The strategic management of internationalization - towards a model of theory and practice

by

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Declaration

I certify that all material in this thesis which is not my own work has been identified and that no material is included which has been submitted for any other award or qualification.

Romuald E. J. Rudzki

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March 1998

Acknowledgements

An aside

The monumental undertaking that is a part-time research degree could justifiably be included as one of the labours of Hercules, in that it makes such demands upon the individual (together with relatives and friends), that its completion is indeed 'a consummation devoutly to be wished'.

By way of illustration to those who may not realise the extent of the labours, I offer the following examples. The physical demands from the restless nights as churning thoughts prevent sleep, to the endless hours of reading and searching for texts in badly-lit, overcrowded, overheated libraries, followed by the writing and revising with a concentration that denies the physical requirements of food, drink and even more fundamental bodily requirements. The mental exercise of constantly changing what is known about the subject and those rare meta-leaps as new insights and understandings are reached. The emotional highs and lows from the elation at having work accepted for publication and the joy of meeting other researchers, to the despair when better-funded and larger research teams - who started later - produce more comprehensive results in a shorter time, leaving one with the feeling that one is battling against ignorance with a pointed stick while others have a guided missile. Finally the spiritual demands of questioning the purpose and value of a research degree to one's life and work, and the need to draw upon inner reserves especially during the silent watches of the night when the clatter of the keyboard is all there is in the world.

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My computer, which although not without its viral illnesses has made the drafting, revision and final production of this thesis a much easier task than that undertaken by previous generations of students without access to such technology.

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Abstract

The research is concerned with examining the process of internationalization within higher education and specifically within UK Business Schools.

The fieldwork includes the first ever national survey of such institutions conducted in 1992 and was followed by detailed case studies of two institutions - one in the UK and the other in the Netherlands, both of which included staff and student interviews.

The findings examined the existence of policies and strategies, as well as critical factors for success, reasons for failure, obstacles and probable future directions.

The results show that internationalization within the UK is taking place in a variety of ways, with little or no consideration of the strategic management of the process and is driven both by the need to increase fees from overseas students and to attract external funding such as that available from the European Commission.

The thesis goes on to provide a fractal process model of internationalization which can be equally used by individual academics, as well as departments, faculties, institutions, national systems of education or for transnational organizations. The model is located within a conceptual framework developed using the methodology of grounded theory. The thesis concludes with an examination of possible future trends within higher education before returning to first principles in the form of a re-examination of the reasons for internationalization.

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Chapter One - Introduction

Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups, and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace.'

Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights

1.1 Rationale

The decision by the European Commission to introduce the ERASMUS (EuRopean Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students) scheme in 1987 has had a profound impact on the activities of Universities in the Twelve Member States.

The aims of ERASMUS were to stimulate four areas of activity: European University networks, the mobility of students within the European Community, mutual recognition of qualifications and 'Supplementary Measures'.

For the first time, significant external funding (85 million Ecus in 1987-1989, 192 million Ecus from 1990-1992) was available for these activities. The demand for student exchanges and the concomitant need for institutions to forge links across national boundaries led to an exponential growth in such links.

Where before only a handful of institutions had been able to exchange students - primarily those studying modern languages - now the advent of ERASMUS meant that exchanges in other subject areas - without restriction - were seen as desirable.

This financial stimulation of activities seen as desirable took place within a conceptual vacuum. No coherent body of work on the internationalization of Universities existed and the advice from the funders in Brussels was based on the continental desire to resist interfering in the autonomy of higher education.

This research thesis has been undertaken with the intention of reaching a better understanding of the state of internationalization of business education within UK higher education, by asking two fundamental questions:

(1) What is 'internationalization' within the context of UK higher education in general and Business Schools in particular? and:

(2) Why is it occurring?

To answer these questions, it became necessary to define 'internationalization' within the context of UK higher education and to locate it within a conceptual framework based upon the current and historical features of the sector.

1.2 Definitions

One of the major problems with this research has been the lack of an accepted definition of 'internationalization' within the context of education. For the purposes of this work internationalization within the context of higher education has been defined by the author as

> *a process of organizational change, curriculum innovation, staff development and student mobility for the purpose of attaining excellence in teaching, research and the other activities which universities undertake as part of their function.*

This working definition grew out of earlier work (Rudzki 1992).

The definition requires further explanation as to the primary and secondary purposes of Universities *per se* and this is discussed later in this Chapter.

'Internationalization' can be usefully contrasted to what is understood as 'globalization' within the context of human geography, 'international relations' in the political field, and concepts of 'multinationals', 'transnationals' and 'supranational organization' within organization theory and business.

Robertson (1995) makes the point (p. 15) that:

> *globalization as a concept refers both to the compression of the world and the intensification of consciousness of the world as a whole.*

The opposite of the concept is seen to be 'nationalization'. This confusion over meaning can be traced to an historical point (p. 53):

> *In the second half of the 1980's, 'globalization' (and its problematic variant 'internationalization') became a commonly used term in intellectual, business, media and other circles, in the process acquiring a number of meanings, with varying degrees of precision.*

The definition of 'Business School' is that used by the Association of Business Schools within the UK and is:

> *any Department, Faculty or other organizational unit that is specifically concerned with the teaching of business, whether the institution identifies such a unit as a 'Business School' or not.*

1.3 Structure of the research

The research has been undertaken using both survey and case study methods in order to ensure the questions have been approached through appropriately varied sources of data. This has included an examination of the processes by which internationalization has happened and identification of the obstacles that have impeded such change at institutional level.

In the main body of the work, the research has moved from the descriptive to the prescriptive, with the construction of a theoretical model of institutional internationalization based upon current practice. This has been informed by the body of theoretical knowledge concerning organizational change and the way in which the formal and informal processes of organizational behaviour affect the outcomes of such change whether they are planned or not.

This research has arisen out of the author's need to critically examine his own work practices. It also ensures that career development is made possible through the undertaking of postgraduate research and publications, which are generally considered to be prerequisites for promotion within higher education.

1.4 Time scale of the research

The research formally commenced in October 1992, with the fieldwork being undertaken in the academic years 1992-5. Statistics relate to the academic year 1992/3 - a year of transition with the Polytechnics being incorporated as Universities. The literature search conducted included publications up to December 1996. The research does not include the findings of the Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education (the Dearing Report) published in 1997.

The lack of more current statistics is inevitable for the simple reason that the various agencies - Department for Education and Employment, European Commission, Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals and so forth - all operate with a considerable delay in publishing statistical data.

1.5 The structure of the thesis

The thesis follows a traditional form. Chapter 1 has provided the rationale for the research, definitions of key terms, and a short summary of the way the research was carried out together with the time-scale.

Chapter 2 deals with a review of the literature up to December 1992, with later publications dealt with in Chapter 5.

Chapter 3 deals with the methodological issues for the research together with details of how the work was actually carried out.

Chapter 4 presents the results of the fieldwork, namely the national postal survey and the two case studies with interview findings.

Chapter 5 discusses the results of the fieldwork and places it in the context of the literature from the beginning of 1993 to the end of 1996.

Chapter 6 moves from the descriptive to the prescriptive with the formulation of a fractal process model of institutional development on the basis of the empirical work undertaken and the findings of other researchers. The chapter also includes the conclusion to the thesis and speculation about the likely impact of future influences.

Chapter Two - Review of the Literature

Some sailed to the sea in ships
to trade on the mighty waters

Psalm 106, verse 23, The Bible

2.1 Summary

This Chapter is concerned with reviewing the literature chronologically from the Robbins Report of 1963 up to the end of 1992 when the empirical work began, with subsequent publications - up to the end of 1996 - being covered in Chapter 5. This initial period includes the Robbins Report, two major UK pieces - 'Freedom to Study' and 'The Overseas Student Question' - the start of the EC's Erasmus programme in 1986, the EC's 1991 Memorandum on Higher Education, and Klasek's (1992) 'Bridges to the Future' collection of papers.

Both the subject of internationalization policy and the development of business schools within the UK are dealt with, albeit separately. As shall be seen later, the intervening years have seen a significant increase in research in the area of internationalization, arising largely out of the experiences of practitioners and their need to make sense of events, as well as to find solutions to the everyday problems of internationalization - whether this be in such areas as the impact of European Union funding, expectations of exchange students or the issue of recognition of study abroad as an element within an overall programme of study.

2.2 Overview

This desire to integrate British Higher Education into a larger European and global network is not new. Throughout history, scholars have sought out centres of learning where they could pursue their studies in the company of other like-minded individuals. However, what differentiates the past from the present is the rate of change, the introduction of information technology and the need to prepare students to work in a global village.

Much has been written about the purpose of Universities (Newman 1890, Jaspers 1965, Barnett 1990 and Wyatt, 1990) and indeed such reflections are currently the subject of the periodic UK governmental interest in higher education which received its last major airing with the Robbins Report in 1963 and which is now being undertaken under Sir Ron Dearing's Chairmanship of the Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education, with the publication of the findings expected in 1997. It therefore seemed appropriate to choose the Robbins Report as the starting point for the review of the literature.

Within this historical context, internationalization seems to be the *deux ex machina*, with neither Robbins nor the Terms of Reference for Dearing making direct reference to it. This is regrettable, since integration if not pre-eminence with the wider educational world would appear to be integral to the whole concept of *universitas* as a place where the global community of scholars can engage in a free and open exchange of knowledge. The charge that can be made against universities in any country is how they can deny that their educational provision is not limited or outdated - and therefore of little or no value - if they do not engage in global exchange of knowledge or internationalization in whatever subject is taught.

However, the paucity of the conceptual underpinning of internationalization as a vehicle for understanding the purpose and activities of institutions, leads inevitably to confusion and an inability to be clear about direction.

2.3 The Robbins Report (1963)

Robbins made a number of references to international matters, namely a complete Chapter (Chapter V) to international comparisons of UK higher education which were based on overseas visits - to the Federal German Republic, France, Netherlands, Sweden, Switzerland, USA, and USSR - and additional material supplied to the Committee. It is all the more surprising therefore that no detailed reference was made as to how UK higher education could become more international in its outlook and approach in for example, curriculum innovation, organizational development or staff development. Whether this was because of a lack of understanding or the cost implications of any recommendations is a matter for the original contributors to declare.

Issues as to the viability of courses without the presence of overseas students - especially at postgraduate level - are ignored, as they represent a 'benefit' to the universities, but Robbins recognizes that education as overseas aid (paragraph 175):

> *yields a tangible return...It is however an open question whether the aid is best given by subsidising fees.*

Where reference was made to internationalization, it was to the proportion of overseas students (paragraph 47) being 7% of undergraduates and 32% of postgraduates, and equating to some 10% of the overall student population, with 60% being from the Commonwealth.

Paragraph 173 is quoted here in its entirety as it represents the most comprehensive justification for internationalization - understood in terms of overseas students - in the whole report:

> *173. The presence here in institutions of higher education of students from abroad is widely regarded as valuable, and rightly so in our judgement. It fosters a sense of international community on both sides. It encourages a valuable give-and-take. The connections to which it gives rise are not without their diplomatic and economic advantages; and where students from developing countries are concerned it provides a helpful contribution to their country's advancement. We should greatly regret a dwindling in the number of overseas students in British universities and colleges.*

Explanations of the benefits of overseas students are not forthcoming - the sense of international community, the diplomatic and economic benefits, and education as overseas aid are treated as 'givens' without the necessary evidence to justify such an analysis. It is left to others - described below - to find the evidence for such beliefs and they remain as under researched areas to the present. The regret expressed by Robbins has to be tempered by later comments on the level of fees paid which immediately follows in the next paragraph:

> *174. But it is not sufficiently recognised that, with fees at their present level, provision for overseas students costs the taxpayers of this country a very substantial amount. Even when the student pays his own fees, as most of them do, the net recurrent cost of each to the public purse is on average about £450 a year; the total annual subsidy involved amounts at the present time to something like £9 million.*

Robbins' use of the social demand model for planning the growth of higher education is not without its flaws, in that it reduces the argument to a simplistic market one, of supply and demand, without reference to other arguments within and outwith the economic domain, such as the desirability of higher education as a social good *per se*, or even of the economic necessity of an internationally-based education as an investment in, and vehicle for, the long-term growth and prosperity of the nation.

Such ultimate definition of the issue of overseas students in terms of subsidies and costs, leads inevitably to questions of increased fee levels and it should come as no surprise that the Robbins Report presented the argument for the subsequent introduction of increased differential fees for overseas students in 1979 as reported in Hansard (1979, 1980).

It should also be noted that the argument is not immune from application to the question of home students and their 'cost' to the tax payer, as has been repeatedly used by Her Majesty's Government in recent years - both with the introduction of student loans and in the reduced unit of base funding given to universities. However, one can argue that defining education as a cost - and not an investment - is precisely the sort of thinking that fails to grasp the necessity of education as a prerequisite for success in modern post-industrial society and which global comparisons make clear (Economist, 1992).

A different approach - as shown later - has informed the thinking of the European Commission with its desire to use higher education to foster European integration through Erasmus and other of its programmes.

2.4 Freedom to Study Report (1978)

The next seminal Report in the UK (Reed, Hutton and Bazalgette, 1978) was the product of the London-based Overseas Student Trust, which had been established in 1961, and which in 1978 produced a report entitled *Freedom to Study* (sometimes known as The Grubb Institute Report). This report went further than the Robbins Report because it looked at the relationship between overseas students, the institutions they studied at and their educational experience as a whole.

However, one point of congruence with Robbins was that internationalization was still perceived as overseas students - not just from Europe - coming to the UK to study. No evidence was collected, for example, on curriculum innovation by way of design or content to reflect whether the subjects studied were at the cutting edge of knowledge globally. This may be because of a belief in the international pre-eminence of British higher education which persists to this day, despite the problems of recent years of rapid expansion and underfunding.

(Readers should note that the term 'overseas student' is peculiar to the UK, with the commonly accepted term elsewhere being 'foreign student').

The Report made the point that the relationship between the foreign student and their place of study is not a matter of state policy, but has the greatest effect on the experience of the student:

> *True, the quality of that experience will be affected by the extent to which positive discrimination (special advisory services or reserved student accommodation, for example) or negative discrimination (on fees, the right to earn through work, etc.) is exercised, and such discrimination often emanates from state policy. But basically the relationship between student and teacher, student and institution, is not mediated through the state.*
> (in Williams, P. 1981)

Such a view makes plain the fact that institutions cannot look to deny their responsibilities in ensuring the quality of the educational experience. Other writers, most notably Kinnell (1990) have developed this theme and shown how overseas students do not enjoy the support that might be expected given their 'full-fee' status, which might suggest an expectation of a higher standard of provision than their non-fee-paying counterparts.

2.5 The Overseas Student Question (1981)

Following the Grubb Institute Report, The Overseas Student Trust commissioned Williams (1981) to edit a collection of papers entitled *The Overseas Student Question - Studies for a Policy* which provided a comprehensive analysis of the research and publications concerning overseas students over the previous twenty years. This summative piece of work covers many of the central questions still relevant to the larger issue of internationalization.

It commences with a piece by Williams in which he identifies what he calls the emerging 'problem' of overseas students. On the opening page he refers back to the great medieval centres of learning which upheld the tradition *of an intellectual forum, international in character, a concept and a reality transcending the bounds of a particular nation or culture.* (p.1)

He argues that this legacy has given rise to the archetype of the wandering scholar which has its modern equivalent in the overseas student, albeit at the postgraduate level. Whether such a romantic idyll can be substantiated by historical evidence is open to question, but Williams goes on to make the point that contemporary mass - as compared to individual - migration to Higher Education Institutions is qualitatively different being based upon the *movement of the partially educated, often in search as much of qualifications as of knowledge and wisdom.*

He gives the global figure of over 1 million higher education students (both undergraduates and postgraduates) studying abroad in 1980 to support this view, with Britain's contribution being the third largest (60,000) after the USA (300,000) and France.

While it is certainly true from statistical returns that the recruitment of overseas students for undergraduate courses had increased, one can take issue with Williams' labelling of research students as being 'partially educated' since if this were true, they would not fulfil the criteria for admission set by universities, unless special provisions of either a formal or informal nature were in operation.

The reasons for such growth in foreign student numbers are stated as being largely to do with transport and communications, with a growing awareness of the opportunities available through the publication of education directories. To this was added the legacy of colonialism which imbued overseas qualifications with a greater perceived value than those obtained within the home country.

The pursuit of educational qualifications for their economic - as opposed to innate educational - value has been corroborated by Ronald Dore (1976) (in Williams, 1981) as the 'Diploma Disease'. He argues that it is set to continue as the upward qualifications drift increases particularly within economies suffering from large scale unemployment.

Dore argued that this economic element extends beyond the individual to the societal level with the recognition by Governments and large private sector employers of the value of overseas qualifications, particularly during periods of rapid economic growth when the internal higher education system is incapable of meeting the demand for graduate manpower.

In such circumstances, it can be argued that the award of bursaries and scholarships can be seen as an indicator of the economic rationalisation of overseas study. However, such a situation can also contribute to the phenomena of the 'brain-drain' as evidenced in 'Coming top: a survey of education' undertaken by the Economist (1992). The founding principles of the Soros Foundation have addressed this issue in regards to Central and Eastern Europe, where the region's brightest and best have chosen not to return to their home country, preferring to use their new qualifications precisely for the purpose of improving their personal economic well-being elsewhere in a form of economic migration that is welcomed by the host countries.

Meanwhile, the growth of the 'problem' of overseas students in the UK context was being exacerbated by social changes of an opposite nature such as the demise of colonialism, leading to a rise in a perception of national interest which was very different from that which prevailed at the height of the British Empire, and its contiguous need for educated civil servants in the colonies if nothing else.

It is interesting to note Williams' comment - made in 1981 - that:

> *These past two decades* [the 1960s and 70s] *have also been years of accountancy, a golden age of cost-benefit analysis. Costs have been scrutinised, benefits analysed and calculated in all sorts of areas of activity. The economists have had a field day, insisting that accepted obligations and cherished relationships should now be subjected to cold economic calculus. Values and obligations can only be sustained if they contribute directly to our economic self-interest: and that contribution should preferably be calculable.* (p4).

As will be shown later, this approach has been transferred from the governmental level to the institutional - and even departmental level - so that the dominance of the economic interests of universities above their educational interests in the field of international activity is now a defining feature of the UK higher education system.

This has arisen directly out of the calculation of the 'overseas student subsidy' at the time of Robbins which Williams (p4) states:

> *represented in a sense the end of the 'age of innocence' in respect of overseas students in Britain. Once the cost of educating overseas students stopped being seen as an incalculable part of the natural order of things, and became instead a matter of cost and choice, the need for 'a national policy' was with us.*

Hansard (1979, 1980) is revealing in this respect, with the debates on this subject expressing an unusual amount of insight into the justification for the actions taken to introduce full-cost fees, which occurred in 1979.

The pressures for a decision on fee level were: firstly, the rapid growth in numbers involving a subsidy, which was paid irrespective of the country of origin; secondly, course being taken (science and technology being more 'expensive'); and thirdly, British national interests. In addition, because of the *extraordinary levels of concentration, quite sizeable parts of the tertiary education system were catering for overseas students almost exclusively.* (Williams, p9).

That such a policy of 'full-fees' for overseas students was announced in 1979 - in the same year that the Conservative Party gained power - raises issues of how much it was to do with a coherent vision of the internationalization of British higher education, and how much with reducing costs or appealing to the 'Little Englander' (what is now known as the 'Eurosceptic') mentality of the political right, with its subtext of racism, immigration control and a longing for the return of Britain's colonial past. Overseas students were therefore a soft target as they had no political influence and were in the UK for a relatively short period.

Where national policy did not extend in these years was to the actual experience of individual students. Williams (p5) again lapses into untested wish-fulfilment when he states that:

> *There is sympathy for the idea of the poor but bright unsponsored student, for the political refugee, for the person of idiosyncratic and unconventional mind to find a place in our system 'in spite of the bureaucrats'. Any arrangements under a new policy for overseas students have somehow to protect this tradition.*

The tradition referred to is presumably that of full scholarships based on independent selection - usually via the British Council - on the basis of intellectual merit.

To return to the question of the need for a national policy, Williams (p6) provides three possible reasons for the desire to limit the numbers or composition of overseas students. The first of these is what he calls the *diminution of opportunity* for UK students by the displacement effect of overseas students filling places that would otherwise have been available for home students. He suggests that the imposition of a quota system might be justifiable in this respect, with the actual percentage of overseas students in UK higher education having risen from 5.6% in 1971/2 to 11.0% in 1979/80.

