliged to turn to the higher level decision-makers for policy and decision clarification. In a highly centralised organisation few decisions are made by lower level personnel and governed by few, broadly defined policies. In addition most of the decisions made have to be referred to top management. (Melcher referred to in Hall 1977: 182–183.)

Advantages of centralisation on decision-making can be seen through perspective and speed. When the top management and personnel makes decisions or the decision-making of the lower level managers is guided and restricted by policies stated by the top, the organisation is considered as a whole. On the other hand in a centralised conditions the features and problems of the different divisions of the organisation may be ignored. Considering speed in decision-making, in emergencies information can be exchanged and decision made quickly in a centralised organisation. But on the negative side the normal decision process in a centralised organisation, which most likely occur more often, can suffer from delays due to the slowness of the information and order flows and the fact that the personnel is often overloaded with work. (Melcher referred to in Hall 1977: 192.)

Organisations of closed systems are entities that gear its decisions to clearly specified goals, and aims at more and more rational functioning by adhering to its goals. Elements of bureaucracy, such as the fact that decisions and rules are established in written

form and that the work of the management follows somewhat stable rules, characterise closed organisations. (Hall 1972: 15–16; Weber 1978: 956–958.) Thompson (1967: 19) states that in order for an organisation to be as rational as possible it would need to close itself from the environmental influences, which are sources of uncertainty for the system. Even though decision-making would be easier in a closed organisation, it is not possible for organisations in the modern society to be closed. A closed nature of an organisation also entails procedural concerns, for example the factor of accountability. All functions including decision-making of a public organisation should not be closed from the public. (Berkley et al. 1991: 9.)

Most organisations are open, meaning that they are open to inputs from the environment and are to certain extent dependent on them (Kahn & Katz 1978: 2). Decision-making in organisations of open nature is much more complex than in closed systems, because the environmental affects cannot be completely controlled, predicted or even known. It is simply so that in open systems a decision maker does not have enough knowledge about all the possible courses of action to know which one is the best, and he/she cannot know the long term consequences of the options he/she chooses from. The decision makers also often tend to take into notice only a limited amount of options to choose from, because of time and financial restrictions. (Petit 1975: 131–132.)

Factors that influence the individual in the process of making the decision are for example authority, organisational loyalty, call for efficiency, information and advice, and in-service or pre-service training (Simon 1957: 11–16). The personality of the decision maker and cognitive limitations, that arise from personality and situations are also individualistic factors that affect the decision-making process along with the more content related factors such as the nature of the problem and the organisational context (Kahn & Katz 1978: 487). Thompson (1967: 134–135) represents two variables that affect the decision-making process: 1) beliefs about cause/effect relations and 2) preferences regarding possible outcomes. There is either certainty or uncertainty regarding both causation and outcome preferences. Figure 1 presents the basic variables of decision by Thompson and the different decision-making strategies it embodies, presented in chapter 2.3.1.

Bozeman and Pandey (2004) present in their article the effects of decision content on the decision-making process. They state that decision processes and public managers' approach to decision-making vary according to the nature of the content. Based on the questionnaire data they obtained from public managers in state government agencies they focused on two decision content domains: information technology (of technical nature) and resource cutbacks (of political nature, which most public sector decisions are). Decision content determines 1) the number of internal and external participants in the decision, 2) the time required for the decision 3) the stability and certainty of the decision 4) the amount of red tape/bureaucracy the decision requires and 5) the decision criteria, such as cost-effectiveness, technical feasibility, fairness and usefulness.

Are decisions made in a group or solely by the leader or manager, what is the manager or leader like, and what kind of decision-making models and structures are there? The former are noteworthy questions as well as the political affectivity and purpose of the organisation, and the legal aspects and publicity in the process of decision-making. (Salminen 2002: 82.) Denhardt (1991: 376–379) presents the effects of making decisions in a group by examining the advantages and disadvantages.

Advantages of making decision in a group are the following. The amount of information and knowledge is bigger, therefore, the number of decision alternatives is larger. Taking part in the decision-making process makes the implementation of the decision smoother and the commitment to it stronger. There is also synergy and the level of riskyness or conservativeness is higher than in individually made decisions.

Disadvantages of group decision-making, on the other hand, are the following. It takes longer when more people with their knowledge and ideas are involved, it is more expensive, since the total cost of a group is bigger than the cost of only one person making the decision. A disadvantage is also “groupthink”, the opposite of synergy. Groupthink causes the effect that more emphasis is put on conformity than on making good decisions.

Public organisation can be concerned with a much larger number of questions and regulation than private organisations. Broadly said, private organisations aim for financial benefits and are of profit-making nature and public organisations are non-profit organisations aiming for efficiency with the general welfare of the public as a guideline. Public administration makes decisions on issues that affect the people's lives as individuals or a group, the use of public resources and that are made in the name of the public. (Harmon & Mayer 1986: 6.)

Different laws and purposes regulate and make the decision-making of these two types of organisations differ from each other. In administrative decisions the key question is the relationship between fact and value (Simon 1957: 7). Mäenpää (referred to in Salminen 2002: 98) notes that the administrative decision-making process should stress realisation of public interest, legality, principle of serving the citizens, and efficiency of the decision. The fact that decisions are made based on functionaries' proposals is a special characteristic of administrative decision-making, which makes the public decision-making slightly different to decision-making in private organisations. In public organisations the decisions are juridical-administrative decisions. (Salminen 2002: 99–100.)

2.3.3. The Decision-making Process in Practice

Barnard (1970: 185–186) as well as Hall (1972: 626) states that decision-making involves the end and the means to be used on order to reach the end. Salminen (2002: 83) describes decision-making process as four-part: planning and preparation, actual decision-making, implementation, control and follow-up. Denhardt (1991: 349) gives decision-making three phases: analysing the problem, generating the alternative solutions and choosing from the alternatives. The two previous recapitulations of the steps of the process similar to each other and to the list presented below but in the next subchapters the steps are presented in somewhat wider perspective.

Dewey (referred to in Kahn & Katz 1978: 487) has described four stages of problem solving, which relates to organisational decision-making. Firstly there is the immediate

demand to make a decision, secondly the type of the problem and its dimensions are analysed, thirdly alternative solutions are searched and finally the consequences of the alternatives are measured and the final choice made. The immediate demand to make decisions can derive from the top level's personal encounter with a problem, from request of other members of the organisation, or from demands coming outside the organisation. For analysing and identifying problems, organisations use the information provided by the operational intelligence and research staff of the organisation as well as of outside experts.

The search for alternative solutions begins from examining past precedents and if solution is not found, continues with examining existing policies and imposed organisational purposes. Often solutions that other organisations have found to similar problems are also viewed. Before making the final decision, the superior making the choice needs to weigh the probable costs and gains of the alternative solutions and consider the possible problems and difficulties arising from implementing the decision. All four stages may not necessarily always be involved in a decision-making process, sometimes for example the second and third stages may be skipped or paid less attention to depending on the nature of the decision to be made. (Petit 1975: 58–60; Kahn & Katz 1978: 487–493.)

Petit (1975: 138) describes the decision-making process initiating from the very question of whether a decision needs to be made? Making a decision always has a consequence and making a decision as well as implementing it needs to be weighed against the option of not doing anything. In the process of making decision regarding certain problems there is also the opportunity of postponing or delegating the problem to be solved later on or by the subordinates.

After determining that decisions need to be made the problem is analysed. In this phase of the process Petit (1975:138) puts emphasis on questions such as what are the goals the decision needs to serve, when is it effective and what is the minimum that needs to be done to solve the problem? The analysis needs to be supported by not only facts but also determination of which of the facts are relevant in making the decision. Petit also

accentuates the meaning of the attitude of the decision-maker. It is not important to consider what decision is accepted by the others in the organisation, but what decision is right. It is more significant to focus on whether the decision is effective enough than on whether it will awake resistance. The decision-maker is also faced with choosing whether the decision should maximise the benefits or minimise the losses it may cause. (Petit 1975: 139–140, 144.)

As mentioned previously, the decision-making process of public organisations differs from that of private organisations. The most central part of a juridical-administrative decision is the proposal. According to Salminen (2002: 99–100) the process is six-part: 1) institution of proceedings, 2) preparation, 3) proposal, 4) actual decision, 5) declaration and implementation, 6) follow-up. Preparation requires justification and explanation of the possible decision, consultation, as well as formulation of the actual proposal. In order to make a proposal a functionary needs consider different possible decisions. In the preparation and proposal phases the emphasis is on the functionary's proficiency, accountability and legality. The declaration and implementation (stage five) entails communication and coordination and the final phase entails control. Communication is further examined in the following chapter.

2.4. Communication

Communication is exchange of information and transmission of meaning. It is a social process, essential to any organisation and it is a principal basis for example for decision-making and coordination in an organisation. (Simon 1957: 154; Pfiffner & Sherwood 1960: 303.) Communication relates to procedural matters and substantive content. Occasions for procedural communication are e.g. initiation and coordination of both larger and smaller, day-to-day, programmed and non-programmed activities. Occasions for communication relating to substantive content are providing information for application of strategies, evoking programmes and providing data on results of activities. (March & Simon 1966: 161.) Communication is a challenging process, especially in large organi-

sations and when the movement of information is both internal and external, and happens both ways.

There are two categories of communication, formal and informal, which both will be defined and examined in this chapter. Regardless of the type, communication is a two-way process and information flows up, down and across. (Kahn & Katz 1978: 428, 440; Berkley et al. 1991: 214, 231.) As mentioned before communication and corresponding executives in the centres of it is a key element of coordination. Thus, although members at all levels of the organisation are part of the chain of communication, managing communication is one of the functions and responsibilities of the management in the formal organisation as well as in the informal organisation within. (Barnard 1970: 223–225; Denhardt 1991: 335.)

2.4.1. Formal Communication

Communication can be defined formal when it follows the hierarchical structure of the organisation and happens mostly in writing. Memoranda, letters, records, formal reports and manuals of organisation practices and procedures are examples of written communication flowing within an organisation (Simon 1957: 157). The above-mentioned written media among all kinds of messages passed on in organisations move in paper or in electronic form. Berkley, Rouse and Begovich (1991: 214) state that size and public character are factors that foster the use of formal communication.

The larger the organisation in size the more it tends to use formal communication. But why do public organisations tend to prefer formal communication? Accountability and democracy, clarity and uniformity of messages, time, comprehensiveness and accretion of understanding are advantages of formal communication. In order to ensure democracy the public and the intermediary of information (for example the press and legislators) need to be able to find out who has given orders and of what kind and documentation such as written reports provide for transparency of governmental actions.

Formal communication facilitates accountability and should hinder arbitrariness, capriciousness, favouritism and discrimination. Discrepancies and disparities of standards, criteria and directions of organisational activities can be reduced or avoided with formal communication. In written form a message is identical to all receivers and available for recheck. Formal communication is often less time consuming than informal communication. Especially in large organisations a message can simultaneously be delivered to large groups of people as opposed to if it was communicated orally through many individuals. Information in written form can be delivered by one person and at once. It would also take more of the deliverer's time if rechecks of an oral message by many individuals in the organisation were made.

Comprehensiveness is also one of the reasons why organisations may oftentimes choose formal communication over informal. Written messages are often more fully developed and all necessary information concerning the matter is included. Writing messages, memoranda and reports, in other words putting down data and ideas in writing, is useful also to the person who does it, not only to the ones who read it. Things that were missed before can be seen, previously disregarded details can be noticed, previously missed relationships and implications realised. (Berkley et al. 1991: 214–217.)

2.4.2. Informal Communication

Informal communication is based on social relations within an organisation. It is conversational, things are discussed before they are written. Simply put, out of the two basic categories of communication, formal is written and informal is oral (Simon 1957: 157; Berkley et al. 1991: 214). A great deal of issues the organisation is concerned with, are communicated informally, and it often reinforces and initiates formal communication and flow of information. A lot of information on, for example, how the organisation functions socially is passed on informally and is in fact a prerequisite for many organisations.

Especially in public (governmental) organisations communication is often based on policies that indicate to whom, when and in what form the information needs to be

given. But as described above, informal imperatives also induce communication. (Johnson 1992: 95–98.) Informal communication refers to communication of intangible facts, opinions, suggestions and suspicions, that cannot be passed through the formal communication systems (Barnard 1970: 225). In a way it can be considered a supplement to formal communication. It is natural that people discuss mutual concerns and formal information they have been given. (Simon 1957: 157; Kahn & Katz 1978: 449.)

Informal communication is, as previously mentioned, oral. Because people are dealing together directly, feedback can be given immediately, which may lead to clarification of the subject or handled issues. Face-to-face dealing allows gestures and emphasising to influence the message and receiving of the message is ensured. (Berkley et al. 1991: 220–221.) Katz and Kahn (1978: 449) also state that informal communication because of its spontaneous nature is often more gratifying, because of the lack of official censorship can be more informative, and finally is often faster than formal communication. Because informal communications system is based on social relationships in an organisation, authority roles not drawn to an organisational chart may develop. Exercise of power by these “natural leaders” as well as official authority impose organisational objectives and values on the members and informal communication plays a significant role in internalising them.

Informal communication is a means of maintaining attitude of friendliness and cooperation, which in turn contributes to efficiency of an organisation. Some negative features relate to informal communication as well. Informal communication channels can be used to advance personal aims, small groups that build up own networks of communication in order to gain or remain so called silent power, may be formed. Grouping may cause competition between members of the organisation, which in turn results in bad and unfriendly atmosphere that affects the overall efficiency of the organisation. Informal communication also enables gossiping, which reduces frankness and produces inaccurate information. Grapevines can on the other hand be a valuable source of information on public opinion for the management. (Simon 1957: 161–162, 198.)

2.4.3. Process of Communication

As mentioned before communication is external and internal and the directions of internal communication flow are up, down and laterally across. Directions are a matter of the question who communicates with whom (Simon 1957: 155; Pfiffner & Sherwood 1960: 303; Kahn & Katz 1978: 440.) The flow can, either follow the hierarchical patterns downwards, ascend the levels of the organisation or move horizontally among the functionaries of the same level in the organisation. Organisations also communicate with the outside, in other words externally. Public organisations communicate to the general public, to the legislators, constituent groups and other public sector units. They also produce press releases, media interviews, reports and advertisement in the sense of gaining support for the functions or giving information and guidance. Communication with the outside is also two ways and in the case of public agencies there are several directions communicate to them. For example the legislators in the form of budgets and laws, the public in the form of complaints, the other agencies in local and national levels by giving information. The higher executives give guidelines for actions and also court orders can be given. (Johnson 1992: 99–101.)

Kahn and Katz (1978: 440) list five types of downward (from superior to subordinate) communication that exist in different kind of organisations: job instructions, job rationale, procedures and practices, feedback and indoctrination of goals. Specific guidelines for the job are given, and information to support the understanding of ones own job and its relation to the other tasks performed in the organisation are the meaning of the first two of the listed types of communication. Members of the organisation need information on the practices and processes of the organisation in order to become aware of their role in it and to know the obligations and privileges they have.

Feedback tells of the performance of the functionaries in the organisation, it proves whether the system is working and it has motivational and developmental importance. Finally, indoctrination of goals means that the mission and objectives of the organisation are impressed on the members of the organisation. (Kahn & Katz 1978: 441–443.) Downward communication may create concealing of information. An incompetent su-

superior may withhold important information from the subordinates in order to maintain authority. But as mentioned incompetence and insecurity of the manager is strongly connected to this phenomenon. (Simon 1957: 163.)

Horizontal communication or communication across comes in question when information flows between people at the same hierarchical level. Horizontal communication provides task coordination, gives emotional and social support to the individuals and enhances the power and effectiveness of a group through increasing mutual understanding between the group members. Upward communication serves the purpose of subordinates informing the superiors of tasks completed, suggested and needed actions, possible problems, and issues concerning organisational practices and policies. It also involves the possibility to clarify goals and to get specific directives.

Information of this type may not flow stepwise in the hierarchy, levels can be overstepped, but the hierarchical structure of an organisation can also forestall the information to flow all the way up from the bottom. For example negative feedback given by a subordinate to his superior may not reach the superiors of higher levels. (Pffifner & Sherwood 1960: 298; Kahn & Katz 1978: 444–447.) It is rather usual that information moves upward firstly, if the outcome of transmission of the message is not unpleasant to its sender (the lower level functionary), if it is clear that the superior needs the information when dealing with even higher level functionaries, and would be very displeased if was left without the information, and thirdly if it is expected that the message will reach the superior anyway and it would be better for the functionary to deliver the message himself. (Simon 1957: 163.)

Regardless of the direction of communication it is crucial that it flows two-ways. Orders, information and advice flow to and from decisional centres and other parts of the organisation. Individuals of particular competence are to give information in the field of their own know-how, to the decision-making levels of the organisation. And the decision-makers in turn are to inform the outcome to the levels on which the decisions are to be carried out. (Simon 1957: 155–156.) Managers need to be able to not only receive and distribute but to also handle and digest the information, in order to make use of it.

It is also important that the management obtains and is provided by feedback from the subordinates, in order to avoid expand of conflicts and disorientation of functions. By showing willingness to know things, good and bad, and to listen is a way management can help the progress of two-way communication. Taking a serious stance on the informal communication within and outside the organisation is also an important part of managing communication. Grapevines within an organisation are valuable sources of public opinion. By listening, the manager has an opportunity to know the topics the subordinates are interested in and their opinion on the current matters. (Simon 1957: 162.)