Such a view ignores the point that the viability of some under-subscribed courses was in fact maintained by the presence of overseas students, providing not a displacement but the very opposite effect.

The second reason for a national policy is the argument in terms of the strain on local services, housing stock and so forth. Again the evidence (Kinnell, 1990) shows the opposite, with the economic contribution of overseas students being estimated at various amounts in the local and national economy. The increased demand for facilities supports growth which would otherwise not be financially viable.

The third and final argument is the belief that overseas students were subsidised. As can be seen in the evidence following the introduction of 'full-cost' fees at the start of the 1980/81 academic year, any such argument is no longer tenable.

In deciding any further national policy on overseas students, Williams (p10) summarised the main British interests and obligations as being:

(A) *British interests*

(1) Educational

(i) Attracting bright scholars;

(ii) Value of international element in educational institutions;

(iii) Research output of overseas students;

(iv) Reciprocal access for British scholars to overseas institutions.

(2) Economic

(i) Spending on goods and services;

(ii) Balance of payments;

(iii) Future export orders for goods and services.

(3) Political

(i) Direct influence and goodwill towards Britain;

(ii) Promotion of democratic values.

(B) *British obligations*

(1) Formal obligations

(i) Treaty obligations;

(ii) Cultural exchange agreements;

(iii) Pledges under international schemes of co-operation.

(2) Informal responsibilities

(i) Assistance to developing countries;

(ii) Countries educationally dependent on Britain;

(iii) Students already on course;

(iv) Refugees.

In the above list, Williams fails to address issues of moral or epistemological necessity in the sense of universities requiring an international dimension to their learning and teaching, and approaches the argument from the standpoint of national self-interest compared to one of altruism or to the personal development of British students who are exposed to other cultures. In this he arguably misses the fact that internationalization is a *necessary condition* for a university.

The arguments put forward by Williams continued to dominate the argument within the UK, until 1986 when the European Commission put forward its plans to stimulate European integration of higher education principally by funding student mobility through the Erasmus Programme.

2.6 ERASMUS

It should be noted that the debate on internationalization in the European Union has not been defined in terms of national self-interest. As might be expected, a broader perspective of preparing students for European citizenship and enhancing the economic growth of the whole continent has been used to justify the European Commission's development of Higher Education policy and practice across the European Community.

The ERASMUS (EuRopean community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students) programme owes its name to the fact that as Budd (1985) puts it:

there was considerably more traffic between the students of Europe when Erasmus was teaching in the late fifteenth and sixteenth centuries than there is today.

ERASMUS was concerned with the mobility of students from all disciplines across the European Community, and although rejected on grounds of cost by the Council in June 1986, found later acceptance with an initial budget of 85m Ecus for the initial period from 1987-1989 rising to 192m Ecus for 1990-1992 (Gondrand, 1991).

The major aim of the programme was to ensure that at least 10% of students would have the opportunity to study in another of the twelve Member States for a period of one year. This was to be achieved by the provision of grants to students. The funding of three other elements made the programme very attractive to higher education institutions: (1) the establishment of European university networks, (2) mutual recognition of qualifications and (3) 'supplementary measures.'

In the period 1992/93, the Erasmus and Lingua Directory shows that Business and Management Science had the fourth largest number of ICPs (Inter-University Cooperation Programmes) with 197 (9.2%), and followed Engineering (283, 13.3%), combined Languages, Literature, and Linguistics (214, 10.0%), and Social Sciences (202, 9.5%) (Table 1). This can be misinterpreted if the total number of students is not considered, where Business and Management Studies had the largest number of mobile students with 18,095, compared to Engineering in second place with 8,781 (Table 9).

However, in terms of total ICPs for all subject areas, the UK led with 473 (22.2%), and both sending and receiving the largest number of students (16,688 and 19,060 respectively giving a net mobility flow of -2372) (Table 4). Within this total, the largest subject area was Business and Management Studies with 4,326 UK students going abroad as part of approved ICPs (Table 9).

It should be noted that other EC programmes such as Framework have also had a major impact on research and development activities within universities across the European Union. As with other programmes, Britain has been singularly successful in attracting funding for reasons deserving of further exploration, but which may include the cuts in

UK national funding, the strength of UK applications and the increasing resources allocated within UK universities - such as European Officer posts - whose function is explicitly to attract external funding.

The direct successors of Erasmus are the Leonardo and Socrates programmes, which have distilled the lessons learnt by their predecessor in such areas as the introduction of institution-wide contracts (not per course as previously) in order to reduce the amount of paperwork involved with processing applications. Not surprisingly, there has been a negative response to such centralisation from academic staff who fear the dominance of the centre within their own institutions and resent the loss of control over budgets.

2.7 The EC's Memorandum on Higher Education (1991)

ERASMUS has been influential in determining the shape of future developments in internationalization as seen in the European Commission's 1991 Memorandum on Higher Education. This might more accurately be called *Europeanization* since it relates to the Member States.

Within the Memorandum, the contours of the future Higher Educational landscape have been defined in terms of:

- Student Mobility within the Community
- Co-operation between Institutions at European level
- Europe in the Curriculum
- The Central Importance of Language
- The Training of Teachers
- Recognition of Qualifications and Periods of Study
- The International Role of Higher Education
- Information and Policy Analysis
- Dialogue with the Higher Education Sector

Such an approach goes beyond the narrow perspective of national governments and recognises the *'strategic importance...vital for the future of Europe'* of higher education in ensuring long-term economic and social success.

The impact of the Memorandum has yet to be assessed but as the expression of European Union policy, it can be expected that it will have an increasingly important influence on national policy-making.

The experience of the European Union in internationalizing its higher education systems can be usefully compared to events elsewhere and it is this that the next section addresses.

2.8 Comparative studies of internationalization

Perhaps the best known author on higher education globally is Philip Altbach of the University of New York at Buffalo who in a number of texts - such as 'International Higher Education - An Encyclopedia' (1991) - has advanced our understanding of the nature of systems of higher education throughout the world and how these interact, such as the 1 million students who study outside of their country each year. There is no doubt in his mind (1989, p125) that:

> *Academic institutions are international. They are linked across international boundaries by a common historical tradition. They are connected by an international knowledge network that communicates research world-wide through books, journals and increasingly, data bases (Altbach, 1987). Scholars are part of an 'invisible college' that constitutes disciplines and specialities. The role of the major world languages, especially English in the late twentieth century, is also an internationalising element. More than any other major institution, the university is by nature international.*

He goes on (p126) to state one of the key issues when studying the whole question of this student mobility which is predominantly from the Third World to the industrialized nations:

Too often, structural inequalities are forgotten as people of good will try to implement programmes and formulate policy. Foreign students study the curriculum of the host country, in the language of the host country. The policies of the host country determine the configuration of foreign study.

He continues by identifying some of the specific elements of the phenomena of foreign study as knowledge transfer, foreign study policy and how this restricts mobility, the economic realities of foreign study, individual experiences, and the growth of the foreign study industry through such specialisms as evaluation of foreign qualifications and English language teaching.

He highlights (p128) an issue that recurs throughout the literature on this subject:

Given the importance of foreign scholars as an element in international educational exchange it is surprising that there is so little research and analysis on them. There is a need to know the motivation for involvement in foreign scholar programmes, about the impact of the problems and experiences, of the nature of research and teaching, and of the unanticipated consequences of the experience.

Apart from Altbach, other national studies of internationalization have been undertaken by a number of authors who have all approached the topic of internationalization agreeing about its desirability. For example, Berchem (1991), writing about the German situation, makes the point that the importance of internationalization has been reinforced by three major developments - the Single European Market, the collapse of Communism in Central and Eastern Europe, and global interdependence.

This contrasts with the perspective of the United States. As a Superpower with a vested interest in ensuring the continuation of its ideas and influence, the internationalization of its own higher education institutions has been addressed by Klasek as described below.

2.9 Bridges to the Future (1992)

Up to the start of the research, the seminal work on the subject of internationalization was a collection of papers edited by Klasek (1992) in which various US authors - with the exception of Davies of Anglia Polytechnic University in the UK - made valuable contributions to the debate in such varied areas as the administration of international education (Rahman and Kopp), internationalization of the curriculum (Harari) and the need for a definition of international education (Arum and Van de Water). Davies' construction of a strategy for internationalization is discussed in a later Chapter of this thesis alongside other models.

The importance of Klasek's collection of papers is that practitioners were able to detail the various issues raised by internationalization in a way that brought their work to an international audience, which arose out of the publication of the book by the Association of International Education Administrators.

Within this body of work available globally, it is now necessary to move to the specificities of the history of business schools within the UK's higher education sector and to examine the impact of internationalization on their activities.

2.10 The origins of the Business School in British Higher Education

Very little has been written about Business Schools in the UK and this dearth of publications causes particular problems for those wishing to undertake meaningful research. However a chronology of the development of UK Business Schools reveals a number of key events and texts:

Table 1: Chronology of key events in UK business education

1902	University of Birmingham is first to offer degree in Commerce
1904	University of Manchester offers degree in Commerce
1920	University of London offers degree in Commerce
1945	Henley Staff College offering in-service management education
1947	British Institute of Management (BIM) offers DMS (Diploma in Management Studies)
1963	Robbins Report proposes establishment of two University Business Schools on the US model
1964	BIM Report on Business Education
1969	Polytechnics formed and continue to offer management courses
1969	May 30 - University of the Air (Open University) granted Royal Charter. Open University Business School offers distance courses
1971	Owen Report (BIM)
1981/2	Introduction of 'full-fees' for overseas students
1987	Handy Report (BIM)
1988	Education Reform Act (abolition of academic tenure)
1989	Polytechnics and Colleges of Higher Education become independent
1990	HMI Report
1992	Harmonisation of the Single European Market and EC's *Memorandum on Higher Education*
1992/3	Education Act (1992). CNAA reports on business education. Polytechnics gain University status. CNAA abolished
1993	OECD initiates Project entitled 'Higher Education in a New International setting'. November 30 - Budget reduces student grants by 10%.
1996	Association of Business Schools publishes 'Pillars of the Economy' as its submission to Dearing
1997	Dearing Report published

One cannot hope to understand the present without understanding where it came from. Any discussion of the current state of UK Business Schools needs to be informed therefore by an awareness of the way in which the practice of 'commerce' and 'trade' grew into the discipline of economics which in turn gave rise to 'business' and 'management' as subjects.

Business education within UK higher education is currently thought of as both full- and part-time courses, ranging from the Certificate in Management Studies to postgraduate taught and research programmes such as the much discussed Master of Business Administration and the recent introduction of the (taught) Doctor of Business Administration. Such courses have their origins in a much earlier tradition of preparation for a career in commerce or trade.

(It should be noted that Commerce is still taught at Ordinary and Advanced level within UK secondary education and differs from courses at the same level in Business by concerning itself with practical issues such as documentation as compared to business theory).

Engwall (1993) makes the point that 15th century English merchants sent their sons to commercial centres such as Venice to study mathematical sciences as this was thought to be a suitable process of formation. The preparation then of young men for a career in commerce - for invariably it was young men, since such pursuits were not thought suitable for young ladies - was undertaken through an apprenticeship served with an experienced practitioner. Such an apprenticeship would have no fixed programme of studies but was concerned with the immersion of the youth in the practicalities of various aspects of the occupation in question whether this be manufacture, shipping, banking or some other activity.

Grassby (1995) focuses on the business community of seventeenth century England and how careers were made. He describes how the landed gentry prepared their heirs to manage the family fortune and how it was common for the youngest son to be encouraged to enter 'trade'.

This process of education was reinforced in the 17th century by the rise of international trade which was dominated by the sea-faring nations such as the Dutch - with the Dutch East India Company - and the English - with the establishment of the East India

Company in 1600. Both countries used these companies in order to gain a competitive advantage for developing their economies.

The increase in international trade with its benefits for the national economy in such areas as the development of the ports and docks infrastructure, led to the creation of wealthy companies. Speculation in these companies in turn gave rise to both the London Stock Exchange and the Lloyd's marine insurance trade from their origins in the coffee-houses of the time. The establishment in 1694 of the Bank of England provided the means by which the government could exercise control of fiscal policy which was in danger of escaping it altogether.

With the publication of Adam Smith's *The Wealth of Nations* in 1776, the systematic analysis of national wealth creation which had been pioneered by the Physiocrats in France reached a wide British audience and influenced Pitt in his pursuit of free trade in opposition to the prevailing belief in customs tariffs and barriers. This has echoes in the present-day with the rise of economics as a separate (and earlier) academic discipline to business, and in the choice of degrees in such subjects as International Business Studies or (national) Business Studies.

Roderick has described (1978) the way in which 19th century business influenced education particularly as regards what we would now call 'vocational training' as meeting the needs of businesses suffering shortages of suitable employees.

It was not until the beginning of the twentieth century that academic degrees in commerce were offered by the Universities of Birmingham (1902), Manchester (1904) and London (1920). A Diploma in Management Studies (DMS) was offered by Henley Staff College (from 1945) and the British Institute of Management (from 1947).

Robbins (1963, paragraph. 405-413) addressed the question of whether business studies and education for management should be located within higher education. He compared the UK situation in the teaching of management unfavourably with that existing within the US with its *great business schools*. He recommended that *at least two major postgraduate schools should be built up, in addition to other developments already probable in universities and other institutions.* He insisted that two conditions were necessary for the two schools, that firstly they should be *associated with a well established institution* and that secondly *these schools should be situated in the neighbourhood of large business centres.* The recommendations were later implemented with the establishment of London and Manchester Business Schools.

As regards what is now known as 'post-experience' courses, that is courses for individuals in employment, Robbins notes the success of the Administrative Staff College at Henley.

Perhaps the most controversial approach is that expounded by Griffiths and Murray (1985), where they develop a theme expounded by Robbins (1963) and suggest the privatization of Business Schools in order to increase their impact. Although Robbins was aware of the problems associated with income differentials between the private sector and higher education, he opted for the part-time route even though such a suggestion has a number of problems - the part-time nature of visiting speakers, the need for full-time staff to support students and to undertake course administration, provide continuity, and to engage in research. He felt that privatisation would fail to address these same issues and would fall into the trap experienced by the French with their private business schools of low status, poor facilities, 'libraries' of a couple of bookshelves and part-time inexperienced staff.

(This experience of the *private* sector, should be compared with the French and German *public* sector business schools which are linked to Chambers of Commerce. These statutory organizations wield enormous influence and power in support of businesses, compared to their British counterparts who are voluntary organizations with little economic power to promote their members interests, let alone wider economic development.)

The 1990 HMI Report examined Business and Management Studies in the Polytechnics and Colleges. It found that Business and Management Studies was the single largest programme area in the sector accounting for 26.5% of the student population. The Inspectors noted that business and management education studies were offered (in 1990) in very nearly 300 institutions, with the majority being in 35 universities, 29 polytechnics and 20 other colleges. In the period 1988-90, about 150,000 students were on higher education courses in business and management studies in England, with some 70% being in the non-university sector.

The Report commented favourably on many aspects of provision including:

> *innovative curriculum development...well subscribed courses which attract well qualified and highly motivated students...[and] sound and professional teaching.*

The weaknesses identified included:

> *the arrangements for staff development which need to place a greater emphasis on the updating of industrial and commercial experience...[and] inappropriate assessment techniques on some courses.*

However, the comprehensive list of recommendations did not include any direct reference to international issues but did make mention of the need to:

> *improve the marketing of courses and services...[and to] work more closely with local, regional and national industries as well as their local and regional communities.*

The only reference to internationalization to be found is concerned with work placement overseas (p17) and the fact that:

> *Some institutions encounter difficulties in accommodating the established working practices of the host country. Although there are obvious benefits to be derived, it is important for institutions to give careful consideration to the academic and financial implications of overseas placements.*

That the *obvious benefits* were never made explicit is to be regretted, as they would go some way to illustrating what was seen as constituting international activity at that time within the sector, albeit in terms of outward student mobility.

The way in which international student mobility takes place in order to study at leading business schools is discussed by Paliwoda (1990), who lists the extent of provision within business schools including a pecking order of institutions based on corporate and peer review (especially common in the US). He also provides a useful comparison of teaching and learning approaches across the US, UK and France.

His rankings of UK business schools (p38-41) are based primarily on the results of the University Grants Committee's 1986 subject area assessment, which identified the outstanding schools to be the Institute of Finance at the London Business School, UMIST (in Manchester) and Warwick.

A similar ranking based on the Universities' Funding Council 1988 research assessment revealed only London Business School and Warwick scoring a maximum 5, with UMIST and the London School of Economics scoring a 4.

The most important pieces of work on international activities within UK Business Schools are two reports by the CNAA (1991, 1992) and an article by Arkin (1991) who examined a selection of Business Schools and concluded that real internationalization was taking place, even though this was against a background of difficulties and constraints such as lack of funding and lack of foreign language ability.

The 1992 CNAA Review looked at international business and management courses in 37 business schools, to be found in the University and private sector. On 27 October 1992 the groupings that represented the various institutions (AMBE and CUMS) merged into a single association known as the Association of Business Schools (ABS).

The Review concluded that:

> *Business schools will need to become more international, and each will need to define where on the spectrum from local to fully international they wish to be. Fully international schools will be few in number; they will be recognisably international in every aspect - governing body, faculty, clients, students and participants, institutional links, programmes and course content.*

It also provided valuable details on how this was to be achieved and potential problems which were the additional funding required, internal staff resistance, the shortage of foreign language ability amongst staff and students, the inferior mathematical skills of UK students when compared to their foreign counterparts, the crucial importance of choosing the right overseas partner institutions, the problems of cross-cultural communication and the belief that drop-out rates were higher for international programmes.

Here we see the first signs of internationalization being understood as more than simply overseas students studying in the UK.

A number of trends were identified within the Report and stated (p27) that institutions identified:

> *the potential for growth and the spread of internationalism internally...[with] continuing growth in international programmes, coming from:*

- *increasing student numbers;*
- *more links with foreign schools;*
- *other EC languages (than French and German);*
- *other European countries, especially Central and Eastern Europe;*
- *countries outside Europe, particularly the Pacific Rim and ASEAN;*
- *franchising;*
- *distance learning;*
- *more joint research.*

It should be noted however that internationalization is not only the preserve of courses such as those in international business studies, where it would be considered to be a logical necessity, but of other courses since - as is argued later - the purpose of internationalization is to ensure excellence in teaching and research across the entire institution, which in the context of business studies would include the intellectual, as compared to the physical, mobility of students.

The identification of measures of internationalization (p11) draws on the earlier CNAA (1991) review of the MBA programme to identify the following:

- *having an international reputation among employers;*
- *attracting students from a wide range of countries;*
- *having an international faculty;*
- *having staff with an international reputation;*
- *establishing links with overseas business schools;*
- *offering joint programmes with overseas schools;*
- *using international teaching materials;*
- *including compulsory or optional foreign languages;*
- *focusing on relevant international research.*

Such measures provided the basis for measuring the level of internationalization within business schools and showed interesting features which are discussed alongside the results of the survey conducted for the purposes of this research in Chapter 4.

The distinction between 'internationalization' as opposed to 'Europeanization' is taken up by Birtwhistle (1993), who argues for a European context and framework for business education, in the sense of international business studies, which teach a number of skills, experiences and abilities such as foreign languages, cross-cultural working and technical knowledge.

He felt that this had direct financial implications for institutions since:

> *It is quite generally accepted that courses with international links are more complex to administer, manage, co-ordinate and develop academically than 'home based' courses.*

There are a variety of ways in which such developments can be undertaken such as Joint Degree programmes (where a single qualification is awarded by all participating institutions) with a problem of recognition by employers, or Dual Award programmes, (where a number of awards are given) and there is the illusion of students having undertaken a number of distinct courses.

To summarise then, within UK universities, the development of business education can be traced to the turn of the twentieth century. The subject area has been most notably influenced by the Robbins Report and the establishment of the Polytechnic sector. The popularity of the subject remains high and is set to remain so, given the belief that a degree in business is the best route into work within the private sector.

2.11 Strategic management and organizational change

The view of internationalization as a process of change, and Business Schools as organizations can be explored using the objectivist and subjectivist approaches cited by Cohen and Manion, (p10-11) as adapted from Barr and Greenfield, (1975):

Figure 2. Conceptions of social reality (extract)

Dimension of comparison	*Objectivist*	*Subjectivist*
Organizations	Goal orientated. Independent of people. Instruments of order in society serving both society and the individual	Dependent upon people and their goals. Instruments of power which some people control and can use to attain ends which seem good to them
Organizational pathologies	Organization can get out of kilter with social values and individual needs	Given diverse human ends, there is always conflict among people acting to pursue them
Prescription for change	Change the structure of the organization to meet social values and individual needs	Find out what values are embodied in organizational action and whose they are. Change the people or change their values if you can

Theories of strategic management make such contrasting approaches explicit and the application of strategic management to higher education has been discussed by Easterby-Smith (1987), and Kelly & Shaw (1987). Easterby-Smith differentiates between the normative (using such tools as SWOT, STEP and the Boston Consulting Group Matrix) and descriptive approaches of strategic management as described by Leontiades (1979).

The descriptive approach has been championed by Mintzberg (1978), who has defined strategy as a *'pattern of decisions'*, which either lead directly from an intended strategy to a released strategy, or are diverted from the intended to an unrealised then emergent to a released strategy. This latter indirect route is often found in universities as described by Clark (1983) due to the particular organizational culture considerations found within academic life with its need for *'critical detachment'* as outlined by Rutherford et al. (1985).

Such an academic culture is based on the intellectual independence of staff with any allegiance being primarily to their subject, departmental colleagues or profession such as Law, Medicine or Foreign Languages, and not to the institution as a whole. Such an organizational arrangement is exacerbated by funding arrangements which will favour one area of study above another, whether such discrimination is shown at the institutional level, or in the case of the UK, at the Governmental level.

Within such a culture therefore, it is inevitable that management inspired initiatives will be tempered by the experience of the chalk-face staff who may see such initiatives as being externally driven and not something that is a useful contribution to their work.

Holdaway and Meekison (1990) provide an example of the application of the strategic planning approach to the activities of the University of Alberta in Canada. They conclude that:

> *successful University planning requires appropriate procedures, wide involvement, trust, recognition of the political realities of universities, emphasis on the process, and proper timing.*

Johnson and Scholes (1989) have argued that strategic management is to be understood in three interdependent stages: strategic analysis, strategic choice and strategic implementation.

The application of this process is given in Chapters 5 and 6 as the basis for the model of internationalization developed.

Chapter Three - Methodology

The essence of science: ask an impertinent question, and you are on the way to a pertinent answer.

Jacob Bronowski, (1908-1974)
in *The Ascent of Man* (1973), Chapter 4

3.1 The research question

Initial observations

The question of how and why internationalization is occurring within the UK's Business Schools, has arisen out of my experiences as Co-ordinator for Overseas Affairs at Newcastle Business School. This post has brought me into contact with colleagues both within the UK and overseas, so that my observation of everyday working in the field has presented me with a bewildering array of activities such as student exchanges, franchising of courses overseas, Dual and Joint Qualifications, new courses on International Business and so forth.

Unable to find any coherent plan or integrated approach to the development of such activities, I was led to construct a series of observations with a number of related elements as the basis for my research. This was therefore to be an exploratory study in an underconceptualized field, appropriately no predetermined hypothesis was used, rather various techniques were employed which would allow the right questions to be developed in full. The initial observations were:

- that there is no definition of 'internationalization' as a coherent concept in use by practitioners
- that this lack of a clear understanding and theoretical basis leads to activities taking place in a reactive and fragmented way - in an 'adhocracy' - and on the basis of self-interest in the broadest sense, that is individual self-interest and institutional self-interest

- that such an approach will inevitably lead to increased problems within institutions as the consequences of unplanned growth of activities are realised
- that beliefs about how an organization operates and what activities are supported - either implicitly or explicitly - will affect the perception and behaviour of staff and students

The research questions therefore needed to identify 'how and why international activities are occurring within UK Business Schools'. Without such information, it would be clearly impossible to progress to any deeper understanding of the events occurring.

The convergence of the areas of study led me to formulate a research project to investigate the subject more closely, in the hope of reaching some kind of deeper understanding. It would be dishonest of me to say that the choice of research methods to be adopted was fully worked out in advance. Rather, the range of appropriate methods developed in tandem with an increased understanding of the subject matter as the research progressed. I believe this is as it should be, in that it is essential for the research to be free of the constraints of methods which have been imposed at an earlier stage, when the understanding of the complexities of the subject matter were still unexplored.

This was certainly true at the start of the present piece of work. In terms of social philosophy, the methodology adopted encompassed both the idiographic and nomothetic approaches, since they were perceived by the author to be not mutually exclusive, but rather complementary.

No single method by itself is capable of yielding the different types of information required to construct both an understanding of an area and the theoretical model which can be derived from this.

It is my belief that it is bad research to pre-determine the kind of knowledge to be discovered by deciding on a standpoint which will inevitably provide one particular view, rather than a variety of viewpoints that might help to construct a fuller picture. I am reminded of the story of the man trying to describe an elephant while holding its trunk blindfolded (the man not the elephant). This is echoed by Merton and Kendall (in Cohen and Manion, p40) when describing the dichotomy between the Normative and Interpretive approaches:

> *Social scientists have come to abandon the spurious choice between qualitative and quantitative data: they are concerned rather with that combination of both which makes use of the most valuable features of each. The problem becomes one of determining at which points they should adopt the one, and at which the other, approach.*

Cohen and Manion (1994, p17) provide a useful reminder of the limitations of methodologies and the concepts underpinning them:

> *There are two important points to stress when considering scientific concepts. The first is that they do not exist independently of us, they are indeed our inventions enabling us to acquire some understanding at least of the apparent chaos of nature. The second is that they are limited in number and in this way contrast with the infinite number of phenomena they are required to explain.*

While it is necessary to realise the limitations of both methodologies and concepts, this should be tempered with the realisation that although they may not be perfect, they are the best we currently have.

Such a starting point led to the need to construct a framework in which the research could be undertaken. The need for the collection of primary empirical data from the whole population in question (UK business schools) led to the decision - given the constraints of staff and finance - for a postal survey to be undertaken. The validity of the survey needed to be tested through triangulation with other primary data and, in this thesis, the undertaking of two comparative case studies - one in the UK and one overseas - allowed for the examination of policy documents, together with extensive interviewing of both staff and students, and limited observation.

The use of a comparative study allowed a preliminary sifting of those responses which were culturally specific from those which were cross-cultural (in the limited sense of the two case studies).

The use of secondary sources such as higher education's own sectoral statistics, the search for relevant published works and examination of reports in the educational press completed the methods used.

Definitions

There are essentially two definitions that need to be made explicit - that of *'internationalization'* and that of *'UK Business School'.*

'Internationalization' (within the context of higher education) has no agreed definition. This led to questions both in the national survey and subsequent interviews which asked respondents for their understanding of what internationalization meant to them. A working definition was developed from an earlier piece of work (Rudzki, 1992) as:

> *Internationalization of higher education is a process of organizational change, curriculum innovation, staff development and student mobility for the purpose of attaining excellence in teaching, research and the other activities which Universities undertake as part of their function.*

de Wit (1995) (p15) offers various additional definitions, starting with that of Harari who stated that international education had to contain:

> *distinct commitment, attitudes, global awareness, an orientation and dimension which transcends the entire institution and shapes its ethos.*

The definition of *'UK Business Schools'* is considerably easier to reach and is the one used by the Association of Business Schools (1992):

> *any Department, Faculty or other organizational unit that is specifically concerned with the teaching of business, whether the institution identifies such a unit as a 'Business School' or not.*

The nature of research

I was guided by my reading of texts on social science and educational research which helped to clarify my understanding of research, such as the definition offered by Kerlinger (in Cohen and Manion, p. 4) of research as:

> *the systematic, controlled, empirical and critical investigation of hypothetical propositions about the presumed relations among natural phenomena.*

Such a definition has its drawbacks however, most noticeably in trying to ascertain truths which are not empirically quantifiable such as aspects of individuals' perceptions and motivations which govern their actions.

Understanding in this sense is a process of discovery or revelation since not all things are known, and those things that are known are not fully understood, therefore knowledge is contingent on the limits of understanding at a particular time. Knowledge changes over time (historical contingency) and space (geographical and cultural contingency) which leads to the idea of the social construction of reality.

As understanding grows, so the paths to greater understanding also (hopefully) become apparent, so that the pursuit of truth about a subject entails seeking out the right questions to ask and not only to find the right answers.

Such a process of revelation is deeply embedded within the Judeo-Christian culture's understanding of what constitutes the known and the unknown, and how such knowledge becomes realised through recognition. This is supported by the belief held by Cohen and Manion (p24) that:

The justification of any intellectual activity lies in the effect it has on increasing our awareness and degree of consciousness.

If revelation's aim is to raise consciousness, the purpose of research must be to increase understanding. This can be seen in the shift in the historical period which became known as the Enlightenment which grew out of an awareness of the transcendent and metaphysical realities of the time.

Comte's rejection of the theology and metaphysics of the 19th century as discussed by Kolakowski (1993), led to the formulation of the positivist approach with its search for 'positive truths' based on the three tenets of:

1. methodological monism in the sense of the unity of the scientific method
2. the pursuit of exact natural sciences, meaning the search for an ideal or standards of which mathematical physics was the best example, and by which all other disciplines were to be measured
3. scientific explanations in terms of causality, and the rejection of finalist notions of 'intentions, goals or purposes' as being unscientific.

The move away from the strict positivism of Comte and his adherents led to the contrasting idealist approaches based on an earlier tradition, of Berkeley and Hegel, with Dilthey's hermeneutics of the human or moral sciences - *Geisteswissenschaften* - and its search for understanding as *verstehen* and Simmel's empathy as *Einfühlung*. These two traditions have been discussed by von Wright (1993).

Contemporary thinking by such authors as Strauss (1967, 1987, 1990, 1997) and Hammersley (1992, 1993) provides an approach which could use the empirical data obtained in the early parts of this thesis to construct a model of internationalization through the use of grounded theory.

Glaser and Strauss (1967) contrast the grounded theory approach of moving from data to theory with the more conventional approach of logico-deductive theory, that is *'theory generated by logical deduction from a priori assumptions.'* (p. 3)

The debates on the relative merits of qualitative versus quantitative data are therefore reconciled:

> *In many instances, both forms of data are necessary - not quantitative used to test qualitative, but both used as supplements, as mutual verification and, most important for us, as different forms of data on the same subject, which, when compared, will each generate theory.* (p. 18)

The authors state that moving from data to theory requires:

> *a different perspective on the canons derived from vigorous quantitative verification on such issues as sampling, coding, reliability, validity, indicators, frequency distributions, conceptual formulation, construction of hypotheses, and presentations of evidence.* (p. viii)

The benefits can be seen in their justification for grounded theory being that:

> *Most important , it works - provides us with relevant predictions, explanations, interpretations, and applications.* (p. 1)

In this, the approach was ideally suited to the present research and expressed the purposes of theory in social research as being:

> *(1) to enable prediction and explanation of behavior; (2) to be useful in theoretical advances in sociology; (3) to be usable in practical applications - prediction and explanation should be able to give the practitioner understanding and some control of situations; (4) to provide a perspective on behavior - a stance to be taken toward data; and (5) to guide and provide a style for research on particular areas of behavior.*

The present study is concerned with all five of these purposes in that it seeks to explain and predict the behaviour of both individuals and institutions; to provide a theory of internationalization based on empirical data; to be of practical use to others seeking to engage in international activities; to provide a framework within which data collection and analysis can be coherently and systematically undertaken; and to identify the key areas and issues for future research.

Theory therefore provides a means by which data can be handled in order to provide *'modes of conceptualization for describing and explaining.'* (p. 3) The theory should however generate hypotheses which are verifiable by research, be capable of operationalization in qualitative data collection and be understandable to all. There must also be a 'fit' between the theory and the subject of enquiry, in the sense that the theory 'works', meaning it is applicable in predicting behaviour, indicated by the data, is relevant and explains the behavior. *'Theory based on data can usually not be completely refuted by more data or replaced by another theory.'* (p. 4) In this, it is unlike those theories that are merely *'tacked on explanation taken from a logically deduced theory'* (p. 4).

There is also the question of the adequacy of a theory in terms of assessing how it was generated, as well as other criteria *'such as logical consistency, clarity, parsimony, density, scope, integration, as well as its fit and its ability to work.'* (p. 5).

The basic principles of grounded theory are:

- the use of comparative analysis (as distinct from say, statistical analysis or experiment) in order to collect evidence from a subject in order to compare this with another subject or subjects *'either internally (within a study), externally (outside a study) or both'* (p. 23). This provides a method by which facts can be verified and evidence by which concepts can be illustrated.
- the generation of conceptual categories (or a conceptual property of the category) from data. *'A concept may be generated from one fact, which then becomes merely one of a universe of many possible diverse indicators for, and data on, the concept. These indicators are then sought for the comparative analysis.'* (p. 23) The concept then becomes *'undoubtedly a relevant theoretical abstraction about what is going on in the area studied. Furthermore, the concept itself will not change, while even the most accurate facts change. Concepts only have their meanings respecified at times because other theoretical and research purposes have evolved.'*
- empirical generalizations serve to establish whether a fact is unique (a *'universal truth'*) or exists across some or all groups, that is in:

establishing the structural boundaries of a fact: where is the fact an accurate description...Our goal of generating theory also subsumes this establishing of empirical generalizations, for the generalizations not only help delimit a grounded theory's boundaries of applicability, more important, they help us broaden the theory so that it is more generally applicable and has greater explanatory and predictive power. By comparing where the facts are similar or different, we can generate properties of categories that increase the categories' generality and explanatory power. (p. 24)

- specification of a unit of analysis for a one-case study in order to bring out the distinctive elements or nature of the case. In this piece of work, the use of an overseas and a British business school served this purpose. One could also conceive of comparing UK business schools with other university faculties or departments such as modern languages or medicine in order to achieve this purpose.
- verification of the theory is achieved by referring to the data: *'Both implicitly and explicitly, the analyst continually checks out his theory as the data pour in.'* (p.26). This is done in order to verify the emerging theory through a process of checking by the search for negative cases (the doctrine of falsifiability) and the accumulation of positive cases.
- generating theory from the data of social research is the primary activity of the researcher engaged in new areas of study where no theory exists. This ever-developing process is tempered by constant verification - either by the researcher or others - through checking back to the data in order to ensure congruence between data and theory. It can also be used to compare the new theory with one previously formulated by other means such as the logico-deductive route.
- the distinction between substantive and formal theory where the former is theory developed for an empirical area of inquiry, and where the latter is theory developed for a conceptual area of inquiry. It is considered that the substantive theory is used to build the formal theory through a progressive accumulation of data and analysis. *'Both types of theory may be considered as "middle-range." That is, they fall between the "minor working hypotheses" of everyday life and the "all-inclusive" grand theories.'* (p. 33) The authors state the importance of researchers approaching the study of an area *'without any preconceived theory that dictates, prior to the*

research, "relevancies" in concepts and hypotheses. Indeed it is presumptuous to assume that one begins to know the relevant categories and hypotheses until the "first days in the field" are over.' (p. 33)

- the elements of theory generated by comparative analysis are, 'first, conceptual categories and their conceptual properties; and second, hypotheses or generalized relations among the categories and their properties.' (p. 35) *'When generation of theory is the aim, however, one is constantly alert to emergent perspectives that will change and help develop his theory. These perspectives can easily occur even on the final day of study or when the manuscript is reviewed in page proof: so the published word is not the final one, but only a pause in the never-ending process of generating theory. When verification is the main aim, publication of the study tends to give readers the impression that this is the last word.'* (p. 40)

This approach of grounded theory has been used for the formulation of the theory and conceptual framework of internationalization as given below in Chapter 6.

3.2 Research methods available

3.2.1 The purpose and varieties of methodologies used

Kaplan (in Cohen and Manion) has expressed the aim of methodology as:

> *to describe and analyse these methods, throwing light on their limitations and resources, clarifying their presuppositions and consequences, relating their potentialities to the twilight zone at the frontiers of knowledge. It is to venture generalisations from the success of particular techniques, suggesting new applications, and to unfold the specific bearings of logical and metaphysical principles on concrete problems, suggesting new formulations.'* (p.39)

In order to achieve these aims, a number of instruments can be utilised as described below.

3.2.2 The varieties of methodology

Cohen and Manion (1994) have identified the various methods available to educational research as:

- Historical Research
- Developmental Research
- Surveys
- Case Studies
- Correlational Research
- Ex Post Facto Research
- Experiments, Quasi-Experiments and Single Case Research
- Action Research
- Accounts
- Triangulation
- Role Playing
- Interview
- Personal Constructs
- Multi-Dimensional Measurement

In undertaking the present work, I was concerned to find the appropriate mix of methods given the nature of the subject of inquiry.

In calculating the benefits, drawbacks and usefulness of each method, a clear approach to the investigation became apparent because of the logical necessity to undertake certain activities within the research process, which can be summarised as:

- Literature review - initial, full and final (update from full search)
- Survey - national postal survey
- Case studies via institutional visits
- Historical Research as data collection from primary sources (institutional documents) including Prospectuses, Committee Papers, Policy Statements, interviews with key staff and gatekeepers, audits of international activity, membership of external

networks, significant events, new posts within the organizational structure, allocation of funding, appointment of staff, and recruitment missions

- Interviews - semi-structured with subsequent content and linguistic analysis
- Correlational and Multi-Dimensional treatment of data derived from both the Survey and the Case Studies
- Theory build with verification and falsifiability

In the text below, I have dealt with the problems and shortcomings of each method as they arise, rather than leaving these to the end.

3.2.3 Literature search

From the initial idea, I proceeded to take my supervisor's advice and to read around the subject by undertaking an initial literature search using the keywords *business schools, higher education, universities*, and *internationalization.* The search was informed by the methods described by Bell (1993) and led to a comprehensive identification of key texts as reflected in the bibliography to be found later in this work.

Strengths of literature searches

The great strength of undertaking a literature search is that it allows the researcher to go on a hunt for prior research. It also places into an historical context the subject matter if earlier documents can be found such as the Robbins Report (1963) which commented on the overseas students then present in the UK and also recommended the establishment of the first UK Business Schools within the university sector.

Weaknesses

These can be understood as relating to three areas. Firstly, the accuracy of what is published in terms of how representative it is of the general situation, as well as how far it reflects the vested interests of its author. For example, where no written evidence exists, this does not mean that events did not occur, but merely that they were not recorded. Secondly, the sheer volume of information which needs to be digested and analysed for useful content, such as statistical information on the levels of overseas students over time. Thirdly, the fact that a great deal of interesting material is never published and is therefore not available in the public domain, for example institutional discussions and decisions on long-term strategy. This weakness can be partially corrected by the case study method and by interviews with individuals in order to ask questions about past actions and motives

3.2.4 National survey

Cohen and Manion (p. 83) describe the survey as *'perhaps the most commonly used descriptive method in educational research'* and go on to say (p.94) that *'frequently the postal questionnaire is the best form of survey in an educational enquiry.'*

The purpose of a survey is to gather data (p. 83):

> *with the intention of describing the nature of existing conditions, or identifying standards against which existing conditions can be compared, or determining the relationships that exist between specific events. Thus surveys may vary in their levels of complexity from those which provide simple frequency counts to those which present relational analysis.*

Surveys can be understood in terms of their complexity (in terms of techniques adopted) and scope (in terms of the sampling methods used).

Survey techniques fall into four distinct groups:

1. structured or semi-structured interviews (these were used as part of the Case Studies described later)
2. self completion or postal questionnaires (the latter being adopted for this research)
3. standardised tests of attainment or performance
4. attitude scales

The planning of the survey was similar to the stages described by Cohen and Manion (p.84) in that the survey proceeded through:

1. definition of objectives
2. identification of what information was required
3. preliminary tabulations, analysis programme and sampling method
4. allocation of resources (staffing, time and finance)
5. questionnaire design
6. piloting of questionnaire and amendments made accordingly
7. postal survey with subsequent reminders
8. editing, coding and tabulation
9. final report

It should be noted that an explanatory letter was not however sent in advance of the postal survey due to time constraints and the brevity of the questionnaire - a single sheet of paper - eventually sent.

Specification of the exact purpose of the enquiry

This can be understood in terms of the primary objective - which was to assess the scale and nature of internationalization occurring within UK Business Schools - and the identification and itemisation of subsidiary topics. These had to be further broken down in order to formulate the specific information requirements relating to each issue.