2.4.4. Challenges in Communication

Many problems relate to communication and it may reveal many problems although it is vital and plays a significant role in any organisation. Technology creates advantages and disadvantages in communication. It increases the amount of information available and the number of communication channels, which on one hand is good but on the other is disadvantageous. Abundance of information arise due to development of technology, the growth of organisational complexity, specialisation and interdependency a problem in today's organisations. Written documentation results in substantial amount of paper, which is costly, not only because of the price of paper but also because of the costs of printing, storing and circulating forms.

Distortion and incompleteness of messages as well as irrelevant, confusing and badly analysed information in turn impede communication. Messages may not reach the target at all, they may be misunderstood or even dismissed and withheld intentionally or unintentionally. (Pfiffner & Sherwood 1960: 298; Berkley et al. 1991: 211–214, 217–219.) In addition to these impediments of communication, it can be condensed that abundance of information and paper are problematic results of technology and formal communication. Due to same factors it may be said that communication is a financial challenge to many organisations.

The attitude and example of the manager also affects the communication problem and in case the superior is indifferent to communication and especially to the importance of it flowing all directions, a lot of important organisational information will go missing. If the superior is uninterested in for example feedback, the subordinates are most likely uninterested to tell anything. (Johnson 1992: 288–289.)

Large size of an organisation draws the lower and higher levels of the organisation further apart from each other. For example in big organisations the top management can be very unaware of the events at the lower levels and if all the information travelling within the organisation would reach them, would the amount of information be unmanageable. (Johnson 1992: 98–99.) Table 2 presents the central content of the theoretical framework explored in chapter two.

Table 2. Central Content of the Theoretical Framework.

	TYPES OR FORMS	PROCESS	FACTORS AFFECTING
COORDINATION	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Procedural & substantive - Institutional & operational - Inter- & intra-individual - Inter- & intra-organisational - By plan - By feedback 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Steps of group plan: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Creation of a common behaviour plan 2. Communicating the plan 3. Acceptance of the plan - Steps of self-coordination: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Observation of the others 2. Joining the activity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Size - Time - Complexity - Extent of specialisation - Amount of work division - Organisation and dominance of an idea - Hierarchy, network or market - Attitude
CONTROL	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Interpersonal - Structural - Procedural - Humane - Passive/ active 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Setting standards and objectives 2. Comparison of actual and standard results 3. Correction 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Organisations' natural tendencies for oligarchy. - Open nature of organisations - Need of conformance - Feedback - Public nature of the organisation
DECISION-MAKING	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Computational - Compromise - Judgemental - Inspirational - Rational - Incremental - Mixed-scanning - Autocratic/ consultative/ democratic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Juridical-administrative decisions: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Institution of proceedings 2. Preparation 3. Proposal 4. Decision 5. Declaration and implementation 6. Follow-up 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Structure of the organisation (centralised / decentralised) - Nature (open / closed, public / private) - Content of the decision - Individualistic factors - Is the decision made in a group or by one person
COMMUNICATION	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Formal (written) - Informal (oral) - Internal - External 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Exchange of information by listening/ reading the written or spoken messages. - Up, down, across the organisational levels 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Technology - Distortion and incompleteness of messages - Managers attitude and example - Size

3. INTERNATIONALISATION IN FINNISH UNIVERSITIES

In the following chapters the internationalisation of Finnish universities is explored. Firstly, the different forms and levels of coordinating international affairs are presented, and how size and complexity affects it. Secondly the structural and procedural control mechanisms as well as external control systems are presented and the significance of feedback in control is established. Decision-making in international affairs is explored through its different natures and categories. Also the process of juridical-administrative decision in universities is examined. Thirdly, the different forms of communication and the challenges it imposes are presented and finally the different factors affecting internationalisation are studied. Review of the challenges of internationalisation in Finnish universities concludes chapter 3.

3.1. Coordination of International Affairs in Finnish Universities

The top management of a university (rector, vice-rector, Head of Administration) is in charge of the operations of the organisation in general, but most of the operations have its own persons in charge or responsible. International affairs are organised in several different ways in Finnish Universities and in many the coordination of internationalisation is in the hands of a certain unit and a person in charge of the unit.

In most universities there is an international affairs unit or office that carries out numerous functions in the field of internationalisation alone and in cooperation with other organisational units and although the rector is formally in charge of and responsible for internationalisation, it is in many cases the head of international affairs that coordinates the functions related to internationalisation.

In the field of internationalisation the universities have a great number of partners in cooperation with which actions are coordinated. There are partners within the university and outside the organisation on local, national and international levels. In all sixteen

universities there are functionaries on administrative level as well as on faculty level that are more or less involved in the internationalisation of the institution.

3.1.1. Intra- and Inter-organisational Coordination

As mentioned in the chapter 2.1, there are various levels of social reality on which coordination takes place. Intra- and inter-organisational levels are explored here. First of all, there are in general three organisational levels on which internationalisation of a university is more or less an activity and between which the activities are coordinated. The three intra-organisational coordination levels are 1) Administrative services, such as academic affairs or student services unit, studies and development functions unit, centres for international teaching, career services and personnel, 2) International affairs unit as an independent unit or as part of the administrative services 3) Faculties and within them the subunits such as departments of different fields, units of different subjects and international master's degree programmes.

In some of the universities there are also several other organisational units or groups that have a certain role in internationalisation. These separate units have either their own functionaries or they are formed by functionaries of the three levels above. Examples of such groups or units are: Advisory group in international matters, an internationalisation working group, a centre for international teaching as well as a university owned company (which represents and markets the expertise of one of the universities part of the research).

In addition to the contact persons in international matters within the universities there are other functionaries within the organisations that are not necessarily responsible in the field of internationalisation but are still partners in cooperation. These internal partners, the interviewees of the sixteen universities mentioned, are for example the student union, clubs or associations functioning under the student union, management of the university, heads of departments, single members of the administrative and academic staff, communications and public relations unit, marketing, research and innovation

centres or services, quality unit, financial department, EU financial administrators in the financial department, bookkeeping, language centre and the students.

As mentioned before, all 16 universities have numerous partners in cooperation in internationalisation on local, national and international levels. Inter-organisational cooperation requires work contribution, resources, holding up communication and most of all coordination. Cooperation with external functionaries and directions is essential especially in the field of internationalisation. Networks are the basis for internationalisation according to many of the interviewees. In the following the local partners in cooperation, the interviewees listed are presented. It is probable that not all partners were remembered when asked about the central ones but at least some directions were mentioned by most of the interviewees.

The most commonly mentioned partners in cooperation on local level were the city and the other institutions of higher education in the area. Joined projects on educational development and combining practical functions related to internationalisation are carried out. For example orientation events and other activities for students are organised as well as accommodation issues administrated cooperatively. There are projects that, in addition to the city and the local institutions of higher education, also companies are part of. Local companies and businesses were along with the province, mentioned by many of the interviewees too, but there are yet several other local partners in cooperation: student housing foundations, the Finnish Student Health Service centres, regional development companies, the police, register office, the Chamber of Commerce, honorary consuls (in some cities), press and other media, and even the local immigrant councils.

Of the national partners in cooperation listed by the interviewees the most commonly mentioned were the Centre for International Mobility (CIMO), the Network of the Directors of International Affairs of Universities in Finland, other institutions of higher education, the Fulbright Center, a service organization that specializes in cultural exchange between Finland and North America (Fulbright Center 2008) and Ministry of

Education. CIMO is seen as an important source of information and guidance and as the central coordinator of the different mobility programmes.

The other institutions of higher education in Finland are considered an important network of partners in cooperation, because the field of internationalisation is rather new in higher education in Finland. Internationalisation became more active and an aim for universities in the late 80's, therefore, support of each other has been essential. Less frequently mentioned partners in cooperation were for example Finnish Immigration Service, Ministry of Interior, Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the National Board of Education as well as Embassies in Finland, Academy of Finland, Finnish Funding Agency for Technology and Innovation, alumni, research sponsor, Finnish Council of University Rectors, DAAD (German Academic Exchange Service) and Finpro (an association that provides access to high quality, comprehensive internationalization services around the world for Finnish companies).

The international partners in cooperation are another instance of inter-organisational coordination. The most important partners in cooperation are the partner universities around the world. Finnish universities have partners around the world through different kinds of networks as well as through bilateral agreements. Active cooperation with the partners abroad mainly in the field of student exchange but also in staff and teacher exchange, is the core of internationalisation in universities. All of the interviewees also mentioned several international organisations and associations operating world or European wide as well as in the Nordic countries in the fields of internationalisation of higher education, development of education and international mobility in general.