The population on which it is to focus

This was the entire UK Business School sector thereby encompassing every member of the designated group. This pre-empted the need to undertake any sampling decisions and prevented the sampling errors that would arise from this.

Available resources

As a lone researcher the resources of most importance were time, expense and accessibility to information.

The time allocation for research by my employer was half a day per week, to which was added my own time at evenings, weekends and during holidays.

The problem of access to information, as well as individual staff and students was not as pronounced as envisaged with co-operation being found during the postal survey and subsequent case studies.

Sampling methods

Cohen and Manion (p87) discuss both probability and non-probability sampling methods. These are included for reference purposes as the present research made use of the entire group within the population for the postal survey and sampling was therefore not required. However the Case Study interviews made use of stratified sampling in the preselection of various members of groups such as Course Leaders, Administrative staff, mobile and non-mobile students, who were then targeted for interviews.

Probability samples are understood to fall into five categories:

1. simple random sampling (random number generators or tables can be used for this)
2. systematic sampling (for example, selecting every twentieth person)
3. stratified sampling (dividing into groups with the same characteristic such as gender, age, height)
4. cluster sampling (random within a geographical area)
5. stage sampling (selecting at random subsets of a cluster)

Non-probability samples also fall into five categories:

1. convenience sampling (selecting the nearest people)
2. quota sampling (selecting a percentage of the group)
3. purposive sampling (typical individuals are hand-picked)
4. dimensional sampling (selecting subjects to cover the full range of required criteria)
5. snowball sampling (where individuals identify others who are then selected)

The actual technique used in the research was systematic sampling of the entire population, with dimensional sampling for the three case studies envisaged.

Questionnaire design

The issues of questionnaire construction, piloting, posting, coding and entering information onto a database are discussed below and informed the research. Davidson (1970) (in Cohen and Manion, p. 92) compares the properties of a good questionnaire with those of a good law:

> *It is clear, unambiguous and uniformly workable. Its design must minimise potential errors from respondents... and coders. And since people's participation in surveys is voluntary, a questionnaire has to help in engaging their interest, encouraging their co-operation, and eliciting answers as close as possible to the truth.*

Cohen and Manion (p. 93) identify the types of questions to avoid:

- leading questions - where interviewer bias leads to only one answer being given
- highbrow questions - where interviewees are unable to understand the questions and will either ask for clarification or attempt to disguise their ignorance by trying to answer the question to the best of their (incomplete) understanding
- complex questions - where multiple questions are combined leading to incomplete answers
- irritating questions or instructions
- use of negatives - so that interviewees have to reinterpret the question into a comprehensible form
- open-ended questions - where the opportunity to engage in a free flow of answers leads to problems of later processing and coding

Selltiz et al (1976) in Cohen and Manion (p. 95) have devised a very useful guide for questionnaire construction with identification of the key elements of content, wording, form of response and sequence of questioning. This was used as a checklist against which the actual design was judged.

The covering letter

Cohen and Manion (p. 97) describe several purposes for a covering letter which should be short and of a maximum one side in length:

- to indicate the aim of a survey
- to stress the importance of the survey to the audience
- to assure confidentiality
- to explain any serial numbers or codings on the questionnaire
- to encourage a reply
- to identify the sponsor of the survey on the letterhead and in the body of the letter

They go on to provide advice on what constitutes good and bad practice as (for the former) the use of a presurvey letter advising respondents of the forthcoming questionnaire. This has a substantial effect on the response rate. No effect on the rate of return is found with the use of prestigious signatories, appeals to altruism or addition of hand-written postscripts.

The letter used in the survey is shown in Appendix IV (the original was printed on University headed note-paper).

The follow-up letter

Where respondents fail to return the questionnaire, a follow up letter should be sent which includes the characteristic of the covering letter as described above but also:

- stresses the importance of the survey
- the value of the response
- uses the second person singular, conveying disappointment at non-response and some surprise at non-co-operation

The follow up letter - like its predecessor - should include a prepaid reply envelope and a further copy of the questionnaire.

The actual letter used is given in Appendix V. This was also printed on the University headed note-paper in its original form.

Subsequent follow ups lead to diminishing returns and a typical pattern of responses from the Office of Population Censuses and Surveys is given (p.98) as:

Figure 3. Typical postal survey response rates

Stage	**% Return**
Original despatch	40
First follow-up	+20
Second follow-up	+10
Third follow-up	+5
Total	75

Hoinville and Jowell (1978) (in Cohen and Manion, p. 96) have identified the factors leading to good response to a postal questionnaire rate. They stress the general need and vital importance of appearance in terms of an easy and attractive document - that is, something that is visually appealing and uncluttered. In addition, the clarity of wording and simplicity of design are to be encouraged, as are clear instructions which should be linked to ease of completion. Finally, they emphasise that co-operation can be maximised by including questions of general interest, and questions that respondents can engage in, interspersing attitude questions to relieve boredom and frustration.

In terms of the design and layout, Hoinville and Jowell go on to identify further characteristics which were applied in the questionnaire as sent:

- use of coloured pages
- tick boxes
- sublettering e.g. Q9(a), as opposed to questions reaching high numbers which can be off-putting for respondents

- clear unambiguous instructions
- initial questions (questions early in questionnaire) to be simple, of high interest value and encourage participation
- middle questions to contain the most difficult material
- final questions to be of high interest to encourage respondents to return questionnaires
- at the end of a questionnaire, a statement to be included asking respondents to check that all questions have been answered, as well as a date for return, an offer to send an abstract of the results and thanks for participation

The design of the questionnaire in this study was undertaken with a number of parameters in mind:
(i) that it should be 'well-constructed' - serves its purpose, durable and elegant
(ii) that it should elicit the maximum usable information in the shortest possible time
(iii) that it should cover no more than two sides of A4 paper
(iv) that it be capable of completion within 10 minutes
(v) that it should be visually appealing

The questionnaire in Appendix II was the result and was printed on heavy green paper to reinforce within the recipient's mind its distinctness from the covering letter as well as its nature as a research document. Using coloured paper also has the added advantage that it makes identification of the questionnaires easier by the researcher when confronted with mounds of paper. Its printing on a heavier weight of paper allows for the quantity of handling that can be expected.

Initial mailing

Cohen and Manion (p97) advise that the initial mailing should have the following characteristics:

- use of good quality envelopes, typed with the name of the person
- use of first class stamps not franking machines
- first class stamped-addressed-envelope to be enclosed
- mail to be sent out on a Thursday for a survey to the general population and Monday or Tuesday for organizations

- December to be avoided for posting because of the Christmas holidays

This last point can be extended to an assessment of the academic year, with peaks of late September/early October (admissions) and May/June (exams and marking of scripts) being the norm.

Hoinville and Jowell (in Cohen and Manion, p100) have devised a flow chart for mailings which is a useful summary of the necessary steps that need to be taken. This informed the actual methods used in the research by serving to confirm the approach devised by the researcher.

Incentives

No incentives were used to increase response rates, as it was felt that this was inappropriate given the nature of the respondents.

Validity and reliability

The question of validity is one which is concerned with the accuracy of the respondents answers. This is compared to non-respondents who may not have the same distribution of answers as returnees, that is a form of *'volunteer bias'.* This form of bias can be checked for by undertaking intensive interviews with a sample of respondents.

The validity of the survey was based on the very high response rate and the clear patterns of response that emerged including critical comments.

The reliability of the data can be shown in the way that individual respondents show similar responses to others in the same survey and in the way that the data corresponds to previous partial studies by other researchers, such as Arkin (1991) and CNAA (1992). The findings also correlate with the statistical information available from both UK and European Union sources.

Processing survey data

The way in which questionnaires are dealt with upon their return is the domain of both data reduction and coding.

Data reduction is concerned with the coding of data prior to its analysis. This is preceded by the need to check questionnaires - 'editing' - for completeness (are all questions answered?), accuracy (are questions answered correctly?) and uniformity (have the instructions all been followed correctly?).

Coding is concerned with the way in which answers are assigned a code number and the way in which this is designed into the questionnaire (precoded answers). It also addresses the issue of how to deal with responses to open questions, by using coding that can be independently verified.

Methods of editing, data reduction and coding were all used in the research.

Strengths of survey techniques

The use of survey techniques allows a comprehensive overview to be obtained particularly when the 'sample' size is the entire population in question.

The survey undertaken in this study, identified all the UK Business Schools through their membership of the Association of Business Schools, which also identified the key staff within institutions.

The response to the questionnaire was very encouraging in terms of the number returned (85%) and the data obtained has resulted in the identification of the various elements necessary for the research to continue.

Weaknesses of survey techniques

All surveys are susceptible to a number of weaknesses:

- sampling methods that lead to an unrepresentative sample being studied
- low response rate
- accuracy - answers given are incorrect - misunderstanding of the questions. This can be avoided by careful questionnaire design and piloting in advance with reformulating of questions where ambiguity or misunderstanding might otherwise have arisen.
- unwillingness of staff to co-operate

Such weaknesses were not encountered in the present research with the exception of the Nil responses from 15% of staff who failed to respond. It is possible, that some of this could have been reversed by following up non-respondents in order to check the accuracy of names and addresses, and indeed whether such staff were still at the institutions identified.

The postal survey as undertaken

In order to gain objective evidence to understand the initial research question, a national postal survey was undertaken using the membership list of the ABS, that is the entire target group.

The questionnaire (Appendix II) and covering letter (Appendix IV) were sent to all 96 members of the Association of Business Schools (ABS) in March of 1993 (Appendix I). This netted 55 responses (58%). A second trawl of the outstanding institutions yielded a further 26 responses (27%), giving a overall total of 81 responses (85%).

Covering letters and stamped addressed envelopes were included in both mailings, as well as a request for nil responses in the second mailing where institutions felt - for whatever reason - unable to provide the information. Two nil responses were received - one institution in the first mailing was unwilling to provide the information on the grounds of commercial sensitivity and a response in the second mailing indicated the original questionnaire had been passed to another part of the institution (from which no reply was received).

There was no pattern to those institutions who failed to respond ranging across the private and public sectors from the Universities to the Colleges of Higher Education (Appendix VI).

The questionnaire results are given in a later Chapter with a commentary. Where percentages are given, these were calculated on the basis of the 79 completed questionnaires. All calculations were rounded up to the nearest whole number.

Problems

The anticipated problem of non-disclosure due to confidentiality arose only in one case. The non-response rate was also low and this is attributed to the methods used, *namely*:

- well designed and produced questionnaire that was quick to complete
- letter that accompanied the questionnaire
- enclosed stamped addressed envelope

3.2.5 Case Studies

The decision to use comparative exploratory case studies was taken on the grounds that such an approach would yield the sort of information unavailable through a literature review or postal survey, in that institutional documents would not be available through either of these methods. It would also allow a closer examination of the subject matter and identify issues not identified previously.

The choice of a Dutch institution as the second case study (after the UK), allowed two European institutions to be compared. The Dutch maritime, colonial and trading traditions are similar to those of Britain, and therefore the development of business and management education would have arisen out of similar social and economic necessities.

Cohen and Manion (p. 106) offer the following view of this approach:

> *the case study researcher typically observes the characteristics of an individual unit... The purpose of social observation is to probe deeply and to analyse intensively the multifarious phenomena that constitute the life cycle of the unit with a view to establishing generalisations about the wider population to which that unit belongs.*

They continue by providing a typology of case studies into two principal types of observation - that of participant observation and that of non-participant observation. These two types are to be understood in two dimensions. The first is based on the degree of structure in the observational setting and ranges from the natural to the artificial. The other dimension is concerned with the degree of structure imposed by the observer and ranges from the unstructured to the structured.

The classification of an observational approach into this matrix is determined by a number of factors which *'intrude to make one or other of the observational strategies the dominant mode of enquiry in a particular type of setting.'*

Four inherent advantages of participant observation as a method have been identified by Bailey (1978) (in Cohen and Manion, p. 110) as:

1. *Observation studies are superior to experiments and surveys when data are being collected on non-verbal behaviour.*
2. *In observation studies, investigators are able to discern ongoing behaviour as it occurs and are able to make appropriate notes about its salient features.*
3. *Because case study observations take place over an extended period of time, researchers can develop more intimate and informal relationships with those they are observing, generally in more natural environments than those in which experiments and surveys are conducted.*
4. *Case study observations are less reactive than other types of data-gathering methods. For example, in laboratory-based experiments and in surveys that depend upon verbal responses to structured questions, bias can be introduced in the very data that researchers are attempting to study.*

This is further informed by Adelman et al (1980) (in Cohen and Manion, p123) who identify six possible advantages of the case study method as:

1. Data *'strong in reality'* but difficult to organize. The data is also readily understandable by readers as it is close to their experience of the world.
2. The inductive leap from the particular to the general is informed by a detailed understanding of the particular with its own inherent complexities.
3. Case studies recognise the social construction of reality and meaning, and are therefore capable of providing alternative translations of situations.
4. The data, if it is sufficiently well collected and analysed, can be used at a later date by other researchers as archival material, that is historical material.
5. Case studies are examinations of the existing reality and therefore are capable of contributing directly to bringing about change in a situation.
6. Case studies are more publicly accessible if well written and devoid of jargon. They can therefore provide evidence and leave judgements, based upon that evidence, to the reader.

The main criticisms of case study accounts are summarised by Cohen and Manion (p. 110) as: *'subjective, biased, impressionistic, idiosyncratic and lacking in the precise quantifiable measures that are the hallmark of survey research and experimentation.'*

Such criticisms are concerned with the validity of observation based research as compared to other methods, given its subjective and idiosyncratic nature, in other words if someone else were to do the observing, would they find the same result. The answer to this is clearly 'Yes', if the observer is trained to a common standard and is instructed as to the purpose of the observation. One has only to consider bird-watchers, Customs Officers or even train-spotters to realise how observational techniques can be standardised across individuals. What one is considering therefore is not the subjective interpretation of the artist, but the objective observation of the trained eye even though both may record surface details.

Within this research the criticisms were addressed by utilising the techniques developed by Atkins (1984) for the analysis of semi-structured data.

Both Denzin (1970) and Lofland (1970) (in Cohen and Manion, p. 111) provide useful insights into how participant observation should be undertaken, in the former case as regards the steps to be considered, and in the latter case advise as to how field notes should be made, which are typical of the ethnographic accounts found in unstructured observation. Some practical problems of participant observation are identified by Walker (1980) (in Cohen and Manion, p. 113) and are concerned with selection of information including sampling.

Using the results of the national survey, it was necessary to undertake a deeper analysis of institutions. I therefore decided that a more detailed study of two institutions - one UK and one Dutch - was desirable, given that use of case studies as a research technique allows for a far greater depth of understanding to be attained than through a survey. Where the case study is undertaken by participant observation, this allows for the identification of factors which might otherwise be missed through a short visit to an institution and which would not appear in the literature.

The UK institution was selected as being representative of an average institution within the sector.

For a study of internationalization to have design integrity in examining more than one national perspective, there is a need to include an overseas institution for comparative purposes. Ideally, a larger selection from the First, Second and Third World would provide a fuller picture. However, research constraints - such as financial and time - led to a Dutch institution - which has been identified in this research as the University of Cuthbert - being selected to generate this comparative information on the basis of:

- an existing institutional link with the access that this would provide
- some courses being taught in English
- quality and reputation of Dutch business and commerce
- the similarity of Dutch culture to that of the UK

The timetable for these case studies was:

1994 April-May	UK Case Study I (UKCS1): University of Aidan, UK
1994 June 6-12	Overseas Case Study I (OSCS1): University of Cuthbert

The case study method as undertaken included:

- study of institutional documents such as Prospectuses, International and European Policy Documents, and Committee papers (where these existed)
- semi-structured interviews (Appendix VII - XI) with equal numbers of individuals in the four groups of staff stakeholders, staff non-participants, student participants and student non-participants. Each interview was preceded by a scripted introduction.

It should be noted that no in-depth analysis of the curriculum was undertaken as both institutions offered programmes of study of a similar nature.

Problems

Three problems areas were envisaged:

- Interviewer bias was checked for by audio-recording a sample of the interviews.
- That information would be regarded as confidential and therefore non-disclosure would be encountered.
- Number of interviews (40 in first case study and 20 in each thereafter giving total of 100 interviews of 30 minutes each to yield 50 hours of recorded data)

Strengths

Case studies also place the researcher into direct contact with the subject of study, thereby providing first-hand experience and allowing critical observations of phenomena which may have been ignored or disregarded by individuals within an institution as being self-evident and therefore not worthy of inclusion in any verbal reports as given in a survey response or interview.

This social construction of what constitutes relevant information is one that needs to be recognized if the researcher is not to fall into the trap of disregarding what may prove to be key information.

In addition, case studies generate a great deal of information which needs to be collected with a clear purpose in mind, if the researcher is to avoid being buried in an avalanche of material.

Weaknesses

The major weakness of case studies have been discussed earlier and include the danger of inappropriate analysis of the mass of data which can be obtained, together with the issue of interviewer bias. In addition, the inductive problem of moving from the particular to the general needs to be recognized.

3.2.6 Historical research

Strengths and weaknesses

Problems with documentary research (Cohen and Manion, p51) are concerned with authenticity, availability of documents (existence and access), sampling, sampling problems, inference and interpretation.

In the case of both case studies, the existence of documents was verified by their being supplied by senior members of staff, who also confirmed their authenticity. Questions of sampling did not arise as the key documents were all made available. The issues of inference and interpretation were addressed through interviewing staff in order to check understanding of the documents.

3.2.7 Interviews

Strengths and weaknesses of interview techniques

Cohen and Manion (p. 53) make the following observation about bias in interviews:

> *Researchers generally recognise three sources of bias: those arising from the subject being interviewed, those arising from themselves as researchers and those arising from the subject-researcher interaction.* (Also p. 61).

That is interviewee bias, interviewer bias, and interview bias.

Atkins (1984) provides useful advice on how the data can be analysed in order to ensure unanimity of interpretation and the avoidance of bias.

The question of bias was addressed in a number of ways - firstly by ensuring all interviewees were asked the same questions, secondly that a sample of interviews were audio-recorded in order to check that no bias had crept in, and thirdly by independent analysis of the recordings to gauge whether bias was present.

The sampling methods used for recruiting the interviewees are discussed elsewhere. Potential sources of interviewer bias were identified in the design of the interviews and were selected out of the interview scripts. Examples of potential bias were the asking of leading questions and partiality in explaining the purpose of the interviews. Throughout the process the overall impression which was actively promoted by the interviewer to interviewees was the need for them to be as open and honest as possible. Evidence of the success of this can be seen in the critical comments made by a number of interviewees.

3.2.8 Correlational and multi-dimensional treatment of data

The use of statistical analysis to show possible relationships between variables or factors is a useful analytical method in identifying measures of association when treating data. Such evidence is not necessarily indicative of a causal relationship such as in the oft-quoted perfect correlation between Australian steel production and beer consumption.

Cohen and Manion (1994, p. 126-145) discuss correlational research and the key terms used and make clear the distinction between *association* and *correlation.*

Variables are *continuous* in that they can take any value between zero and infinity, and can be at the *interval* or *ratio* scale (which includes an absolute zero and provides equal intervals) of measurement.

Where variables are given at an *ordinal scale*, this means that they are in rank order and unlike an interval scale, '*do not indicate absolute quantities nor can one assume that the intervals between the numbers are equal.*' (p. 128).

Dichotomous variables such as pregnancy or death have only two values and at the nominal scale identify all the mutually exclusive categories into which categories can be classified. The nominal scale can be extended beyond two categories as in the classification of the General Election result which will list votes for each of the various parties, spoilt ballot papers as well as non-voters.

Correlational techniques aim to provide evidence of the presence or absence of a relationship between variables. They also identify the direction (positive correlation if both increase or decrease with each other and negative if their is an inverse relationship) and magnitude of any such relationship.

In the research Chi-squared tests were used to show the presence or absence of relationships and the results of these are given in Chapter 4, Section 2.9.

Correlational techniques were used in the research as they were found to be '*particularly useful in explanatory studies into fields where little or no previous research has been undertaken. It is often a shot in the dark aimed at verifying hunches a researcher has about a presumed relationship between characteristics or variables.*' (ibid.)