Some field-specific associations were also mentioned by the representatives of the universities in Finland that focus on one field such as business studies, music or arts. The associations and organisations are important sources of information and guidance as well as opportunities for training, visibility and marketing. Most interviewees mentioned organisations such as NAFSA, Association of International Educators (NAFSA 2008), and EAIE, European Association for International Education (EAIE 2008). European Commission, Finnish consulates and embassies as well as cultural institutes

were also commonly remarked. Without numerous networks and instances of cooperation in Finland and internationally, the activities would not exist. They are strategic and/or operational in nature and the basis for internationalisation.

3.1.2. Forms of Coordination

Based on the interviews and examination of the websites of the universities it becomes evident that the functions of internationalisation can be coordinated in several different ways. Procedurally and institutionally thinking, internationalisation functions can be divided into strategic and practical responsibilities. Substantially and operationally thinking, the actual content of work of each organisation member can be different and responsibilities in internationalisation can be part of many or only few functionaries. In the following the different forms of coordination existing in the 16 universities are explored through consideration of procedural and substantial elements as well as position of a possible international affairs office. The forms are: centralised, tendencies for centralisation, decentralised and tendencies for decentralisation.

Since the international affairs unit or international relations office exists in most universities in Finland and is often the part of the organisation that coordinates the internationalisation and cooperation with different instances are the universities divided into three groups according to how international affairs unit is situated organisationally and what is the emphasis of the three different levels presented above. According to the interviews there are three universities that have no international affairs unit that coordinates the internationalisation. Instead the functions are very much spread through different organisational levels or parts. In eight universities International Affairs is an independent unit in the organisation and an actor that operates in central administration level or in administrative services. The five remaining universities have an International Affairs unit that is a subunit of a bigger entity such as student- and teaching services, academic affairs office or studies and development unit.

After examining the differences in the organisational “location” of the international affairs office it can be said that the level of centralisation of internationalisation differs in

the universities researched. Among the sixteen in the three that has no international affairs office, internationalisation activities are highly decentralised. A strong ambition of mainstreaming the functions exists and the goal is that internationalisation reaches all fields of activities and is not a separate function in the organisation. In the universities of highly decentralised internationalisation a very small number of staff members or actors have internationalisation activities as the only responsibility.

On the other end sits two universities in which internationalisation activities are carried out extremely centrally. The main unit responsible is an international affairs office and there are none or very few functionaries in other organisational units that are working fulltime in the field of internationalisation. The other organisation members, not of the international affairs office, have very little of operational role, some take part strategically, as advisories. Between these two extremes lies the remaining eleven. They are divided into two groups according to their tendencies towards centralisation or decentralisation.

There are six with tendencies towards centralisation. In these universities in the field of internationalisation the other organisational levels, such as the faculties, have a few responsibilities and a small role in internationalisation. The activities are not so much of procedural kind but are practical in nature, for example advising students. Five of the universities have tendencies towards decentralisation in the coordination of internationalisation. Either the goal is that as many functions as possible are carried out in the units responsible for them, both on national and international level. For example the issues of international and Finnish students are taken care of in the same place, by the same functionaries or the Faculties take care of the agreements of cooperation made in their own field with foreign universities. Or the direction is that there are actors in many different organisational levels and units that have a clear role in internationalisation or even carries out internationalisation operations fulltime. Decentralisation requires increase in resources and dividing expertise in the organisation. Table 3 summarises the ways international affairs are coordinated.

Table 3. Ways of Coordination of International Affairs.

	IN EFFECT	TENDENCY FOR
CENTRALISATION	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - International affairs unit is mainly responsible for internationalisation functions - None or very few functionaries in other organisational units are working fulltime in the field of internationalisation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Other organisational levels, such as the faculties, have a few responsibilities and a small role in internationalisation. - Activities these functionaries carry out are not so much of procedural kind but are practical in nature, for example advising students.
DECENTRALISATION	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - No international affairs unit that coordinates internationalisation - The idea of mainstreaming internationalisation is strong - Internationalisation functions are spread through organisational levels and parts - All staff members or actors should have internationalisation activities as part of their work 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - As many functions as possible are carried out in the units responsible for them, both on national and international level. - There are actors in many different organisational levels and units that have a clear role in internationalisation or even carries out internationalisation operations fulltime

3.1.3. Size and Complexity as Factors Affecting Coordination

Based on the interviews size and complexity of the organisation affect the coordination of internationalisation in Finnish universities. The number of students, or in other words, clients as well as the number of functionaries working in the field of internationalisation indicates the size. The effects of size are further explored in chapter 3.6.1. The amount of different faculties or centres of focus in the study and research fields indicate the complexity. Its effects are presented below.

There are seven universities that focus on one or two fields in teaching and research. Lappeenranta University of Technology specialises in technology and economics, Helsinki School of Economics, Turku School of Economics focus on economic sciences and Helsinki University of Technology as well as Tampere University of Technology

focus on technology. Sibelius Academy is the only music university in Finland and the University of Art and Design focuses on different disciplines of art.

It is not so much the complexity but the simplicity that has an effect on the coordination of internationalisation in these universities. It makes it possible that the organisational members working for internationalisation also have knowledge on the content, the teaching. It also enables the university to focus on field-specific international networks and cooperation with companies.

The simplicity of focus makes the field of activities narrower and clearer, thus perhaps easier to handle. The universities with more than one or two focuses in teaching and research have several faculties of different fields and departments within the faculties. The number of different fields can be very large, for example in the University of Helsinki there are eleven faculties and approximately 200 departments and the complexity has certain effects on the coordination of internationalisation. Different fields can have very differing interests when it comes to internationalisation and it is difficult to limit the focuses of activities. On the other hand, especially in big universities, the complexity makes it possible for the university to have different centres of interest and focus in internationalisation.

3.2. Control Over International Affairs

In majority of the interviews it became clear that the rector of the university is formally in charge of internationalisation and ultimately the rector makes the decisions on in the field. The directors and other actors of international affairs report to the top management of the university, the rector, vice rector/s and in some cases the director of administration.

Often large scale definitions of policy are made at the top level of the organisation and power is delegated in certain matters to some lower levels such as faculty and department directors and to the head of international affairs. Power is somewhat centralised,

since the functionaries are responsible to the upper levels of the organisation. Actions are supervised and therefore the actors are subject to control. Universities in Finland are public organisations and they are subject to certain laws, regulations and definition of policy by for example the European Union and the Ministry of Education.

It was previously established that internationalisation of universities is largely based on networks and cooperation with other organisations. This attests that universities and especially their internationalisation organisations are open in nature. In addition to the public nature the open nature of universities (and the internationalisation) is an impetus for control in these organisations. The external control mechanisms and several internal systems used to control the internationalisation processes in the universities become evident in the interviews.

3.2.1. Structural and Procedural Control Mechanisms

As described before centralisation is an aspect of coordination in internationalisation. Centralisation seemed to be more of a structural decision or a necessity caused by small size and amount of functionaries than a mechanism for control. But it is also so that according to the nature of centralised functions, there are fewer functionaries working only on internationalisation, therefore, it is a smaller group that has the control over how things are done and when. In few of the universities with decentralised or with tendencies to decentralise internationalisation functions, it was established that the operations are more modelled and perhaps more bureaucratic in nature. Instead of structural control systems the universities seem to have some procedural control mechanisms in use. In the following are presented the role of strategies and to what extent process descriptions are used.

In seven of the research universities an internationalisation strategy distinct from the general strategy is in use, or it is in the making, whereas in nine there is no separate internationalisation strategy in use. A separate internationalisation strategy is seen as an important tool for working for it clearly shows the goals, agreed points of emphasis and planned operations as well as sets limits. The internationalisation strategy can be used

as rules of procedure or an action plan, but often they are created as an addition to the strategy. In an action plan or rules of procedure the functions can be described on more practical level and even the functionaries responsible for each action can be written down. Reasons for not having a separate internationalisation strategy are simple according to the interviews. Internationalisation is strongly emphasised in the general strategy of the university or has its own part in it and not having an internationalisation strategy supports the aim of mainstreaming internationalisation in the university. Examining the data on internationalisation strategies and process descriptions (or the lack of them) shows that most of the universities that have included the aspect of internationalisation in the general strategy have written process descriptions.

In twelve universities process descriptions are either written or in the making. In most of them not all internationalisation processes are described but many are planned to be. The descriptions include the different phases of the process, spheres of responsibility, reference of necessary documents and sometimes definitions of concepts. It is seen that the descriptions can be used in training new functionaries and using stand-ins at the office, and also as self-evaluation and feedback. While writing the processes down, some universities found elements that needed to be improved. In a few universities planning to merge, the process descriptions were seen as a tool for comparing the functions considering the harmonisation of internationalisation operations. Furthermore in some universities the descriptions were made for controlling quality. In one of the universities where the increase of organisational size has created the pressure of operating more systematically, the process descriptions were seen as a means to do so.