The use of sampling the total population and analysis of the outcomes was a particularly effective method in terms of being an exploratory relationship study. The use of partial correlational techniques is one that could be used for further research into the subject leading to more complex multivariate techniques using dependent and independent variables. Similarly, predictive studies are a clear extension of the initial research's methodology which could be used in further studies of the subject.

Strengths

The major strengths of correlational studies can be seen as being:

- Relational studies which show relationships by measuring a number of variables (as opposed to experimental methods' manipulation of a single variable) and their relationships simultaneously
- Where there are complex variables which are not open to controlled manipulation
- Prediction studies where the objective or set of objectives of a group can be used to predict individual activity
- Yielding of information on direction and magnitude of relationships
- The identification of those factors which can then be experimentally controlled in order to lead to greater understanding of the subject under study

Weaknesses

The major weaknesses of correlational studies are that they:
- imply concomitance which can be mistaken for causal relationships
- are prone to identifying spurious relationships

3.3 Justification for the design together with the analytical methods adopted and justifications for these

The philosophical position regarding the epistemological position to be adopted can be understood to be a contingent one in that it combined the normative and interpretive approaches as listed by Cohen and Manion (1994, p. 39). As has been discussed previously, it is considered to be a profound methodological mistake to identify an analytical method before fully understanding the object of study for the simple reason that each method by its very nature limits the type of information provided.

It is far more proper to identify the goal of the research and then use methods *as appropriate* in order to generate the best possible information about the object of study.

This conflict between the empirical and positivist approaches has been briefly analysed by Cohen and Manion (1994, p. 23) who identify the alternatives which move beyond the mechanistic world view. They provide six further criticisms of positivism as:

1. Kierkegaard's insistence on individual development against the dehumanization born of the 'objectivity' of scientific method and consequent alienation.
2. Ion's Quantification as an end in itself.
3. Central role of consciousness - which is not recognized by positivists.
4. Misleading picture of human beings because social scientists concentrate on repetitive, predictable and invariant aspects of the person.
5. Failure to recognize human ability to understand and explain experience to oneself. Cohen and Manion (1994, p. 25) state that Positivism *'fails to take account of our unique ability to interpret our experiences and represent them to ourselves.'*
6. The not unfounded accusation that the findings of positivistic social science are banal and trivial, being of very little use for those for whom they are intended.

Such tension between different interpretation of what can be considered to be epistemologically valid presents researchers with the opportunity to reflect critically on their own preconceptions about what constitutes research.

3.4 Ethical considerations

Research that is not informed by an ethical position can not claim to be amoral since the absence of a moral position is not logically possible. Claims of amorality can better be understood to be the *'ethical void'* (Cohen and Manion, 1994, p. 364) or immorality in that the basis of action is so deeply ingrained that it becomes incapable of conscious analysis. That so many researchers do not reflect on the basis of their actions - as evidenced in public exposure of research scandals - is a source of regret in that it extends to the inability to see the limitations of the research both historically and culturally. The disrepute into which research is brought by uncritical acceptance of whatever morality exists within the working environment of the researcher does great harm both to the individual researcher themselves and more importantly to those affected by the studies made.

The discussion of the ethics of educational and social research by Cohen and Manion (1994, p. 347-384) identifies the key issues as being based upon a cost-benefit ratio where costs might be understood as such considerations as *'affronts to dignity, embarrassment, loss of trust in social relations, loss of autonomy and self-determination, and lowered self-esteem.'*

They move on from this initial position to point out the conflicting positions of absolutist versus relativist views of ethics. This is further compounded by the tension between the pursuit of truth and human rights to such things as dignity.

The principles upon which research should be based include that of *informed consent* which in turn comprises issues of competence, voluntarism, full information and comprehension.

The second principle is that of *access* and *acceptance,* the former being concerned with gaining permission to undertake research , while the latter is concerned with achieving goodwill from participants which has to be built on trust.
Within this research study some of the practical ethical considerations were that the researcher would:

- not use results for competitive advantage
- not discuss results within his own institution
- explain to volunteer interviewees the purpose of the research
- not use the results to criticize the institutions or individuals offering them
- gain permission to undertake case studies
- use a prepared script and debrief interviewees
- maintain the anonymity of survey respondents and interviewees

The next principle is concerned with *privacy* in that individuals have the right not to disclose personal information or where disclosed that such information cannot be identified with the participants. The converse of this is to be avoided by the researcher namely issues of betrayal as a breach of trust and deception particularly where '*the researcher knowingly conceals the true purpose and conditions of the research, or else positively misinforms the subjects, or exposes them to unduly painful, stressful or* *embarrassing experiences, without the subjects having knowledge of what is going on.'* (ibid.)

At a more profound level, research based on relativistic ethical standpoints invariably engages in retrospective justification of the means used to achieve ends, even when the end of achieving truth has been achieved by deceptive methods, that is lying.

3.5 Design and piloting of instruments

Both the survey and interview were piloted with a number of staff not involved in the research. Methodological problems were then capable of resolution, such as the wording of letters and the clarity of questions used in interviewee scripts.

The statistical methods used for analysis of the survey data were the Chi-squared test given the type of variables involved in order to determine levels of significance. The results are shown at 4.2.9.

3.6 Conduct of research itself - problems in fieldwork

A number of problems became apparent as the research proceeded:

The time scale of the research extended from October 1992 to the end of 1996. This 5 year period included changes in Government funding although all statistics in this study relate to the academic year 1992/3 since the national survey was undertaken in that year. The research does not include the findings of the Dearing inquiry published in 1997.

The growth in student numbers from the start of the research has led to changes in perception and levels of activity. Further research, particularly as regards additional national surveys would identify such changes more accurately.

Although the response rate to the survey was exceptional at 85%, the missing 15% could have been pursued - initially by a telephone call - and reasons for non-response identified.

The sheer volume of higher education statistics caused difficulties in the disproportionate amount of time spent reading, analysing and where appropriate, utilising the information identified.

The problem of co-ordinating information across time - e.g. UCCA Statistics and information available only years later such as UK Government statistics and Erasmus figures.

The lack of available finance to attend the OECD Conference in October 1994 resulted in a loss of information which may have been useful in informing the research.

Non-participant observation - as immersion in the practicalities of internationalization within a Business School - was the justification for the use of my own institution as the first of the case studies. It allowed me to understand 'what I should be looking at' and also made me aware of those aspects which were peculiar to my own institution as compared to those which were common across the sample. Appropriate methods were adopted to minimise bias.

Access to UK institutions in order to undertake case studies was an insoluble problem. The methodology initially envisaged three institutions across the range of respondents to the postal survey. The difficulties in gaining access resulted in only one institution from the mid-point on the range being the subject of a case-study.

Changes in employment to work outside of higher education in September 1994 and into self-employment in February 1995 caused some disruption to the research timetable.

The infection of software - including the written parts of the thesis itself - by a computer virus resident in the Department's computers, the consequent loss of data and ensuing resolution of the matter with the University led to a delay in writing up the research for a period of at least six months. Related problems with harassment by technical staff within the Department led to a voluntary withdrawal from use of all Departmental facilities from September 1995 until the end of the research in order to avoid further delays and disruption.

3.7 Analytical methods adopted and justifications

The data generated by the research has been analysed in a number of ways as identified earlier. These methods have included analysis of historical documents, frequency analysis, statistical tests and coding of interview responses.

The justification of their use is based upon their appropriateness and ability to provide information to inform further work.

The empirical basis for the research has allowed the search for frequency of phenomena, trends, statistical significance, and correlation to take place. All of these have contributed to the formulation of a more robust theory grounded on the evidence found in the research.

3.8 Summary of strengths and weaknesses in the work overall

The strengths of the research are that it is a piece of exploratory research with a comprehensive view of the subject taken from a variety of sources.

The research is the first major empirical analysis of internationalization within a subject area of Higher Education anywhere in the world.

The methodology has found favour with other researchers who have extended and applied it to their own national circumstances.

The grounded theory approach has allowed for the development of a coherent concept of *'internationalization'* and location of it within a conceptual framework synthesised from available evidence.

The move from the descriptive to the prescriptive in the construction of a landmark model on a sound theoretical base has been welcomed by practitioners and cited by researchers globally. Both the theory and model are verifiable and falsifiable.

The work has applicability across subject areas and has transnational value, so that all institutions can prove their international credentials by meeting certain criteria.

There are a number of identified weaknesses whose elimination would have improved the research:

- A shortage of information on historical development of UK Business Schools and historical development of business and management education within the UK HE sector
- The need for further research on individual written policies and plans of implementation and the prominence of internationalization within University mission statements
- Access to funds which would have allowed attendance at additional international conferences within the subject area

Chapter Four - Results

My understanding of internationalization is very limited
as I have had little exposure to it in any context.

Extract from an interview with a final year undergraduate student
taking a business degree in a UK business school.

4.1 Summary

This Chapter is concerned with the results of the three major pieces of primary research - the first being the national postal survey of all UK Business Schools, the second being a detailed case study with both staff and student interviews of a UK Business School, and the third being a comparative case study of a Dutch Business School, again with staff and student interviews. The survey results have been published in their entirety in Blok (1995).

4.2 Results of a National Survey on the Internationalization of UK Business Schools

A definition of 'internationalization' can be arrived at by examining the international activities undertaken within institutions. In order to achieve this, the first national survey in this field was undertaken in 1993 and covered all 96 institutions who were members at that time of the Association of Business Schools (ABS).

The survey examined a number of areas including the existence of strategic policies and strategies for internationalization, as well as types of international activity, factors critical to success, resources, obstacles and future trends.

The results reveal a number of unexpected features. It is clear that the spectrum of activity ranges from those Business Schools who have positioned themselves on the global stage and are committed to internationalization, to one institution which has taken a strategic decision not to engage in international activity. Internationalization is clearly being driven by financial imperatives and incentives, in the form of external UK and EC funding.

4.2.1 Methodology

The details of the methodology used in all three pieces of the primary research are given in the previous chapter.

4.2.2 Policies and Strategies for Internationalization

In answer to Question 1 *'Does your Business School have: (a) a written policy for internationalization?'*, 47 (60%) replied 'Yes', and 32 (40%) said 'No'. This indicates that internationalization is part of the overall strategic plan in the majority of organisations, especially in the Universities. Even among the 'No' respondents, the strategic documents included reference to 'our view of overseas markets' or 'Very limited specific objectives: e.g. Languages for all students package. Staff competence and mobility targets. Joint qualifications.'

In reply to the second part of Question 1 *'Does your Business School have: (b) a written strategy for implementing the policy?'* the response was 34 (43%) saying 'Yes', and 45 (57%) stating 'No'. This suggests that although the majority of Business Schools do have a policy, only a proportion have developed this into an operational plan.

It is possible that activity which is not planned may well be taking place in an ad hoc fashion and without the appropriate resources being allocated. This view is supported by the responses to Question 6 (Table 4), which identify the constraints upon activity.

Further research could identify the content of both the policy and operational documents, although the next question sought did obtain this information in part.

4.2.3 What are 'international' activities?

Question 2 asked 'Does your Business School engage in any of the following international activities? (tick which apply)'. This was followed by a list of 9 options - (a) to (e) - with space for a further 3 self-generated options - (j) to (l) - to be added. It should be noted that these figures indicate the presence but not the scale of activities. The following table places the responses in ranked order:

Table 1: International activities taking place within UK Business Schools

Rank	Activity	Responses	%
1	(b) student exchanges e.g. ERASMUS networks	70	89
2	(a) active recruitment of overseas students	67	85
3	(c) staff exchanges	61	78
4	(f) joint courses with overseas institutions	58	74
5	(h) joint research with overseas institutions	54	69
6	(d) Know How Funded activities	44	57
7	(g) franchising of courses overseas	43	55
8	(i) active recruiting of foreign academics	19	24
9	(e) EC funded activities under PHARE	14	18

Under the items below (j/k/l), 36 responses were made:

Courses delivered overseas *1	7
EC programmes *2	6
Overseas Consultancy	5
Management development courses *3	4
Dual Qualifications	3
Conference attendance and papers	2
Students gatherings and residentials	2
Credit Accumulation and Transfer Schemes (CATS)	1
FCO funded international activities	1
ISEP (with USA)	1
Language staff located within Business School	1
Language teaching available to all students *4	1

Study tours	1
Recruitment visits	1

*1 Distance teaching, Joint Ventures, short courses, agreements or subsidiary institution

*2 ACE, COMETT, ESPRIT, FORCE, TEMPUS

*3 In Europe and China

*4 Either as essential requirement or as an option

4.2.4 Critical factors to success

Question 3 asked *'Which of the following do you consider to be the critical factors to successful internationalization? (please score using the following values: 3 = very important, 2 = quite important, 1 = neither important nor unimportant, 0 = unimportant)'*

A similar structure was adopted for this question as for Question 2, with 10 items being available - (a) to (j) - and again 3 further categories - (k) to (m) - given as 'other' self-generated additions:

Table 2: Factors that are critical to successful internationalization

Rank	Item	Responses	Score	Mean
1	(f) favourable staff attitudes	78	215	2.76
2	(i) having the active support of senior management	77	205	2.66
3	(a) having staff with a specific international brief	76	202	2.66
4	(b) having staff who are fluent in foreign languages	73	170	2.33
5	(e) availability of additional funds internally	72	159	2.21
6	(d) having good partner institutions	79	158	2.00

7	(j) having staff development focused on internationalization.	72	155	2.15
8	(c) access to information on good practice	69	139	2.02
9	(h) having staff experienced in teaching overseas	74	122	1.65
10	(g) remission from teaching	71	110	1.55

Of the 27 other responses, the following were offered:

Administrative and clerical support exclusively for this work	4
Long-term value and desirability and clear specific objectives	3
Access to external funding	2
Appropriate task-team leadership and political skills	2
Enjoyment of trans-national activities/European outlook	2
Commitment of many staff	1
Conference attendance for profile and contacts	1
Europe-only activities (caused by limited activities)	1
Good informal networks	1
Institution-wide participation	1
International Business School as a strategy	1
International mix of staff	1
Joint research	1
Knowledge of overseas markets	1
Language teaching under control of BS	1
Negative staff attitude	1
Positive attitude to overseas students	1
Senior staff commitment	1
Teaching structures that allow for overseas visits and teaching	1

These figures show that attitudes of staff and management are the most important factors in driving internationalization. The existence of specialist staff with ability in languages is also important, as is funding and good partners.

4.2.5 Staff resources

Question 4 attempted to discover the level of resource allocation and therefore the importance of internationalization, by asking *'Within your Business School is there a member(s) of staff whose* primary *responsibility is for international matters?'* The responses were 50 (64%) replying 'Yes' and 29 (36%) replying 'No'.

This Question linked to Question 1 in order to see if their was a relationship between the existence of policies and the appointment of staff dedicated to international activities.

4.2.6 Power and influence within the organization

Question 5 attempted to establish the importance of internationalization as reflected in the seniority of staff undertaking international work. The question followed on from the previous one and asked simply *'What is their Job Title? Grade?'* A number of institutions have two or more staff working primarily on international matters. An analysis of the 57 responses showed the following:

Table 3: Grades of staff with primary responsibility for international matters

Grade	Responses	%
Director, Assistant or Associate Dean, Head of Department, Assistant Principal	12	21
Professor	4	7
Principal Lecturer/Senior Reader	19	33
Senior Lecturer	6	11
Lecturer	5	9
Administrative scales	3	5
Unspecified ('International Co-ordinator, Director, Marketing Manager, International Projects Officer)	8	14

It should be noted that whereas the grade of 'Senior Lecturer' exists in both the old and the new (post 1992) Universities, the grade of 'Principal Lecturer' exists only in the latter.

4.2.7 Obstacles to internationalization

Question 6 sought to extend the identification of critical factors developed in Question 3, and asked *'What do you see as the major obstacles to internationalization in your institution?*

Table 4: Obstacles to internationalization

Rank	Obstacle	Responses	%
1	Lack of funding *1	43	59%
2	Lack of time and need for prioritization *2	16	22%
3	Lack of students with language ability	11	15%
4	Staff attitude *3	7	10%
5	Lack of Faculty and student/staff language skills	4	6%
5	Lack of infrastructure *4	4	6%
7	Over-emphasis on Europe	3	5%
7	Market position/reputation	3	5%
9	Late entry into internationalization	2	3%
9	Lack of knowledge about networks	2	3%
9	Organizational culture (parochial)	2	3%
9	Size of institution	2	3%
13	Commitment of partners	1	2%
13	Competition	1	2%
13	Course structures	1	2%
13	Exchange rates	1	2%
13	Lack of cohesion across institutions	1	2%
13	Lack of good foreign contacts	1	2%
13	Lack of marketing capability	1	2%
13	Professional bodies	1	2%
13	Reluctance to consider Joint Degrees	1	2%
13	Quality	1	2%
13	Speed of reaction to possible initiatives	1	2%
13	Location of institution	1	2%

*1 Funding for academic and administrative posts, additional costs, insufficient return on investment

*2 e.g. research, UK recruitment

*3 Lack of enthusiasm/reluctance/conflicting interests

*4 e.g. administrative support, central International Office

The discussion of the above obstacles is found in the next chapter.

4.2.8 Future trends

Question 7 sought to identify those activities which were gaining increasing importance on the institutional agenda by asking '*What do you see as the major developments in internationalization of higher education over the next decade?*'

Table 5: Future trends within UK Business Schools

Rank	**Development**	**Responses**	**%**
1	Joint and Dual Qualifications *1	26	36%
2	Greater emphasis on non-European countries * 3	14	19%
2	Increasing student mobility	14	19%
4	Harmonisation of systems * 2	10	14%
4	Increasing staff exchanges	10	14%
6	CATS/ECTS	9	13%
6	Increasing Joint Research	9	13%
8	Networks and strategic alliances	6	9%
8	Increase in Distance learning and franchising	6	9%
8	More Eastern European students and links	6	9%
11	More students studying languages	4	6%
12	Increasing importance of HE	3	5%
12	International MBA's	3	5%
12	Reducing funding (EC, UK) and cost-effectiveness	3	5%

15	Greater range of languages offered to students	2	3%
15	Increased number of students	2	3%
15	Increased recruitment of overseas students	2	3%
15	More Joint Ventures	2	3%
15	Reducing student finances	2	3%
15	Better funding	2	3%
21	Continuing Education and Vocational Training	1	2%
21	Emergence of a group of leading EC institutions	1	2%
21	Greater integration of course material	1	2%
21	Increased consultancy	1	2%
21	Increase in staff language ability	1	2%
21	Modularisation	1	2%
21	More overseas programmes taught in English	1	2%
21	Pre-University education and training	1	2%
21	Student awakening to career benefits	1	2%
21	Twinning links	1	2%
21	UK International Business Schools	1	2%

*1 *Joint* qualifications are understood to be a programme of study with a single qualification awarded by two institutions. *Dual* qualifications are two or more awards for the same programme of study. The latter are not without their problems, the most significant of which is 'double-counting', that is the use of one qualification to count as part of another, without the requisite study being undertaken. To quote one respondent 'double degrees are a dangerous blind alley'. Dual qualifications can also be either national or institutional in their nature, e.g. a BA as compared to a Certificate of Study.

*2 With mutual recognition and mobility of qualifications, and Quality Assurance

*3 Pacific Rim, China, Taiwan, South-East Asia, Africa

The data suggests that the pursuit of joint and dual qualifications will be the primary activity for the future, with its concomitant need for greater student mobility also important. The development of work outside of the European Union is also seen as important.

4.2.9 Additional comments

Question 9 provided individuals with the opportunity to make additional comments and 11 such responses were made, including requests for information about EC programmes, and the way in which internationalization was understood within the particular situation of a Business School, such as being a Graduate School. Additionally, the problems of going beyond Europe to North America and Japan, without properly developing European opportunities, were raised

A number of respondents specifically mentioned that they thought the research useful and worthwhile with two comments being especially noteworthy:

> *Internationalization of staff is very difficult given present salary levels in the UK and the lack of languages skills*

> *Business Schools are now a slim business and opportunistic by nature. Internationalization has merit if it generates a real return on effort and if it satisfies our mission.*

The statistical (Chi-squared) analysis is based on the following data with the results based on 5% significance (1 in 20 or 0.05 level of significance)and one degree of freedom:

	Policy present	*No policy*	*Strategy present*	*No strategy*	*Senior staff*	*No senior staff*
Old universities	16	10	8	18	8	18
New universities	24	11	19	16	22	13
Other	8	9	6	11	4	13
Total	***48***	***30***	***33***	***45***	***34***	***44***

The first test is based on the following hypotheses:

H0 There is no difference in the frequency of policies between the old and the new universities.