It seems that the process descriptions are rather popular in the universities in defining and detailing the internationalisation functions. There are, however, four universities in which descriptions of internationalisation processes have not been made. Either the roles of the functionaries are seen to be clear enough, or documents of job description or rules of procedure are in use. In other words, it is felt that there is no need for process description or the details of the processes and designation of responsibilities is done other ways. Furthermore, a reason for not having process descriptions is the fact that

writing them is time consuming and pointless considering the fact that the processes are expected to change often.

Contracts are in some universities monitored in certain ways. Before making an agreement of cooperation the possible partner university is evaluated by certain criteria in order to clarify or see whether the possible partner meets the needs of the students and the university in the field of international cooperation. There are also a specific balance statement in use in some universities, which monitors the realisation of the agreement and the balance of the exchanged students. It tells whether reciprocity exists and the agreement is beneficial for both parties. Contracts self control that for example cooperation with foreign universities is executed according to mutually agreed terms.

3.2.2. External Control

The internationalisation of universities is controlled or guided by several external factors. Legislation was commented on in all of the interviews and some particular observations were made regarding. The legal aspect brings about the consideration whether actions are legally possible and correct. Laws were seen as a framework and guidance to internationalisation functions. They were not seen so much as a limiting factor, but rather even as helpful, especially in problem situations. Universities Act in general directs the functions of the universities but considering internationalisation most influential sections existing or possibly coming into effect are the ones enabling use of tuition fees and offering of customised study programmes. These are seen as factors that would increase the workload but also create possibilities for example in the field of marketing and recruiting international students.

Also the possible changes in the legal status of universities would have an effect on internationalisation as it would have on the whole university. In the Aliens Act regulations regarding immigration and especially the recent changes regarding the insurance requirements of foreign students have caused confusion and brought about additional operations. The Administrative Procedure Act does not guide directly the internationalisation functions but it promotes good administration and productivity and quality in the

administrative services (Administrative Procedure Act 1:1), and thus defines the work of public servants. The fact that only a few interviewees mentioned the EU directives and directions as factors defining the work indicates that they are either axiomatic or just not clearly wised up to. In any case the EU does give guidelines on the educational guidelines made nationally.

Ministry of Education defines the guidelines and directions to the internationalisation operations in universities. Each university makes their own strategy on internationalisation according to Ministry of Education's strategy on teaching and research. The Ministry of Education requires the universities to deliver reports and financial statements on their functions including internationalisation. This is one form of external control but also an impetus for internal control. There is another ministry in some way guides the internationalisation of universities. The guidelines and definitions of policy of the Ministry for Foreign Affairs, especially on the aid to developing countries affect the operations of some universities. Mainly the ones that have partner universities in developing countries or that are part of projects relating to development aid. Namely, the Ministry for Foreign Affairs is often the financier in the projects or the cooperation.

3.2.3. Significance of Feedback in Control

As becomes evident above, internationalisation operations in universities are based on predetermined goals and guidelines. It is also shown above that meeting the objectives and coordination of the functions is controlled in several internal and external ways. In addition to the examination of accomplishments, feedback plays a significant role in the control process. Feedback on the internationalisation in universities is received in different forms and through various channels. The most common form used in all universities is according to the interviews the feedback on student-, staff- and teacher mobility. All the incoming and outgoing exchange students are to fill out a questionnaire in which often questions on the international services of the university are included. In most universities international degree students are also asked to fill out similar forms. Teachers and staff members are asked to report on their exchange periods. Most of the

times the feedback is analysed and used to enhance the internationalisation functions and services.

The second most often in the interviews mentioned feedback channel was meetings held with the actors in the field of internationalisation. The frequency of the meetings and the amount of participants changed between universities. In some of the larger universities where it is difficult to organise regular meetings due to the large number of functionaries several events among the functionaries a few times a year, during which various workshops were organised. The workshops were put up for creating new ideas of developing the operations. Although formal discussions on organisation members' personal growth and progress on the job were held between the superior and the subordinates, most of the interviewees described informal, spontaneous conversations or chats on the hallways or for example over coffee, as one of the common forms of feedback. In addition to the most common forms of feedback, the student and staff mobility enquiries and the personal contacts in meetings and informally, several other channels were brought up.

Such other, less common forms of feedback, mentioned by some of the interviewees, were for example, benchmarking projects and peer reviews with other Finnish or foreign universities. These comparisons on examinations produce useful information on how things are done elsewhere, forces to investigate own functions and give ideas for developing the operations. Taking part in studies of different organisations in the field of internationalisation gives the opportunity to use the results of these researches as well as is a moment of self-review. Self-initiated investigations, for example on barriers for student exchange, gives useful information that can be used in developing the functions as well as the feedback gathered by the student unions. Feedback is sometimes given via e-mail to a specific address and often it is given face-to-face from students or other staff members to teachers or other organisation members.

There are also some external factors that produce information on how things are done in a university. The Centre of International Mobility (CIMO) audits the progress and functioning of the ERASMUS programme and the accounts related to it in the universities.

Also the auditing of accounts by the government pushes the universities for internal control. Accreditations and international quality assessment systems require reporting and monitoring which are forms of control.

3.3. Decision-making in the Field of Internationalisation

3.3.1. Nature of Decision-making in Internationalisation

Strategies and definition of policy are policy formulation, and process descriptions, written rules of procedure or action plans represent routine administration. Because of the juridical-administrative nature of decision-making in universities, ad hoc decisions are rare or related to practical, routine, everyday matters. Although final goals are most likely known because of the clear pre-established guidelines and directions, most matters cannot be decided on without consulting the different organisation parts. In addition, the field of internationalisation of universities is according to the interviewees a dynamic, constantly changing field with increasing possibilities to adhere to. The combination of pre-established goals and rules of procedure, the dynamic nature and the requirement of the juridical-administrative nature makes it evident that decision-making in the field of internationalisation of universities can be described as mixed-scanning decision-making. The compromise and judgemental decision strategies are in use rather than computational and inspirational strategies.

3.3.2. The Categories of Decision-making

Decision-making in the field of internationalisation of universities consists of five main categories: 1) financing, 2) mobility, 3) international degree programmes 4) cooperation agreements with universities abroad and 5) strategy and definition of policy. Universities are public organisations and the formal decisions made by the rector or vice-rectors are based on proposals made by different functionaries. In the following it is presented

which parts of the different internationalisation organisations make decisions or most of all, which levels propose the possible decisions to them. Since the juridical-administrative decision-making process is rather hierarchical, it would be simple just to state that the rector or the head of international affairs makes the decisions. But since the rapporteurs are the experts on the issues and the ones who decide what decisions are proposed, it is as interesting and relevant to examine who are those people in the universities.

The rector, vice-rectors and in some cases the director of administration are the ones who officially make the decision. Many times they are the ones only to sign the decision and the rapporteurs are the ones who have inspected the decision options. Several different levels of organisation making decisions regarding internationalisation were mentioned in the interviews. Mainly the decisions are made either by the rector, by the head of international relations or the faculties representatives. In the following the decision categories are explicated. Also some definitions of different ways of distribution of responsibility in the five, above listed decision-making categories could be formed based on the interviews. Interviewees did not comment on all the decision-making categories specifically, therefore absolute definitions or descriptions could not be made.

3.3.3. Who Proposes and Who Makes the Decisions?

Financial matters, decided on in the field of internationalisation, are concerned with for example the total budget of internationalisation operations and granting of the scholarships to student, staff members and teachers going on an exchange abroad. Two forms of decision liability on internationalisation budget could be perceived based on the comments of the representatives of nine universities. Either the international affairs unit and in it the director decides on the use of the budget, or the unit proposes a budget to the rector who approves it. Based on the comments of ten interviewees, the same forms recur when it comes to granting scholarships. In most cases, however it is the international relations unit that makes the decision on how big is each student's scholarship for the exchange period. In some cases the faculty proposes and student services unit makes the final decision. It can also be so that, the decision is made by a functionary of the finance unit.

Mobility matters are to do with student, staff and teacher exchange and mobility. The decisions are made on who goes on an exchange. Fourteen interviewees commented on student mobility, and several forms of making the decisions regarding were discovered. Mainly the international relations office proposed and either the faculty or rector made the formal decision. In the cases where the international relations office was the final decision maker, the proposal was made by, either a coordinator at the office, the faculty or a certain selection board. There were also several cases where wither the student services, the international relations office or the faculty alone decides on the student mobility. Deciding on the staff and teacher mobility in some universities the proposal was made by the international relations office and the actual decision by the rector. Nine university representatives commented staff and teacher mobility and in the remaining universities the decision was made either by the international relations office or the faculty.

Decisions regarding international master's degree programmes consist of decisions on admissions and admission requirements as well as on the content of the programmes. In some universities the international relations office makes proposals regarding these questions but in most universities the decisions are made by the faculties, the rector or the vice-rector, or even the board of directors. Another issue that the international relations office has smaller role in is the strategy approval and the definition of policy. Mainly the rectors and the board of directors are responsible for the strategy. In a few universities the head of international relations proposes the strategy or is responsible for it.

The establishment of cooperation agreements with foreign universities is carried out in different organisational units depending on whether the agreement is made in the ERASMUS framework, or as a bilateral agreement. It can also depend on whether the agreement is made only on one field or covering all the fields taught. It almost without exceptions that the rector or the director of administration signs the agreements but either the faculties and departments or the international relations office makes the proposals. The divisions can be as follows: the faculties make the field related agreements and the international relations office the agreements covering all fields, or

the faculties make ERASMUS agreements and the international relations office the bilateral agreements.

As described earlier, formally the rector is responsible for internationalisation in the universities. Most decisions made by the rector are based on proposals made by functionaries. They are the ones who make the initial choice of what is proposed and therefore have a significant role in making the decisions. Examining the different divisions of reliability in decision-making of the universities international affairs it becomes evident that the international relations offices, their directors and other functionaries have the biggest role in decision-making. This observation supports the fact that the experts of different fields are in key position when making the preparations and proposals.

3.4. Communication in the Field of Internationalisation

3.4.1. Forms of Communication

The formal and informal forms of communication with the interior and exterior of the organisation are numerous in the field of internationalisation. Public relations, giving information, communication with the partners in cooperation, marketing and visibility are examples of external communications and informing, discussions, consulting regarding decision-making, reporting and documentation are impetus for internal communications of internationalisation organisations within universities. According to the interviews with the representatives of the sixteen universities the most common forms of communication are the electronic ones: e-mails to individuals and through mailing lists, Internet and intranet as well as internal databases.

In addition to personal e-mail addresses in some universities context related e-mail addresses are in use. For these e-mails a reader is always designated so that reading and replying by many persons is avoided as well as the information flow. Many universities also use mailing lists in international affairs, so that all the persons concerned and in-

volved receive the same message. Internet (website of the university, other websites, web services and web communities) and intranet are seen as forums for announcements, marketing, and sharing information. Most universities also have some kind of an internal electronic database for collecting and handling information on for example the students and staff and their mobility. Use of telephone is still a means of communication, but because of e-mails the use of it has diminished to mainly be used in complicated and urgent matters. Fax was also mentioned in the interviews but only by a few interviewees. It has made way to electronic documents sent via e-mail.

Meetings are a common form of communication within the organisation as well as with the outside. Depending on the amount of internationalisation actors in the organisation, meetings are held from a couple of times a year to a couple of times a week. In chapter 3.5.1. the effects of organisational size on communication are presented. Meetings are fundamentally an informal form of communication but they are formal in the sense that often records or minutes are made. Many of the interviewees also mentioned things to be discussed informally over coffee and on the hallways. Other informal forms of communication in universities in the field of internationalisation are the guidance of students individually and to groups. Information affairs and orientation events are organised to both students and staff. For example training event on changes in the field are organised in several universities. Also some have the possibility of attending international study affairs abroad.

Brochures, leaflets and guidebooks were mentioned by most of the interviewees. They are used for informing and advertising externally. A few universities have handbooks or operation manuals for internationalisation actors. Other forms of formal communication with the external are such as letters (also internally), magazines or other publications and advertisement on campus. Informal communication with the external takes form in the media (exception being the written media), study fairs, visits and conferences as well as some field specific events such as art exhibitions and concerts. In Table 4 the different forms of communication are presented.

Table 4. Formal and Informal Forms of Communication with the Exterior and the Interior.

	FORMAL	INFORMAL
EXTERNAL	Internet, fax, brochures, leaflets, guidebooks, letters, publications, magazines, advertisement on campus, written media	Meetings, telephone, orientation and information events to students, media, visits, conferences, study affairs abroad, art exhibitions and concerts (field specific)
INTERNAL	Intranet, databases, operation manuals, letters	Meetings, telephone, training and information events for the staff, chats

3.4.2. Challenges in Communication

Technology provides possibilities but also creates challenges in communication. There were several technological advantages that the interviewees had acknowledged but wish could be further exploited. Most directors of international affairs would enhance the quality and versatility of the website of the university and international affairs. Some wished the international affairs to be more visible on the university's website. One of the most commonly mentioned desires in the exploitation of technology was an electronic database that would be in use of all the actors within the university and would cover recording data of students and staff members in general and in the field of internationalisation. Mistakes and overlaps in data recording could be avoided and working hours would be saved. For example the use of a common database or a customer relationship management systems was suggested.

A few of the representatives of the universities located in northern Finland far away from the metropolitan area wished the possibility of holding videoconferences and online meetings would be used. It would be cost and time effective as well as environmental friendly even, due to the decrease of travelling. Use of electronic documents instead of paper ones, introduction of electronic signatures, and utilisation of links to

documents instead of e-mail attachments in order to diminish the loading of the mailbox, were desired.

The universities that mentioned study affairs as a form of informal communication with the exterior, also mentioned that they are costly and time consuming to attend. They are rarely attended and most of the universities wished there would be more possibilities to take part in international study affairs. Versatility in the marketing and visibility of the university was listed as a desire or a need and in addition to the study fairs for example visibility in the media was wished for. It was perceived that the possibility of using tuition fees would increase the need of advertisement but also better the chances of financing the visibility and advertisement. Other targets of developments were for example the comprehensive use of the communication means, not increasing them as well as updating the technology in order to be able to fully use the advantages and possibilities modern information technology provides.

3.5. Factors Affecting Internationalisation of Finnish Universities

3.5.1. The Effects of Size on Coordination, Control, Decision-making and Communication

Considering the different core functions of organisations in internationalisation a big size of the university has its advantages and disadvantages as well as does a small size. In most of the universities it was difficult to estimate the number of organisation members involved in internationalisation, because in most universities internationalisation being part of all functionaries' job descriptions is either effective, an aim or desired. All interviewees were, however, able to give an approximate number of the ones working fulltime only in the field of internationalisation.

Examining these numbers and the numbers of students, the universities can roughly be divided into two size categories: the ones with more than 10 000 students and more than

ten working solely on internationalisation and the ones with less than 10 000 students and less than ten staff members contributing solely on internationalisation. The first one will further be referred to as large universities and the latter one as small universities. An exception in the group of the big universities is the University of Helsinki, which is size-wise in its own series. It has almost 40 000 students and the number of staff focusing on internationalisation is extremely difficult to estimate because of the extensive ambition of decentralisation, but an approximate of 10-15 members of the central administration were mentioned to be working fulltime in the field of internationalisation.

In the University of Helsinki operations are modelled and the organisation is rather “stiff”. The large size creates challenges in resource allocation within the organisation and it is not possible for all the functionaries working in the field of internationalisation to know each other personally and meet face-to-face regularly. In addition, the contacts with many organisation members and students cannot easily become very personal. On the other hand the large size makes the university well known and visible. Considering coordination in some of the other large universities (in which the amount of students lies between 10 000 and 17 000), it is seen that the operations are controllable yet there are enough actors to get adequate and versatile critique and feedback. The organisation is seen rather flexible and it is possible to act relatively quickly without heavy bureaucracy in the administration. It may be difficult to organise meetings face-to-face often but it is possible to know the functionaries personally. The communication relies more on common distribution channels, such as group e-mails. As opposed to this, in one of the large universities where tendency for centralisations of operations exists, it is seen that meetings are easy to organise and that contacts between functionaries are easy and direct.

As the size of the organisation increases, grows the faculties’ pressure for autonomy and the pressure for decentralising the internationalisation activities. The working methods may change between faculties and it can be difficult to always know what exactly are the functionaries doing in the field of internationalisation. The more there are actors the more difficult it is to form common models of working and hold meetings that everyone

is able to always attend. Increase in size also implies slowing down of acting and reacting, since there are more parties concerned with opinions and needs. It also requires more efforts in internal communication, for example in assuring that everyone who needs to get a certain piece of information gets it. In some interviewees opinion larger size increases the need of guidelines such as process descriptions and modelling of actions. In addition to diverse critique an advantage of large size is the fact that it is possible for the university and its different faculties and departments to focus on different, field-specific actions and networks in internationalisation. The functionaries can have centres of focus without having a cost on the internationalisation in general.