H1 Old universities are more likely to have policies.

	Old	*New*	*Total*
Policy present (x)	16	24	40 (a)
No policy (y)	10	11	21 (b)
	26 (d)	*35 (e)*	*61 (c)*

Results show that old universities are indeed more likely to have policies, with just under two-thirds possessing them, compared with just under half of the new universities.

The second test is based on the following hypotheses:

H0 There is no relationship between the existence of a policy and that of a strategy.

H1 Where a policy exists, universities are more likely to have a strategy to implement it.

	Present	*Absent*	*Total*
Policy (x)	48	30	78 (a)
Strategy (y)	33	45	78 (b)
	81 (d)	*75 (e)*	*156 (c)*

Results show that the existence of a policy is no indication that a strategy exists to implement it.

The third test is based on the following hypotheses:

H0 There is no relationship between the existence of a strategy and the presence of senior staff.

H1 Where a strategy exists, universities are likely to have staff at senior level.

	Staff present	*Staff absent*	*Total*
Strategy (x)	33	34	67 (a)
No strategy (y)	45	44	89 (b)
	78 (d)	*78 (e)*	*156 (c)*

Results show that although policy does not correlate with the presence of senior staff, the existence of strategy does, with a perfect correlation in both the old and new universities.

4.2.10 Summary

The survey provides the first national picture of international activities within UK Business Schools who are spread across a continuum from those institutions who have been engaging in international activities for a great many years and who can be thought of as being 'international business schools', to those institutions with little or no international activity.

The existence of both policy and operational documents can be thought of as landmarks in the development of such work, which is led by student mobility programmes, joint courses and research with overseas institutions.

Successful internationalization is dependent primarily on having good partner institutions and on favourable staff attitudes. The latter can be supported by having staff with a specific international brief at Principal Lecturer or above, by the active support of senior management and by the availability of funds internally.

The major obstacle to internationalization is lack of funding, with lack of time and lack of students with language ability other considerations.

Future trends indicate increasing numbers of Joint and Dual Qualifications, a greater emphasis on links with the Far East and increasing numbers of student mobility programmes.

A discussion of these results is provided in the next chapter.

4.3 Results of United Kingdom Case Study One (UKCS1) - The University of Aidan

4.3.1 Introduction

The need to undertake case studies was expressed in the methodology adopted, in that no literature was available and that triangulation of results with the postal survey was desirable. The system used for documentary analysis was to identify the key policy papers which had the advantage that these were unpublished. The content of the papers was analysed primarily for statements of intent and activity, with instances of negative cases being largely left for the interviews. The problem of what is left unsaid within documents - that is the underlying ethos of the institution - was addressed through observation and at interview.

The first of the detailed case studies was carried out at a University which I will refer to as the University of Aidan. At the time of the study, this institution changed its status from that of a Polytechnic - which it had attained in 1969 - to that of University in 1992. Its history prior to 1969 had been of a number of independent Colleges specialising in such areas as Engineering, Art and Education.

In undertaking research into the institution's officially stated position on internationalization, a number of key documents were identified and examined. These were:

1. The Institutional Plan 1990 - 1993
2. International Policy 1990 - 1994
3. European Policy 1991 - 1995
4. The Business School's Strategic Plan 1992-93 to 1997 - 98

Each of these is examined in turn below in order to see how the expressed intentions of the organization determine what actions are to be explicitly supported and encouraged - and by default which are unable to gain support.

It is important to remember that lengthy policy statements are rarely read carefully and in full by those responsible for subsequent action, as such documents cannot be considered to be light reading. However, their power lies in the ability of staff to use such policies to demand resources and justify actions even in retrospect, where the policy follows existing practice which requires some form of justification and rationale. This backwards rationalisation was expressed by a number of the staff in the interviews.

The Institutional Plan 1990 - 1993

The Plan separates its European Strategy and its International Policy. In the former case, the institution states its commitment to '*a major expansion of its involvement in European activities.*' This is to be achieved through '*staff and student exchanges, institutional links, joint courses and participation in EC programmes and initiatives.*'

The written evidence suggests that such activity is at an early stage and is being driven by either the opportunity to raise income - through attracting foreign students to postgraduate courses for example - or by the existence of external funds through programmes such as the EC's Erasmus scheme for staff and student mobility, the COMETT programme for industrial student placements or the European Social Fund's support of courses. This is made explicit by mention of the previous establishment of the European Community Office whose purpose is ' *to provide a focal point ... for assistance with the development of such activities.*'

Developments that are seen as worthy are those where existing activities within Departments are leading to: '*increasing numbers of applications [are] being made to European Community Programmes to support [staff] exchanges. Staff exchanges between institutions are leading to discussions on possible joint courses which will be a very exciting development in the European dimension.*'

In addition, the participation in the PASS/CATS scheme and involvement in the TEXT (Trans-European Exchange Consortium) is seen as a link with the ECTS (European Credit Transfer Scheme).

It is noteworthy that the plan also mentions the subscription by the institution to the British Council's EC Liaison Unit.

The policy statement shows that the European Strategy is perceived entirely in terms of being able to plug into the funds emanating from Brussels. No consideration is given to allocation of any internal funds - apart from those required to facilitate the establishment of the European Office - to other aspects of Europeanization, such as curriculum development. Departments are expected to use their own resources for such initiatives. One is left with the impression that Brussels represents a band-wagon onto which the institution has jumped, in the hope of reaching some long-term gold-rush. No consideration is given to contingency plans of what action should be taken if and when these external funds dry up.

As such, the strategy represents an example of a short-term reactive process responding to external factors and without any thought being given to the rationale or long-term implications of such action. This short-termism implicitly ignores long-term planning, and leads to commitments being entered into with foreign institutions which may be unsustainable in the absence of external funding.

The International Policy goes some way to taking a broader view, in that it identifies objectives and priorities in relation to the direction being taken. Mention is made of the establishment of '*a support service for the recruitment of international students (in particular those paying overseas fee rates) by the development of the International Office... the budget for recruitment activities was confirmed at 10% of overseas fee income, taken from overheads.*' This role of the International Office as being predominantly concerned with recruitment can be explained by overseas students being expected to make use of those existing student support services (accommodation, counselling, library facilities etc.) available to all students, with no special provision being envisaged.

The long-term target of 7.5% of the total student population being from overseas (modest in comparison to the sector average) is compared to the existing figure of 4.5% with the increase to be achieved by Task Groups established ' *to harness efforts from* *across the Polytechnic and focus these on specific countries.'* The Task Groups have no direct influence on policy.

The strengths of the institution in recruiting overseas students are identified (reputation, flexible entry, student support, low cost-of-living) as are the obstacles (types of qualification offered, incompatibility of courses with those required, ineffectiveness of marketing strategy, insufficient resources for self-promotion abroad). There is no mention of how these obstacles will be overcome.

Curriculum changes are mentioned not as a vehicle for improvement *per se* but as a result of some courses recognizing '*that their potential for international recruitment could only be realised by syllabus changes - such as the introduction of new international (or European) options, or permitting Direct Entry, or by adding a foreign language.'*

This interpretation of internationalization in purely economic terms is perhaps the most revealing element of the entire policy, in that it clearly defines the process as being driven by financial considerations alone.

International Policy 1990 - 1994

The most comprehensive statement of the institution's position on internationalization is to be found in this Policy statement, which followed an earlier paper namely - and significantly - the Overseas Students Policy of 1985-88.

The objectives of the International Policy are stated as being:

- *to increase the international outlook of the Polytechnic*
- *to increase the numbers and proportion of international students in the Polytechnic*
- *to enhance the quality of services provided for international students*
- *to facilitate international contact and exchanges for the Polytechnic's staff and students.*

The institution also *'undertakes to implement the British Council's Code of Practice for Educational Institutions and overseas Students.'*

Given such objectives, it is noticeable that no further mention is made of how the international outlook is to be increased, with the majority of the policy devoted to ways of increasing numbers of overseas students through increased marketing activity, such as targeting particular countries. It is also significant that no mention is made directly of the need to enhance the quality of teaching to international levels - an omission which may have arisen for a number of reasons. Although the policy expands the statements made in the Institutional Plan, the direction is the same.

The policy makes some attempt to justify the reasons behind the need to increase overseas student numbers and exchanges and the benefits to both the institution and the wider community. However such statements are justifications for actions to be taken as opposed to arguing from first principles as to the desirability of international activities:

> *(a) International students serve to enrich the Polytechnic with a variety of alternative values, ways of thinking and work practices. The perspectives they bring can provide the catalyst for modifications to the contents of courses and methods of instruction, from which the whole student body can benefit in an increasingly multicultural world.*
>
> *(b) The fees paid by overseas students contribute significantly to the economic well-being of the Polytechnic. The income to departments provides support for staff development, equipment, temporary staffing and other projects.*
>
> *(c) Recruitment of international students can ensure that courses with a shortage of home applications remain viable.*
>
> *(d) The advent of the Single European Market requires our increasing involvement in exchanges across Europe. An internationalist outlook and increased access for students from other countries on to our programmes are*

important in relation to our successful participation in the Europe of 1992 and beyond.

(e) International recruitment enhances the reputation and prestige of the Polytechnic abroad, leading to increased opportunities to undertake research, training and other projects at the international level.'

Given the need to increase recruitment, the internal and external constraints are identified as being in the former case:

- admissions tutors
- syllabuses and structures of courses, and
- lack of effective customer-orientated promotional and illustrative literature and audio-visual material specific to overseas markets

while in the latter case:

- increased competition from other UK Higher Education institutions as well as those from the USA, Canada, Australia, India, Japan and other OECD members
- fluctuations in the value of Sterling on the world currency markets
- Government policy on immigration rules and the issue of work permits

In terms of the organizational structures required to achieve the objectives, responsibility for the oversight of the policy is vested in the Assistant Director (Academic), to be advised by an International Policy Committee (IPC) with operational management residing in the International Office. The IPC is responsible for implementing the policy, recommending development, monitoring recruitment and support systems, recommending fee levels and target numbers, and advising on the appointment of overseas agents.

In addition, Task Groups are to be established and made up of staff from different Departments with interests in a specific region, in order *'to define priorities and programmes for the development of links with that region and the arrangements for recruitment of overseas students.'* The regions to be covered are Hong Kong, Malaysia, North America, Eastern Europe, Scandinavia, the Middle East and additional countries in the Far East.

Locating the initiative at such a level, raises the question of the importance of internationalization within the institution given the seniority of the staff involved. It can be argued that this places it at the periphery of the debate as to the University's own direction and purpose. Internationalization becomes an 'add-on' and is defined in terms of overseas students which even when target figures are reached, represent only 7.5% of the total student population, and who follow the same programmes of study as their native counterparts.

Given that the main reason for attracting overseas students is the additional income they bring, the question as to where this goes is answered by the statement that *'62% of the overseas student fees ... will be allocated via Faculties to the Teaching departments in proportion to the enrolled numbers, fee levels and service teaching arrangements.'* The remainder (38%) of the income will *'contribute generally to overheads'* (which are not specified and indeed difficult to identify) as well as 10% to the International Development Budget which is used for recruitment and marketing costs across the University.

This Budget also includes a total of £8,000 for scholarships *'to be awarded on the basis of academic performance.'* Such a level of support - since they are not full scholarships in that they do not meet all the costs of study - betrays any belief in the moral responsibility of the institution to provide opportunities for students who are academically able but unable to meet the costs of their study.

The policy identifies the *'significant responsibilities'* that are entailed by increased recruitment. Such responsibilities are across a range of activities such as pre-sessional study skills, induction, cultural briefings, direct entry schemes and changes to the existing accommodation policy. In reality these responsibilities are devolved to the existing Head of Student Services who is responsible for counselling and special provision for *'women international students'*. Additional measures include both the provision of an Information booklet ('Coming to Study at ...') which is annually updated and the guarantee of an accommodation place in Halls of Residence for the first year of study only.

There is no evidence to show that the enthusiasm to attract students is matched by a desire to provide any additional support outside of that available to home students, which could be expected given the differential in the amount paid by overseas students, as compared to the education received by UK Local Education Authority funded students (who do not personally pay tuition fees at undergraduate level) and who do not pay the 'full fees' charged to overseas students at postgraduate level. This failure to distinguish between two distinct sets of 'customers' not surprisingly is to the advantage of the institution in limiting the amount of income spent on additional measures. Such an approach by the University does not go unnoticed by the overseas students as is seen in comments made by them during the interviews reported later.

European Policy 1991 - 1995

The rationale behind the policy - which is the longest of the documents seen - is stated clearly in its Introduction as being to enable the institution to *'realise fully the opportunities provided by the developments across Europe.'* These include the Single European Market, as well as events within EFTA and Central and Eastern Europe. The Policy therefore represents a response to external changes of fundamental importance to the institution, particularly as regards its long-term position within the higher education sector. It is interesting to see therefore that as a reactive approach, it manages to seize the opportunity to be imaginative and identify possible activities beyond those which could be expected.

The three aims of the policy are to prepare students for work in Europe, to increase involvement in European activities and to *'provide a regional resource of knowledge and training to help foster European-related activities...'*. These aims are drawn directly from the institution's Mission Statement and as such produce no new thinking but refer to that document for their justification.

The policy does however take a more advanced position in its understanding of internationalization as Europeanization, that is closer links with other Member States of the European Union. This is seen to be in the areas of the curriculum (Single European Market issues, language skills and knowledge of European Commission structures), staff development (identical to the curriculum with the addition of an *'awareness of emerging European policy debates'*), research (through increased access to European funding), institutional links (for exchanges of staff and students, as well as being a requirement for EC applications), student exchanges and recruitment (particularly for English Language courses), and the dissemination of information (as a regional resource centre). This is seen within the context of the institutional Mission to become a *'quality centre of learning and research'* which is logically extended to encompass a range of international (as European) activities.

Interestingly, the development of links with EC countries is set at *'two for each major country'* and at least one for each of the remaining countries, as well as EFTA and the countries of Central and Eastern Europe. No particular reason is given for this level of activity or its geographical spread apart from a general desire to increase *'the European dimension of courses...[via] the development of exchanges.'*

The policy is to be overseen by the same member of the Directorate as the International strategy with a separate European Policy Committee being formed, and *'Euro-contact persons nominated by each Faculty.'* Significantly, this Committee claims to itself the right to review all agreements made by Departments with other institutions. This is an example of the way in which an attempt to centralise activity as it increases becomes apparent. In addition, the European Working Group of the Board of Governors *'will continue to provide a forum for exploring new ideas for European initiatives.'*

It is significant that the range of activities and organizational structures is greater for the European policy than for the International strategy which preceded it. Where the former addresses a number of directions, the latter deals almost exclusively with student recruitment. This would suggest the acquisition of expertise in the organization over time, either through new staff or through the increased learning about the nature of international activities together with the implications and opportunities entailed.

The Business School's Strategic Plan 1992-93 to 1997-98

The final document studied refers to the plans and objectives of the Business School's Overseas Unit which was established in 1992 in *'recognition of the increasing importance of the international dimension to [the Business School's] activities.'* These are defined as the provision of both undergraduate and postgraduate courses as well as overseas consultancy.

The activities of the Unit go some way to explaining its purpose which is largely concerned with student mobility, including the related area of the establishment and maintenance of institutional links.

Perhaps the most interesting statement in the whole document concerns staff development in that all staff *'should be given the opportunity to undertake academic activities overseas, whether this be attendance at conferences, research, teaching or consultancy.'*

The pastoral care of overseas students is to be with the appropriate Course Leader, which accords with that of the 'home' students.

The creation of a special Overseas Unit, represents a change on behalf of the organization in response to a growing realisation of the level of support needed for international activities, and the consequent need to establish a full-time academic post to deal with such matters. In this, the post holder also has a wider remit to *'keep under review the developing European and international Policies and take part in the developing activities as appropriate.'*

This development is related to the additional income generated by various overseas initiatives such as franchising of courses and student recruitment, and the growing reluctance of academic and other staff to deal with matters related to such activities as part of their normal responsibilities as evidenced in responses to questions in the interviews.

To summarise, the documentary evidence shows the University to be pursuing a clear international and European strategy which has repercussions for both academic staff and students. Although the benefits are clearly defined, the details of how the implementation of the strategy will take place is somewhat lacking. As the interviews will show, the interface between policy and practice reveals how this ‘top-down’ process impacts on the daily perceptions of both staff and students.

Interviews with staff and students

The findings of the 41 interviews conducted provide a useful picture of staff and student understanding. The four groupings are:

1 Staff who are involved in international matters (6 interviews)

2 Staff who are not directly involved in international matters (10 interviews)

3 Students in their final year who have spent a year abroad (6 interviews)

4 Students in their final year who have not spent a year abroad (19 interviews)

The first question (Q1.1, 2.1, 3.1, 4.1) asked what the interviewee considered the internationalization of higher education to include.

Table 6: Constituent elements of internationalization

Response	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**Total**
Student exchanges and visits/field trips/placements	3	4	2	19	**28**
International comparative content in curriculum	4	7	2	9	**22**
Recruitment of overseas students	4	5	2	1	**12**
Teaching and research exchanges for staff	5	3			**8**
Institutional links	2	2	2		**6**
Joint or Dual Qualifications/CATS/harmonisation of awards	1	2	3	2	**8**
Teaching of foreign languages	3	2		4	**9**
Increased cultural understanding and transfer of UK educational experience	1	1	3		**5**
Semesters				3	**3**
Special courses for overseas students		2			**2**
Franchising of courses overseas	1		1		**2**
Staff development to international perspective	2				**2**
Preparation for employment in global marketplace				2	**2**
Links with trade opportunities	1				**1**
Total	27	28	15	40	**110**

This clearly shows the importance of student mobility and opportunities to study abroad (both recruitment and exchange), as well as changes to the content of courses, and related issues of the recognition of the qualifications received. Staff development is also seen as a component in exposing staff to other influences outside their national experience.

Students see staff exchanges and recruitment as a lesser part of internationalization than staff. It is also clear that staff and students not involved in internationalization place greater importance on the international content of the curriculum compared to those who are involved. It is also of interest that students who have spent a year abroad do not mention language development as important. Only those students not involved in internationalization see benefits for employment in the global labour market.

A student was clear about how Universities themselves could learn from each other:

> *The transfer of culture, languages and skills from one institution to another - there is a gap in teaching standards, levels of work between institutions.*

The second question (Q1.2, 2.2, 3.4, 4.4) sought to discover what international activities had been undertaken by the respondents:

Table 7: International activities undertaken by respondents

Response	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**Total**
Teaching, studying or working abroad inc. exchange visits	6	4	3	5	**18**
Recruitment of overseas students	3	2			**5**
International comparative content in curriculum	3	2		2	7
Overseas students inc. getting placements	3	1	1	7	**12**
Joint or Dual Qualifications	4		1		**5**
Travel abroad			4	13	**17**
International conferences	1	2			**3**
None		3		2	**5**

Franchising	2				**2**
Learning a foreign language			2		**2**
Research	1	1			**2**
Field trips	2				**2**
Study on an international course (inc. module)			2	2	**4**
Experience of cultural differences abroad				2	**2**
Foreign girlfriend				1	**1**
School trips overseas				1	**1**
Total	25	15	13	35	**88**

Clearly the most frequent activities had been work, travel or study abroad. It is also notable that students who had spent a year abroad were the only ones to learn a language. It appears that students who had not spent a year abroad have travelled more extensively than their peers studying on international programmes. Staff again consider recruitment to be an important factor.

A supplementary question (Q1.3) to group one asked how staff had become involved in international matters:

Table 8: Reasons for staff involvement in international activities

Response	**n**
Nature of present post	**4**
Career decision such as international degree or foreign language study	**2**
Desire to develop curriculum	**1**
Total	7

This suggests that staff may be attracted to posts with the possibility of international activity, although when compared with the response to the previous question, the principle reason was experience of teaching, working or studying abroad.

Group two were asked (Q2.3) whether they felt that they had been given sufficient opportunities within the institution to become involved in international matters:

Table 9: Opportunities for staff involvement

Response	n
Yes	**4**
No	**6**
Total	**10**

Such an equal distribution indicates an unrealised willingness of some staff to undertake additional international activities.

The next question (Q1.4, 2.4) sought to identify both the actual and the perceived motivation of staff who undertake international activities:

Table 10: Actual and perceived motivation of staff

Response	1	2	Total
Travel abroad		8	**8**
Professional or career development		6	**6**
Use of foreign languages	3	2	**5**
Personal interest and satisfaction	1	4	**5**
Development of the course	2	3	**5**
Nature of job	2	1	**3**
Work abroad	1		**1**
Meeting new people	1		**1**
International course studied	1		**1**
Mix with foreign students		1	**1**
Student recruitment	1		**1**
Total	12	25	**37**

It is interesting to note the differing perceptions of those who actually undertake international activities - giving as reasons use of foreign languages, curriculum development and the nature of the job - as compared to those who do not, who believe that their colleagues engage in international activities because they wish to travel abroad and for the purposes of career development.

A response from a mobile member of staff was typical of the group:

> *A genuine desire to improve my own scholarly knowledge.* [This response was coded under 'professional development'.] *The lure of travel. Academic life is global and [staff] should exchange information.*

The next question (Q1.5, 2.5) asked staff to identify the benefits of participating in international activities:

Table 11: Personal benefits of participating in international activities

Response	**1**	**2**	**Total**
Greater understanding of overseas HE	4	5	**9**
Academic development/improved teaching	4	5	**9**
Tolerance of cultural diversity/more open-minded	2	4	**6**
Improved foreign language ability	3	2	**5**
Opportunities for international employment/career	1	2	**3**
Travel abroad	1	1	**2**
Total	15	19	**34**

These benefits are never mentioned in the policy documents, suggesting a clear mismatch between the income driven policy and the tangible benefits as experienced by individual members of staff. This was balanced (Q1.6, 2.6) with a request for information about the disadvantages of such activity:

Table 12: Disadvantages of participating in international activities

Response	**1**	**2**	**Total**
Neglect work at home institution	2	4	**6**
Time-consuming	3	4	**7**
Amount of travel	2	2	**4**
No additional time allocated for dealing with overseas students	1	1	**2**
Disillusionment with difficulties and lack of support		2	**2**

Forcing overseas recruitment		1	**1**
Cultural difficulties	1		**1**
Perception of other staff of 'freebies'		1	**1**
Disrupted family life	1		**1**
Need to have a foreign language		1	**1**
Possible discrimination of women because of domestic circumstances		1	**1**
Tiredness		1	**1**
Initial cost of visits	1		**1**
Total	11	18	**29**

Within this question, 2 staff from Group One could see no disadvantages, compared to one member of staff from Group Two.

There appears to be a similar perception between mobile and non-mobile staff of the disadvantages, the most significant being that mobile staff neglect their work at their home institution and the amount of time spent on overseas activities.

It also seems possible that staff who do not go abroad may have to undertake the duties of absent colleagues, which suggests a lack of strategic thinking on the part of the policy-makers about the implications of certain activities, especially as regards how Departments will resource international activities. This may lead to resentment by both staff and students and result in problems in implementation of the strategy.

A common feeling was expressed in the following quote:

> *Hassle. Time consuming for the relatively small number of students who take part in exchanges.*

Staff were then asked (Q1.7, 2.7) to identify the factors critical to successful internationalization within their institution:

Table 13: Factors critical to successful internationalization

Response	**1**	**2**	**Total**
Strategy/setting objectives and scale	4	4	**8**
Provide resources and organization	2	6	**8**
Meeting students' needs		4	**4**
Quality institutional partnerships	2	2	**4**
Staff commitment	2	2	**4**
Language training	2	1	**3**
Administration such as recording marks	1	1	**2**
Broad approach - not just high fees		2	**2**
Information and staff development on cultural differences		2	**2**
Student and staff exchanges	2		**2**
Research	2		**2**
Sharing information between staff	1	1	**2**
Having foreign staff in UK	1		**1**
Having Programmes of Study organized in advance		1	**1**
Communication between administration and students		1	**1**
Student accommodation		1	**1**
Maintaining standards in overseas recruitment	1		**1**
Personal interest in international activity	1		**1**
Staff timetables to allow for overseas visits		1	**1**
International components in courses	1		**1**
Total	22	29	**51**

A notable distinction between the two staff groups is that the non-mobile staff believe that meeting students' needs is critical to success, while practitioners unanimously do not. It is also noteworthy that 'international components in courses' is only mentioned once by a practitioner. However, both groups agree on the need for a strategy. Resources are again flagged up, especially by non-mobile staff. This was mentioned by a senior member of staff - a key figure in implementing the internationalization of the University but not directly involved in international activities - who identifies the need to have a plan and the resources to implement it:

A clear strategy, arrived at by consensus as far as possible with objectives that are not simply financial. This strategy is followed through consistently. Sufficient investment in mechanisms required to internationalize the University - time and money.

Staff were then asked (Q1.8, 2.8) to identify the reasons why internationalization had occurred within the institution:

Table 14: Reasons why internationalization has occurred

Response	**1**	**2**	**Total**
Income from overseas student fees	6	6	**12**
University Mission	3	3	**6**
Student mix	1	3	**4**
Competitors are doing it/fashion/trends	3	1	**4**
Increased reputation		3	**3**
Access to EC funds		3	**3**
Curriculum development	1	1	**2**
Membership of the EU		1	**1**
Maintain student numbers		1	**1**
Demands of employers for international graduates	1		**1**
Mastery of subject		1	**1**
Enthusiastic internationalists		1	**1**
Raising staff morale		1	**1**
Research	1		**1**
Total	16	25	**41**

Staff are clearly under no illusions as to the principal reason why internationalization is occurring. When compared with the University Mission statement mentioned earlier and which concentrates on recruitment of overseas students, it should come as no surprise that the institutional strategy is indeed being implemented.

Money - there is a lot of money in it and at times that's all people think about.

Foreign students bring in money and if they are of good calibre, they gain us prestige and reputation abroad. Good Universities attract good foreign students.

This last point is further illustrated by the responses to the next question (Q1.9, 2.9) which asked whether internationalization had occurred as part of a strategic plan:

Table 15: Internationalization as part of a strategic plan

Response	**1**	**2**	**Total**
Yes	3	4	7
No		2	**2**
Strategy follows action/backwards rationalization		4	**4**
Total	3	10	**13**

The comments about strategy following action showed that both groups agreed that internationalization had occurred as part of a strategic plan. However, an equal number of non-mobile staff expressed the view that backwards rationalization had occurred, and 2 non-mobile staff did not believe that internationalization was planned at all:

Backwards rationalization may make it appear to be so.

Don't see it. Strikes me as haphazard like most things in this place.
Policy comes after activities.

To some extent with overriding guiding principles but with significant deviations so that activities occur which are not part of plan but which take advantage of opportunities as they arise.
(Comment made by Pro-Vice Chancellor)

Supposed to have done but has been spasmodic. Evident in some areas rather than others - some staff are heavily involved, majority are people *driven rather than organisationally driven, [that is] staff with a genuine love of international affairs.*

Only insofar as objectives for numbers of overseas students and income concerned. Much smaller scale for curriculum and infrastructure.

Not entirely apparent. Not carefully thought through.

Plans tend to be viewed in retrospect, came from champions rather than planned.

The interview then moved to the area of staff involvement (Q1.10, 2.10) by asking whether staff should be encouraged - the emphasis being on voluntary commitment - to become more international in their outlook, and if so, in what ways. The response was a unanimous 'yes' with the following suggestions:

Table 16: Ways in which staff should be encouraged

Response	**1**	**2**	**Total**
Learning of foreign languages for teaching and administrative staff	4	5	**9**
Staff exchanges	5	3	**8**
Staff development (conferences, publications, etc.)	3	2	**5**
How to teach, support and use overseas students as a teaching resource	2	2	**4**
Educational development overseas	2	1	**3**
Information	1	2	**3**
Voluntary involvement of staff		2	**2**
Curriculum development	1		**1**
International outlook		1	**1**
Visiting own students overseas	1		**1**
Joint research	1		**1**
Total	20	18	**38**

It is interesting to note the prominence of learning a foreign language and staff exchanges, which suggests that staff are fully aware of the need to converse in the language of the host institution.

The next section of the interview (Q1.11, 2.11, 3.2, 4.2) moved onto the benefits and disadvantages to students of international activities defined as study and work abroad or study with overseas students present on courses. The advantages are identified first:

Table 17: Advantages to students of international activities

Response	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**Total**
Increased understanding of cultural diversity	5	9	3	14	**31**
Improved language ability	3	9	2	3	**17**
Increased maturity, independence, broadening	3	8	6		**17**
Improved employment prospects	1	4	1	11	**17**
Knowledge of teaching and learning differences	3	4	3		**10**
Opportunities to travel				4	**4**
Recognized qualifications				3	**3**
Greater choice and opportunities				2	**2**
More University co-operation such as exchanges				2	**2**
Seeing global integration			1		**1**
Contacts and friendships	1				**1**
Total	16	34	16	39	**105**

One mobile student was very clear about future job prospects:

> *By having an international element and [a foreign] language we are more attractive to employers. The time spent abroad improved language and knowledge of the culture and country.*

> *Equipping me with tools and skills to integrate in the globalised business environment. Gained a wider vision of business.*

It is also interesting to note that the non-mobile students have more to say about the advantages than the mobile students, with their perceptions of cultural understanding and employability being much greater. There are also more advantages highlighted by non-mobile students than mobile ones.

The positive side was then compared with the disadvantages and problems of internationalization for students (Q1.12, 2.12, 3.3, 3.5, 4.3, 4.5):

Table 18: Disadvantages and problems to students of internationalization

Response	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**Total**
Cultural misunderstandings or differences			3	10	**13**
Language and/or communication difficulties	3	1	1	7	**12**
Inadequate preparation/inability to settle/induction	3	3	1		**7**
Additional expense	2	3	1	1	**7**
May have to study irrelevant subjects				6	**6**
Progress in home course because of mismatch of foreign study	4	1			**5**
Minority of students see it as an extended holiday	1			4	**5**
Reintegration		4			**4**
Poor administration/marks lost		1	3		**4**
Quality of support from home and overseas institution	1	2			**3**
Places on courses kept for foreign students				3	**3**
Teaching or learning difficulties		1		1	**2**
Lack of information about programmes of study		1			**1**
Live in ghettos and do not derive benefit		1			**1**
Slower teaching when overseas students present			1		**1**
Noisy (French) students			1		**1**
Staff from course team should visit			1		**1**
Larger class sizes			1		**1**
Poor knowledge of Europe by UK students			1		**1**
Involvement in violent or dangerous situations	1				**1**
Replacement of terms by semesters				1	**1**

Confusion amongst lecturers with different views of internationalization				1	**1**
Doesn't always work				1	**1**
One standard body is not always the best way in dealing with higher education				1	**1**
Reallocation of funds away from home students				1	**1**
Standard of education overseas				1	**1**
Neglect of domestic duties				1	**1**
Culture shock				1	**1**
Would have liked more experience				1	**1**
Total	15	18	14	45	**92**

The main difference between staff and students is the concern staff have in progress on the course studied at the home institution because of a mismatch with the foreign study (no students regarded this as a problem), and the students concern that cultural misunderstandings or differences were the main disadvantage (which had not occurred to any of the staff). This suggests that each group is more aware of the practical implications of internationalization - born of personal experiences - than other aspects which might appear to be more self-evident such as language difficulties or additional expense. These first-hand experiences should inform strategy but do not.

A student commented on the problems with administration and communication:

> *Administration is difficult in both host and home institutions, like a game of Chinese whispers with information being wrongly communicated. There are additional costs abroad - students should be told this before departure. There are also difficulties with the language on arrival. We should have a week's intensive language course before departure.*

This problem of lack of information from the other direction is further evidenced by a French student studying in the UK:

> *Problems you expect - I didn't know about whether accommodation would be provided, what would be taught, the examination procedure. There are also*

cultural problems, for example the perception of social life in English Universities.

Four of the non-mobile students saw no disadvantages and eight could see no problems, whereas another student was eloquent on the nature of the difficulties he had encountered:

The organization of the course in the Fourth Year wasn't planned - we left in the Second Year as [omitted] Polytechnic and returned to an international University. Class sizes doubled to 65 students and there were problems with increased numbers.

Other students had very different problems:

There were cultural problems in Russia with assumptions about English history and politics, for example, who the King was in 1652, also 'How can I go to London when it's so full of fog all the time?'

We haven't gone into depth on internationalization of the course. Our knowledge of Europe is severely limited - we take an international elective to comply with the [Course] regulations.

One of the non-mobile students inadvertently expressed the converse of poor language abilities of UK students abroad:

Foreign student with very poor English stayed as BABS1 [Bachelor of Arts in Business Studies - First Year] for 3 years - a joke!

Another non-mobile student who had spent time abroad expressed a presumably important cultural difference:

Not being old enough to drink in the USA

The question of how the course of study had prepared students for employment in the Single European Market (Q3.6, 4.6) was raised:

Table 19: Preparation for employment in Single European Market

Response	**3**	**4**	**Total**
International marketing course - concepts and issues		8	**8**
International course/Units on SEM	5	2	**5**
Insufficient understanding of EC		4	**4**
Module on Business in Eastern Europe		4	**4**
Lack of teaching on subject		3	**3**
Knowledge of foreign markets	2		**2**
Lack of opportunities to study languages		2	**2**
Use of regional European Documentation Centre	1		**1**
Understanding of cultural differences	1		**1**
Case studies of global companies		1	**1**
Need to experience not study EC		1	**1**
Total	9	25	**34**

One non-mobile student made no response and one did not want to work overseas. Four of the non-mobile students were positive about a module with an international basis, and eight mentioned the benefit of the international marketing course:

Elective on Eastern European Business - most useful part of final year

A problem for two of the non-mobile students was the lack of courses in foreign languages:

Wanted to study language.

Language [course] promised but never happened.

There was an interesting division of views amongst the non-mobile students with three saying that there was no teaching on the subject and two saying the opposite:

International issues are usually covered under all topic areas

The students were then asked (Q3.7, 4.7) to comment on what they considered to be the ideal number of foreign students for a student body to be truly international:

Table 20: Ideal size of international student body

Response	**3**	**4**	**Total**
60-70%		1	**1**
65%		1	**1**
At least 50%	3	6	**9**
40% overseas		4	**4**
33%		2	**2**
30%		1	**1**
25-50%		1	**1**
25%	2		**2**
20-30%		1	**1**
20%		1	**1**
50% is too big in the Final Year	1		**1**
No specific number		1	**1**
Total	6	19	**25**

Concern was expressed about which year of a course exchange students were located in (as opposed to foreign students attending a complete course), presumably because home students feel held back since staff have indicated that they teach more slowly when large numbers of overseas students are present:

The Fourth Year classes are too big with foreign students. Better to have them in Second Year so that we can have access to their language before we go abroad. Could do without foreign students in the Fourth Year!

A non-mobile student made an interesting statement as to the ideal number:

Any number, provided there are equal opportunities to study

Another of the non-mobile students who identified the number as being between 25-50% made the following comment:

> *50% ideally but want my education to be based in the country I will be working in - 25% is acceptable*

The interviewer then asked staff about the impact of internationalization on the curriculum (Q1.13, 2.13):

Table 21: The impact of internationalization on the curriculum

Response	**1**	**2**	**Total**
New electives/units	5	3	**8**
More emphasis on international aspects	3	5	**8**
More emphasis on learning a foreign language	3	1	**4**
Full international courses or routes	3		**3**
Overseas placements	2		**2**
New University links	2		**2**
No effect on present course (nature of subject)		2	**2**
Wider reading		1	**1**
Overseas students asked to contribute	1		**1**
Dual Qualifications	1		**1**
Franchising of courses overseas	1		**1**
Impact on UK teaching methods on overseas institutions	1		**1**
Total	22	12	**34**

Two non-mobile staff gave 'Don't know' responses. Mobile staff appear to have a wider understanding of, and put more emphasis on, strategic issues, whereas non-mobile staff mention only practical issues. The historical context of the progress made was mentioned:

Many programmes in the Business School now address international issues that [they] wouldn't have done so 15 years ago. Both practical courses and people read more than the British Journal of Obscurity to find intellectual solace.

This suggests that internationalization of the curriculum is driven more by issues of the academic development of staff, than by demands of employers or contact with colleagues from abroad.

The question of how the organization had changed was then addressed (Q1.14, 2.14):

Table 22: Organizational changes as a result of internationalization

Response	**1**	**2**	**Total**
Recruitment targets for overseas (non-EC) students	2	7	**9**
International Office created centrally	4	4	**8**
Overseas Office created at Faculty level	4	4	**8**
Increased staff travel	3	1	**4**
Special courses for overseas students inc. English		3	**3**
European Office created centrally		2	**2**
New international courses	2		**2**
More exchange students		1	**1**
Bids for EC research funds	1		**1**
Need to develop reputation for teaching and learning		1	**1**
Increased encouragement of staff		1	**1**
Improved administration	1		**1**
Slow to provide administrative support	1		**1**
Reorganization of admissions and induction	1		**1**
Student Union has overseas societies	1		**1**
Mix overseas students with home students	1		**1**
Committees formed	1		**1**
Teach slower		1	**1**
Roles designated to assist process	1		**1**
Language courses available for all	1		**1**

No change		1	**1**
Don't know	1		**1**
Total	22	14	**36**

The most noticeable feature of the above is the way in which non-mobile staff have noticed the demand to recruit overseas students, whereas mobile staff are as likely to be aware of the highly visible changes in the shape of a central International Office and Faculty Overseas office as their non-mobile colleagues.

Staff were asked to identify what future trends were likely to be within the institution (Q1.15, 2.15):

Table 23: Future trends within the internationalization of the institution

Response	**1**	**2**	**Total**
Increased overseas students	1	9	**10**
Increasing student numbers (including EC)		4	**4**
Better courses/international elements	2	2	**4**
More contact with overseas institutions	1	3	**4**
Overseas operations (franchising, short courses, overseas campus)	3	1	**4**
Improved care of and facilities for overseas students		4	**4**
Joint research	2		**2**
Rationalization of links	1	1	**2**
Increased UK student mobility	1	1	**2**
Increased accommodation for overseas students		1	**1**
Improved selection methods of overseas students		1	**1**
Increased relevance of HE to trade and EC		1	**1**
New overseas recruitment markets	1		**1**
Improved language ability of UK students	1		**1**
Growth of Information Technology		1	**1**
Total	13	29	**42**

The Pro-Vice Chancellor was clear about where the future lay:

Communities will be in daily contact which may reduce the need to travel which grew in the '60's, '70's and '80's. A University is a body of knowledge which will be 'located' in a different way through telecommunications. We will work in a global electronic village, for example, the virtual office, a paper-less office where the reason for doing it is budget constraints.

The final question (Q1.16, 2.16, 3.8, 4.8) asked staff and students if there was anything else they would like to add. Of the four responses, two were concerned with students whose first language was not English. Home students felt that this was having an adverse effect on their performance particularly in assessed group work activities, as mentioned by a member of staff:

For the first time we've had serious problems at Course Committee from student representatives about the proportion of students whose first language is not English when asked to do group work. Previously there have been sporadic incidents, for example, a Malaysian man who refused to work with women

Staff also raised the issue of whether a limit should be imposed on the number of overseas students, while another raised the Equal Opportunities implications of having different targets for home and overseas students on a course:

We may have reached the limit of [overseas] student numbers. For the forthcoming year the non-EC target has been doubled and may reach 50% of the course...there may be equal opportunities arising if a UK student rings, and the EC quota is full. We then have to reply if they are EC that the course is full, if they are non-EC that there is a place. I am worried about the legality of this. On balance the course has been enriched by internationalization.

The point was also made by a member of staff involved in recruiting overseas students that the UK Further Education sector provided a source of such students.

The students were more vocal in their additional comments:

Table 24: Additional comments

Response	**3**	**4**	**Total**
Course has been too European in its content	3		**3**
First Year was not international in content	1		**1**
Need to mix with overseas students on course before going abroad	1		**1**
More global links should be made	1		**1**
Would repeat overseas study element	1		**1**
Little experience of internationalization		1	**1**
More opportunities to learn language needed		1	**1**
Foreign institution taught in English		1	**1**
Need to increase class hours		1	**1**
Total	7	4	**11**

Of the 19 non-mobile students, 15 had no additional comments to make. The following are the 4 comments that were made:

> *My understanding of internationalization is very limited as I have had little exposure to it in any context.*

> *There should be more opportunities to learn languages, even at a basic level.*

> *UK students in the Netherlands were taught in English not Dutch. The Dutch benefit, all speak at least 2 languages fluently by age 18.*

> *The workloads of English Universities and French and German Universities differ completely as does the whole student culture. English Universities need to be changed and hours in class increased.*

The discussion of these findings and their relationship to the overseas case study can be found in Chapter 5.