In small universities it is possible to make decision relatively quickly and propositions as well as changes can be rather easily and rapidly followed through. All in all it is possible to act and react quickly. The organisation and operations are flexible and orientation is clear. Small financial and human resources were mentioned as a factor resulting in a need to centralise and in a decrease in time in use for through addressing to all matters. Although in some cases it is an advantage that certain actions (for example establishing cooperation with foreign universities) can be centralised, it is on the other hand not possible to focus on many things, limits need to be drawn to the scale in which internationalisation is implemented. In some of the small universities it was also experienced that the size causes resource competition within the organisation. It was seen that if the volumes were bigger in internationalisation it would be easier to get support (financially and in general) as well as more recognition for internationalisation. Communication in small universities is smooth. It is rather easy to organise meetings as well as get people together. Information flows quickly and functionaries are reachable and personally known to one another. Also the contacts with students can be close and for example personal guidance is possible. Table 5 presents the affects of size on the core internationalisation functions.

Table 5. The Effects of Size on Internationalisation Functions.

	COORDINATION	CONTROL	DECISION-MAKING	COMMUNICATION
LARGE UNIVERSITIES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Faculties pressure for autonomy increases - Pressure to decentralise actions grows - Faculties and departments can focus on field-specific networks and actions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Difficulties in forming common rules of procedure - Need of common guidelines increases 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Slow - Enough people for getting critical opinions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Slows down - Meeting are more difficult to get together
SMALL UNIVERSITIES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Pressure to centralise increases, due to small human and financial resources - Pressure to draw limits in the field of actions grows 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Orientation is clear - Financial resources are restricted 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Can be quick - Rapid implementation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Smooth - Meetings are easy to get together - Contacts with other actors and students can be personal

3.5.2. Other Causative and Limiting Factors for Internationalisation

There are some external and internal factors that affect the internationalisation operations in Universities. The sixteen interviewees listed several of these, mostly external factors. Internally thinking in some universities organisational rules are made in addition to the guidelines provided by law. For example the insurance policies on outgoing students may be created or tightened. Some study fields, such as pharmacy or medicine entail a risk factor therefore the insurance policies are tighter for the students of those fields than for business students for example. Resources limit for example the amount of fulltime internationalisation actors hence also the dimension of the operations. For example in a small university with a small number of internationalisation actors and a relatively voluminous mobility, the internationalisation is focused on the core of it, the

mobility and international degree programmes. Little or no emphasis can be put on for example different projects.

External financiers also create limits by setting conditions for the funding. The sponsors do to some extent direct the functions. The amount of financial support from the government as well as the commission define for example what can money be invested in and how big and numerous can the scholarships for mobility be. This and especially the attractiveness and openness of the labour market have an effect especially on the student exchange. Decrease in outgoing exchange student numbers is a common trend in Finnish universities currently.

In addition to financial factors the increasing competition, especially on international degree students, between the Finnish universities has created challenges, but yet the cooperation between universities in the field of internationalisation, is vital. In some cities the regional growth and development has a positive affect on the university. The visibility and attractiveness increases and the position tend to strengthen, which assures the existence of the university in the area. A negative regional factor mentioned by a few interviewees is housing shortage, which hold back the increase in the number of incoming students, especially in universities that organise accommodation for students. The bureaucratic nature of the EU was seen as a slowing factor. The attitudes of the Finnish and of the Finnish labour market, towards foreign students was also seen negative by some of the interviewees. It affects for example the employment possibilities negatively and decreases the attractiveness of Finland as a study destination and domicile.

3.6. Challenges in the Field of Internationalisation

According to the interviews the main challenges of internationalisation in universities are related to resources, workload caused by the growth and abundance of possibilities in the field, mobility issues, administrative changes, as well as the possible changes in the Universities Act. In the following the five are explored.

The field of higher education internationalisation has been growing exponentially in the recent decades, which has resulted in abundance of opportunities and velocity of work. Workload of the actors has, therefore, increased, but the amount of resources has not followed at the same rate. Financial and human resources are not in balance with the growth of the field. Because of this imbalance the operation models have not developed sufficiently and the evolvement of new forms of internationalisation is rather slow.

Updated operation models could perhaps hinder the need for more staff, but due to shortage in financial resources the actors are few and due to shortage in human resources there is no time for development. It could be thus said that the challenges related to resources (financial, human and time) go hand in hand with the growth and the workload it causes. A type of a “treadmill” forms (see Figure 3), which could perhaps been stopped by time, but because only more staff would equal more time, the circle could perhaps best be stopped with financial resources. In Figure 3 it is presented that the growth of internationalisation increases the workload of the actors, which results in a need for human resources. With financial resources more staff could be hired, but due to the lack of assets, lack of human resources remains and consequently still the increase in workload exists.

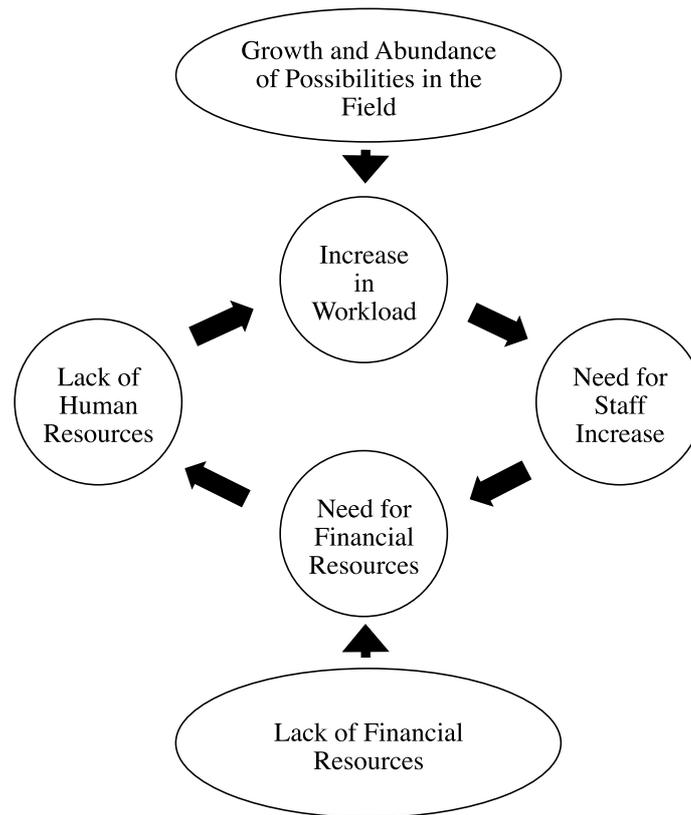


Figure 3. Effects of the Growth in the Field and Lack of Financial Resources.

Because of the “treadmill” caused by the imbalanced growth of the field and resources, universities have been forced to either, for example limit the scale of internationalisation and focus on fewer operations although opportunities are numerous, develop more efficient working methods, or/and try and get more functionaries to take internationalisation as part of their sphere of responsibility. It seems though that either way the workload has remained and universities are faced with questions of how to maintain the effectiveness and quality of service, the expertise of functionaries and their working capacity. By looking at the circle presented in figure 3 it seems that financial support would be a key out of the treadmill, but according to some of the interviewees the situation can be lived with if the organisation members are capable of adjusting to rapidly changing situations and conditions.

Challenges with mobility are in most universities (not in one) related to the decrease in outgoing exchange students and in some universities to difficulties in enhancing teacher exchange. According to the interviews the factors affecting the interest of Finnish students towards study period abroad could be 1) the attractiveness and pull of the labour market, 2) the reform of the educational structure in Finland as well as 3) attitudes and assumptions of students.

The structural reform has perhaps encouraged some students to complete their studies faster and the job opportunities the good employment situation offers can make it less attractive to complete a study exchange. In some universities it also seemed to be a general assumption of students that a period abroad definitely prolongs the studies. Fewness of taking part in teacher exchange was according to some interviews caused by the simple fact that the teachers lack interest in doing so or have too little time. During for example one week abroad the workload at home would build up unmanageable. In some universities the challenge of internationalisation of the teachers also by employing foreign teachers was mentioned.

Administrative changes such as coalescence of several universities and the consideration of structural reorganisation are challenges listed by some of the interviewees. The coalescences raise questions of how the internationalisation should be organised and how the work of functionaries should be coordinated. The question of whether to centralise or decentralise internationalisation and to what extent is a question many universities seemed to be faced with. In some of the universities that decentralisation is in effect or the direction a challenge was to get all the functionaries to take in internationalisation as part of the work and to find enough forums for reporting on each functionaries work and to discussions.

There are certain possible changes in the Universities Act that are seen as a challenge by most of the interviewees. Especially the possible introduction of tuition fees and opportunity to offer chargeable, custom-made study programmes to foreigners. The universities would be for example faced with a need for staff with expertise in international marketing of education and financial issues. Tuition fees would inevitably increase the

need for international marketing and accreditation of study programmes, since the growing market at the moment is already creating challenges in recruiting foreign students. In addition to practical requirements brought by the policy reform there are some other challenges related to practical details. Acquisition and delivery of information entail challenges, which were closer examined in chapter 3.4.2. Thorough compilation of statistics and measurement of effectiveness are fields that in some universities are seen as something that would need more efforts and emphasis. It is believed that statistics and reports would add to the visibility of internationalisation and be basis for getting more attention and resources allocated for internationalisation. An extremely practical challenge mentioned by one interviewee but presumably existing in many universities is the occasional slowness of operations carried out with the international partners in cooperation caused by differences in time and working cultures of other countries.

4. CONCLUSIONS

All organisations, public, private and social, play a significant role in the modern society. Most spheres of life are related or in fact depend on organisations, and they are the basis for democracy, high standard of living and high level of culture. Organisations are hence widely studied in various scientific fields, such as commercial and administrative sciences and sociology. Universities are one example of central elements of modern society and research on higher education institutions and universities as public or private organisation is its own field and has for the recent decades been growing.

Organisations change along with the society. Therefore, research has not stopped at the fundamental theories but continues to explore the formation of organisations. Globalisation, for example, has brought about internationalisation as a new aspect of organisational research, in the last decades. The latest subject of research in the field of higher education has been internationalisation.

The aim of this research has been to examine the core functions of organisations in the field of international affairs of universities in Finland. Questions such as how the international affairs are organised in the Finnish universities and what factors affect the organising? And what are the internal and external factors resulting in the different ways of organisation and what are the challenges and their effect in the organisation of internationalisation in the universities, are answered. It was hypothesised that there are several different ways international affairs are organised in Finnish universities and that there are several reasons why things are done a certain way.

Research was conducted by thoroughly examining literature on organisations and the core functions of them, reviewing the general and internationalisation strategies of Finnish universities as well as interviewing 16 directors of international affairs of Finnish universities. Data was sufficient, although accessibility of universities' strategies varied and two of the 18 directors of international affairs approached were unable to take part in the research in the form of interview.

Viewing the internationalisation strategies and rules of procedure of universities, as well as examination of the “organisational philosophy” POSDCORB attested the four to be the core functions to be studied in this research. The acronym presents administrative organising and primary activities of the executives in organisations and contains the four. Table two in the end of chapter two summarises the theoretical framework and shows the core functions of organisations: coordination, control, decision-making and communication.

The central findings of the study are related to the organisation of international affairs, the factors affecting the organisation, especially the affects of size, and the main challenges in internationalisation of Finnish universities. The central findings of the research are presented in Table 6. The conclusions are further explicated below the table.

Table 6. Core Functions of International Affairs and Factors Influencing Organisation.

	COORDINATION	CONTROL	DECISION-MAKING	COMMUNICATION
ITEMS CHARACTERISING ORGANISATION	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Centralised, - Decentralised, - Tendencies for centralisation - Tendencies for decentralisation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Internal: structural and procedural such as centralisation, strategies, process descriptions, contracts and their monitoring - External: laws (such as Universities Act, Aliens Act, Administrative procedure Act), EU directives, guidelines provided by Ministry of Education and Ministry for Foreign Affairs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Financial matters - Numbers of student mobility and the selection process - International degree programmes - Cooperation agreements with universities abroad - Strategy and definition of policy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Formal communication with the interior and exterior - Informal communication with the exterior and interior
INFLUENTIAL FACTORS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Cooperation with external and internal partners - Size - Complexity - Amount of human and financial resources 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Laws - Regulations - Definitions of policy - Public nature of the organisation - Open nature of the organisation - Feedback - Size 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Pre-established goals and rules of procedure - Dynamic nature of the field - Juridical-administrative nature of decisions - Size 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Technology - Size

The top management (rector and vice-rectors) is officially in charge of internationalisation in the universities but there are different kinds of organisations that carry out international affairs. The organisations are formed by actors in specific international affairs

offices or units, in the faculties and in the administrative services units (such as student services), as well as in some other units of the universities. The division of tasks and responsibilities between these different levels of organisation vary and international affairs can be coordinated in four different ways: centralised, decentralised, with tendencies to centralise or with tendencies to decentralise.

There are several factors affecting the organisation of international affairs, size of the organisation being a central one. Universities were divided into groups of large and small ones by counting the numbers of students and staff working fulltime on international affairs. Large ones have more than 10 000 students and the number of fulltime staff is more than ten. Small universities have less than 10 000 students and less than ten members of staff. Several effects of size were realised.

Increase of size increases the faculties' pressure for autonomy and the pressure to decentralise activities grows. Common rules of procedure can be difficult to form although a need for common guidelines tends to rise. Decision-making as well as communication is somewhat slow and meetings can be difficult to be put together. On the bright side there are enough people to form useful criticism and the faculties and departments can focus on field-specific actions and networks in internationalisation.

Smaller size increases the pressure to centralise actions and to draw limits for the field of actions. On the other hand orientation of the functions is clear and decisions can be made and implemented relatively quickly. Communication is smooth and contacts with other actors and students can be personal. Also meetings are easy to get together. Financial resources are restricted in both, large and small universities, but larger ones have more mass and bigger volumes supporting the need for resources.

Other external and internal factors affecting internationalisation in the universities are: organisations own rules, limited resources (financial and human), conditions set by external financiers, the amount of financial support from the government and the EU, openness and attractiveness of the Finnish labour market, competition between universities, regional growth, housing shortage, EU bureaucracy, and attitudes.

There are several challenges in the field of internationalisation. Size, as mentioned above has its effects and creates challenges in handling the operations within the organisation. Sufficiency of time and amount of resources are also challenges considering coordination, control, decision-making and communication in universities in the field of internationalisation. Technology imposes challenges in communication such as extensive exploitation of different forms of technology and the opportunities it offers. Versatility in marketing is a general challenge in communication of all universities. Marketing of universities is relatively new in Finland.

General current challenges in internationalisation are decrease in numbers of outgoing exchange students, in some cities getting more housing for international students, increase in workload caused by the growth of the field and abundance of possibilities, and balancing the workload and resources. Also administrative changes such as coalescence of some universities and changes in the Universities Act create challenges in organising international affairs.

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APPENDIX 1. Interview Framework

Organisation of International Affairs

1. How are international affairs organised in your university?
2. What are the core functions in internationalisation?
3. What is the numbers of staff working full time on international affairs?
4. How are decisions related to internationalisation made, and who are the parties taking part in the process?
5. What are the means of communication used in the organisation?
6. What are the central partners in cooperation and why?

Factors Affecting and Directing Organisation of International Affair

7. How does the size of the university affect organisation of international affairs?
8. How do the legislation and other external factors direct the operations of international affairs?
9. How do the strategies and other directions define organisation of international affairs?
10. Have process descriptions of international affairs been made?
 - a) If yes, what did the descriptions reveal?
11. What are the forms of feedback in use in the organisation?

Challenges and Development of International Affairs

12. Are there any forms or means of communication that should be introduced or used more in the organisation?
13. What are the challenges related to pre-established goals?
14. What are the greatest challenges related to coordination of internationalisation?

APPENDIX 2. Interviewed persons

Cucinotta, Francesca, Head of International Relations. University of Vaasa. Vaasa 18.3.2008.

Etula, Anitta, Head of International Affairs. University of Kuopio. Vaasa 13.3.2008.

Hirvonen, Eila, Head of International Office. Tampere University of Technology. Vaasa 13.3.2008.

Honkanen, Anu, Head of International and Career Services. Lappeenranta University of Technology. Vaasa 18.3.2008.

Koponen, Tuija, Head of the International Office. University of Jyväskylä. Vaasa 1.4.2008.

Kuortti, Kimmo, Director of International Relations. University of Oulu. Vaasa 10.4.2008.

Laitinen, Markus, Head of International Affairs (currently not attending). University of Helsinki. Vaasa 11.3.2008.

Malinen, Harri, Director of International Relations. University of Lapland. Vaasa 7.3.2008.

Martinsen, Tuovi, Senior Adviser, International Academic Affairs. Sibelius Academy. Vaasa 7.4.2008.

Paakkanen, Irinja, Head of International Affairs. University of Turku. Vaasa 25.3.2008.

Rantanen, Mervi, Head of International Student Services. Helsinki University of Technology. Vaasa 18.3.2008.

Salmi, Eija, Head of International Affairs. University of Art and Design Helsinki. Vaasa
14.3.2008.

Savonlahti, Outi, Director of International Relations. University of Joensuu. Vaasa
10.3.2008.

Schoultz, Eeva, kansainvälisten asiain suunnittelija. Turku School of Economics. Vaasa
12.3.2008.

Suurmunne, Mari-Anna, Director of International Relations. Helsinki School of Eco-
nomics. Vaasa 17.3.2008.

Takalo, Tenho, Director of International Education Services. University of Tampere.
Vaasa 10.3.2008.