4.4 Results of Overseas Case Study One (OSCS1) - The University of Cuthbert, Netherlands

4.4.1 Background to Dutch Higher Education

van Vught (1991) provides a comprehensive introduction to the higher education system of the Netherlands, which is formed from the 13 Universities and over 80 *Hoger beroepsonderwijs* (HBO) institutions. The first institution to be formed was the University of Leiden in 1575, with the complete University sector listed in the Table below:

Table 25: Dutch University Sector and nationality of students (Henley, 1994)

	Staff *	**Under-graduates**	**Post-graduates**
	1992/93	**1992/93**	**1991/92**
Leiden	4377	16051	532
Utrecht	5874	21503	641
Groningen	4236	17828	395
Erasmus Rotterdam	2833	14605	231
Limburg	1815	6546	194
Amsterdam	4961	23071	716
Free University Amsterdam	3259	11620	309
Catholic University Nijmegen	3671	11850	353
Catholic University Brabant	1083	8015	130
Technical University Delft	4887	12061	547
Technical University Eindhoven	2533	6430	356
Twente	2292	6297	290
Agricultural University Wageningen	2660	5665	248

* includes postgraduate students on staff

The Universities comprise nine institutions offering a broad range of subjects, three specialising in engineering and one in agriculture. There are three Universities - all offering a broad range of subjects - which have particular religious traditions: the Free-University in Amsterdam is Protestant-Reformist, and both Nijmegen and Brabant at Tilburg are Catholic.

Most undergraduate degree courses last four years but students are allowed up to six years to complete the course of study known as the *doctoraalprogramma*, which allows students to precede their name with the initials *drs* (equivalent to the UK's BA).

The group of over 80 HBO's are vocationally-orientated and can be compared to the former UK Polytechnic sector. They are significant for their close links with trade and industry and offer professional qualifications leading to a Bachelor degree.

A distinctive feature of the sector is the lack of student accommodation with the exception of the Technische Universiteit in Twente. The majority of students live in private rented accommodation or at home. There are two national organizations serving student needs - the Foreign Student Service and the Student Affairs Office.

Henley (1994) provides figures on the make-up of the University student population:

Table 26: Students by nationality, and percentage of total 1992/93

	Number	**%**
Netherlands	145405	96.9
Other EU	1771	1.2
Other European	380	0.3
North America	150	0.1
Central/South America	618	0.4
Africa	422	0.3
Asia	1338	0.9
Australia/New Zealand	9	0.0
Unknown	16,067	0.0
Total	**166,160**	**100**

4.4.2 Erasmus activity

The Netherlands is active within the Erasmus programme and in 1992/3 co-ordinated 202 (8.49%) of all networks in the scheme. In addition, the Netherlands participates in a further 706 networks. These result in 7268 outgoing students and 7263 incoming students, which is remarkable within the scheme for the balance of the mobility flow, suggesting either a colossal coincidence or tight management of the mobility flows which is far more likely. The largest group of Dutch students (1921) travel to the UK with the smallest group (139) travelling to Portugal.

In comparison, the largest group (6857) of UK students travel to France, followed by Germany, Spain and the Netherlands in fourth place with 1788 students.

In terms of teaching mobility programmes, the UK is the most popular destination for Dutch teachers with a total of 502 teacher weeks representing 143 staff. UK staff mobility largely mirrors the student mobility with France being the most popular destination (939 weeks), followed by Germany, Spain and the Netherlands with (486) weeks spent by 144 staff.

4.4.3 The University of Cuthbert

The University of Cuthbert - as I will call the case study institution - has over 15,000 full- and part-time students, together with over 1,500 employees. It provides a range of courses aimed at responding to the needs of the job market which is a requirement imposed nationally. This is supported by Companies who are invited to join the various Advisory Councils (dependant on subject) of the institution, which meet several times a year in order to discuss the curriculum.

The full range of courses offered at the institution is much narrower than an equivalent UK university, and is much more practically orientated to local labour market needs. The courses are in Accountancy, Finance and Accounting, Business Management, Business Information Technology, Fiscal Economics (Taxation), Marketing, Business and Languages, Management Economics and Law, Facility Management, Food and

Business, Nutrition and Dietetics, and International Business (including Master of International Business).

The problem of understanding the institutional policy documents on internationalization (which were written in Dutch) was overcome by detailed discussions with staff of the International Office and by interviewing the authors of the documents as part of the interview schedule. The policy was to be found in English translation within the document entitled 'Knowledge Across Boundaries' which places internationalization within the context of existing activities as a way of increasing opportunities for students and ensuring the quality of provision in terms of excellence. The attraction of foreign students is not seen as of primary importance and there is recognition that internationalization will require additional expenditure from within institutional budgets. The commitment of senior management to the whole process is guaranteed after extensive discussion and consultation with staff.

The document makes explicit the specific goal of the institution in establishing in 1989 the International Business School (IBS) to:

> *prepare multinational groups of students for careers in international business. IBS offers two degree programmes: Finance and Accounting, and Marketing/International Management. Both programmes are taught entirely in English and in addition students study at least one other foreign language.*
>
> *Finance and Accounting is a programme designed to prepare students for middle management jobs in international companies, government and EC organizations. Their key responsibilities will lie in the field of international finance and accounting.*
>
> *The graduates on the Marketing/International Management programme will be prepared to operate in the management of companies that trade on an international scale. They will undertake functions in the fields of international marketing, international sales, trade consultancy and marketing services.*

IBS students may opt for the Double Degree Programme which makes it possible for students to obtain at the same time the Dutch undergraduate degree and the degree of a partner institution.

In addition to the undergraduate programmes, the University also offers a one year Master's in International Business in collaboration with a foreign partner (a UK University).

IBS also undertakes all its administration in English. Language teaching is undertaken from within the School.

The Department of Facility Management is the other part of the institution to offer courses in English, and has a two semester programme in that language, although the administration is done in Dutch.

The International Business Language Centre was established as a way of meeting the 'need to communicate more professionally with the school's international partners.' The Centre is open to both staff and students, and also undertakes commercial work.

Apart from the above, the University also has a Management Centre which carries out a variety of training courses for companies, as well as running a part-time MBA in conjunction with a foreign institution (different to the one above).

The central International Office co-ordinates the activities of the school including 45 institutional and a greater number of company links in the following countries: Belgium, Canada, CIS, Czech Republic, Denmark, Dutch Antilles, Finland, France, Germany, Hungary, Italy, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, UK, and the USA. Staff of the office liaise with partner schools and companies, as well as providing the point of contact for incoming and outgoing students. Of the eleven staff working as part of the International Office, two are wholly devoted to undertaking the management and administration of the work, with the other nine being Liaison Officers for various regions or country groupings such as the Caribbean or the UK and Ireland.

The institution has internationalized by returning to first principles and recognizing that to maintain itself in terms of the quality of its education, it must seek to develop and change both its curriculum and structures, even to the point of teaching and administering in a foreign language albeit the *lingua franca* of international business. This is qualitatively different to the UK approach which has internationalized as a response to financial constraints and whose international activities are predominantly concerned with alleviating this through overseas recruitment, EC programmes, franchising of courses and so forth.

This difference has been summed up by the Dutch Director of International Affairs (for whom there is no equivalent in the UK Case Study at the same level of seniority within the organization):

> *internationalization is a kind of process - people have to become aware, so you can't handle it top down. You have to think with people, offer them opportunities. Internationalization is not cheap, but as soon as you define it in terms of quality and necessity you are willing to pay.*

This view is in accordance with the Dutch approach to work, aiming as it does to build consensus among all staff, whether they are directly involved or not. Indeed it is seen as distinctly 'un-Dutch' to seek to impose the will of senior management as is the case in Britain.

4.4.4 Research findings

In addition to providing data to inform the research aims, the 23 interviews identified a number of positive and negative perceptions by the Dutch of British higher education which are of interest. Positive aspects were seen to be:

- very good libraries
- existence of student accommodation (Halls of Residence)
- research is a standard element of an academic contract (whereas HBO staff provide *'good training but not research'*)

- *'(UK) Universities are better at presenting themselves nationally and internationally'*

On the downside however, were a number of observations:

- very bad accommodation for staff and teaching - *buildings should be torn down...very depressing...horrible '60's buildings*
- very formal in terms of hierarchical structures and dress
- the decision-making process is very hierarchical (compared with the Dutch search for consensus)
- large differences in the standard of teaching among UK academic staff
- ranking of Universities similar to United States, (Oxford, Cambridge, 'old' Universities, 'new' Universities, former Polytechnics) whereas Dutch institutions avoid such pecking orders

Further differential perceptions of the two national systems of higher education covered Erasmus partners, student support and accommodation:

> *I would rather have partners who look after my students better...some UK students are not excellent and will be better off in a less prestigious University...a percentage of exchange students from the UK are half-way hooligans, (they) misbehave especially with alcohol and drugs. British students show more signs of not being able to cope with (the) freedom here. Also, they have sub-standard English and it is a difficulty for staff to understand them, usually because of accent.*

This startling condemnation of the linguistic weakness of some UK students in their mother-tongue gives a clear indication of why proficiency in foreign languages is so problematic.

The limited observation by the British researcher, identified the positive aspects of the Dutch system as being:

- modern, purpose-built buildings

- 60 days holidays per annum (and an 8% holiday bonus) with 50 days for administrative staff
- better rates of pay
- staff are allowed to work from home
- the large number of bicycles to be found on campus and on the roads generally

On the negative side is the 600 teaching hours per annum (compared to 550 in the UK), with a total workload of 1710 hours of work per annum, which when worked over 40 weeks results in an average of 42.75 hours per week although staff are not expected to be present for that amount of time, since the buildings do not have the capacity to hold all the staff at the same time.

4.4.5 Interviews with staff and students

The findings of the 23 interviews conducted are illuminating in the way they provide a comparative study with their UK counterparts. The interviews were divided as follows:

1 Staff who are involved in international matters (7 interviews)
2 Staff who are not directly involved in international matters (5 interviews)
3 Students in their final year who have spent a year abroad (6 interviews)
4 Students in their final year who have not spent a year abroad (5 interviews)

The first question (Q1.1, 2.1, 3.1, 4.1) asked what the interviewee considered the internationalization of higher education to include.

Table 27: Constituent elements of internationalization

Response	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**Total**
Student exchanges and visits/field trips/placements	7	2	4	4	**17**
International comparative content in curriculum	5	1	3	2	**11**
Teaching and research exchanges for staff	6	1	1	1	**9**
Joint or Dual Qualifications/CATS/harmonisation of awards	2	1		1	**4**
Institutional links	1			1	**2**
Teaching of foreign languages		1		1	**2**
Staff development to international perspective		1	1		**2**
Response to external changes		1	1		**2**
Increased cultural understanding and transfer of educational experience			1		**1**
Recruitment of overseas students	1				**1**
International standards in education and business	1				**1**
Transferable knowledge across countries				1	**1**
Use of foreign textbooks and materials				1	**1**
Total	24	8	11	12	55

Additional areas for the Dutch were transferable knowledge across cultures, use of foreign textbooks and other materials, responses to external changes and seeking to gain international standards in education and business which was noticeably absent from the UK comments.

The Dutch make no special provision for foreign students in the sense of separate courses. All students are fully integrated into the normal programme and a 'Dutch for Beginners' course is open to all in much the same way as 'English as a Foreign Language' is taught in UK institutions.

No courses are franchised by the Dutch, who are more interested in developing Joint Courses or Dual Qualifications. In addition the explicit linking of trade with education is not made as this is so deeply ingrained in the Dutch psyche - as can be seen from later comments - that it is not thought to be an appropriate answer.

Some comments of interviewees are particularly interesting:

> *The alpha and omega of internationalization is between the ears of the students in their experience, attitude and knowledge. This starts with the curriculum, study and placement abroad, and guest lectures.*
> (Director of International Affairs)

> *A professional education that is usable abroad.*

> *Offer new courses because of the unification of Europe - in languages, culture, also foreign subject matter. It is important for Holland to change because of (our dependency on) exports and that we are a small country. Subjects do not focus just on the EC but on the US and Far East.*

The second question (Q1.2, 2.2, 3.4, 4.4) sought to discover what international activities had been undertaken by individuals:

Table 28: International activities undertaken by respondents

Response	1	2	3	4	Total
Learning foreign languages	1	1	6	5	**13**
Teaching, studying or working abroad inc. exchange visits	4	1	3	1	**9**
Holidays abroad			5	3	**8**
Field trips	1	1	2		**4**
Joint or Dual Qualifications	2				**2**
Study on an international course			2		**2**
Recruitment of overseas students	1				**1**
International comparative content in curriculum	1				**1**
Overseas students inc. getting placements	1				**1**
Using foreign teaching materials				1	**1**
Total	11	3	18	10	**42**

In addition to the above, four respondents (three non-mobile staff and one non-mobile students) stated they had undertaken no international activities.

The notable differences between the UK and the Dutch responses to this question were concerned with the primarily teaching nature of the Dutch institution, with no responses to international conference attendance or research. Franchising did not appear either for the reason that this could well be a peculiarly British practise, and as mentioned previously, the emphasis is on developing dual qualifications.

The growth of internationalization over time was explained as follows:

> *It started 14 years ago with excursions, 7 years ago we started IBS and the supervision of the internationalization of the whole faculty. It is not me who does the internationalization, it is the students, teachers and course leaders.* (Director of International Affairs).
>
> *Organizing a field-trip to France, Germany and Belgium to examine the financial and economic consequences of European Union.*

This is my first job since graduation. I'm also responsible for student social activities such as trips for a weekend in Amsterdam, the Introduction Week, the social programme throughout the year from the local pub to monthly events, as well as the Newsletter every two months, and the Yearbook which is done by the students - we are the only Department in the School to do it, but it [the Yearbook] is found in other institutions - the students like it a lot. (Member of Administrative staff)

A supplementary question (Q1.3) to group one asked how staff had become involved in international matters:

Table 29: Reasons for staff involvement in international activities

Response	**n**
Career decision such as international degree or foreign language study	**5**
Nature of present post	**2**
Visit to a foreign partner institution	**1**
Total	**8**

No member of staff cited an explicit desire to develop the curriculum as a reason, but mention was made of the effect of a visit to a foreign partner institution:

By an eye-opening visit to Bremen in 1980. At that time I was a German teacher and becoming Director. I organized a visit (excursion) to Bremen to our colleague school and was surprised by three things: firstly, that the level and content was comparable; secondly, that the way of organizing the school was the German university way, which was different to our way, and thirdly, that at that time they had co-operation with Leeds, Toulouse and Gdansk.

I was a language teacher and was asked to help make contacts with British institutions and gradually developed from there. I had to apply for my present post and was appointed because of my language, history within this *institution of running an office as the part-time head of the exam bureau, being a part-time teacher and organizing things. English is now my lingua franca.*

The nature of the job. I applied because of my language ability and interest. I thought this might be a step on for an international career.

Other staff had more basic needs:

I applied for a job as liaison officer for France out of love of France, my French girlfriend and travel in France.

Group Two were asked (Q2.3) whether they felt that they had been given sufficient opportunities to become involved in international matters:

Table 30: Opportunities for staff involvement

Response	**n**
Yes	**4**
No	**1**
Total	**5**

Yes - opportunities are there but I have never had a reason to take them.

The one dissenting voice was clear as to the reasons of lack of opportunities:

Not really, because of the constant restructuring of the educational programme because of EC regulations.

The next question (Q1.4, 2.4) sought to identify both the actual and the perceived motivation of staff who undertake international activities. The Dutch gave a more limited number of responses compared to the UK Case Study respondents, not mentioning work abroad, meeting new people, mixing with foreign students or student recruitment as motivating factors:

Table 31: Actual and perceived motivation of staff

Response	**1**	**2**	**Total**
Development of the course	1	3	**4**
Travel abroad	2	1	**3**
Professional or career development	1	2	**3**
Personal interest and satisfaction	2	1	**3**
Use of foreign languages	1		**1**
Nature of job	1		**1**
International course studied	1		**1**
Total	9	7	**16**

Typical comments were concerned with the place of the Netherlands on the global stage:

> *Quality - Holland has been for centuries an international culture. If you want to offer an appropriate education, it should fit with that open economy and culture, so it is not just for fun, it is necessary.*

> *You get a wider view outside of your profession. Most people have been educated in Holland. There are more opportunities to do different things.*

> *Synergy - to learn from other cultures. Enterprises are asking for graduates with multicultural experience. The global market means that it is becoming more necessary to be involved in developments.*

> *It appealed to me because having been abroad I saw the advantages for others.*

The next question (Q1.5, 2.5) asked staff to identify the benefits of participating in international activities:

Table 32: Personal benefits of participating in international activities

Response	**1**	**2**	**Total**
Tolerance of cultural diversity/more open-minded	4	3	7
Academic development/improved teaching	3	3	**6**
Increased job satisfaction	3	1	**4**
Increased possibilities	3	1	**4**
Meeting people	3		**3**
Greater understanding of overseas HE	1	2	**3**
Opportunities for international employment/career	1	1	**2**
Networking with staff, companies or institutions		2	**2**
Total	18	13	**31**

No Dutch respondents mentioned improved foreign language ability or travel abroad as factors unlike their UK counterparts. However, they did mention additional benefits as being meeting people, increased job satisfaction, increased possibilities and networking with staff, companies or institutions:

> *They become better teachers because education is for society, and teachers should show students how to behave and take part. Personally it's nice to go abroad and leave this institute.*

> *A broader view, realizing that borders don't stop - the end of the world doesn't begin at the Dutch border. That there are different ways of doing things - our way is not necessarily the best one.*

> *Many personal advantages - knowing self better, a broader view, understanding how history affects the way we work now. I became a traveller.*

> *I see things from a different perspective in my own country and become aware of the cultural differences. I don't take things for granted.*

Meeting people. Getting accustomed to other cultures. Learning to appreciate that there are many roads leading to Rome and ours is not necessarily the best one, (although) it is a good one. I enjoy seeing my students and colleagues from here and partner institutions becoming richer personalities from being involved in international contacts and the psychological income I get from this.

This was balanced (Q1.6, 2.6) with a request for information about the disadvantages of such activity with the Dutch expressing no concern about the additional time required for dealing with overseas students, disillusionment, overseas recruitment, cultural difficulties, disrupted family life, discrimination against women because of domestic circumstances or tiredness.

However, they did add difficulty in maintaining friendships when overseas, assessing the quality of foreign institutions, and the need to change staff perceptions in order to acknowledge the benefits of internationalization as well as illness:

Table 33: Disadvantages of participating in international activities

Response	**1**	**2**	**Total**
Time-consuming	2	3	**5**
No disadvantages	2		**2**
Neglect work at home institution	1		**1**
Amount of travel	1		**1**
Perception of other staff of 'freebies'/jealousy		1	**1**
Need to have a foreign language to lecture in		1	**1**
Cost of visits		1	**1**
Difficulty in maintaining relationships	1		**1**
Assessing quality of foreign institutions		1	**1**
Need to change staff perceptions	1		**1**
Illness	1		**1**
Total	9	7	**16**

I wouldn't call them disadvantages but internationalization is a kind of process - people have to become aware, so you can't handle it top down. You have to think with people, offer them opportunities. Internationalization is not cheap, but as soon as you define it in terms of quality and necessity you are willing to pay.

Some people say that our purpose is to teach , not to travel around. There is some jealousy.

Living for periods without real good friends because I'm abroad. It is difficult to maintain relationships. I'm always applying for work because contract work is abroad. Illness.

Staff were then asked (Q1.7, 2.7) to identify the factors critical to successful internationalization within their institution: Dutch staff offered additional factors with the main one being the need for a bottom-up approach. Others included the need for good management, motivated students, good teachers, finding overseas work placements, teachers with non-academic work experience, the need to keep abreast of developments, recognition of the importance of internationalization, and the presentation or marketing of the institution overseas.

In comparison, the Dutch did not mention a number of factors, namely the need for a broad approach - not just high fees, research, having Programmes of study organized in advance, communication between administration and students, maintaining standards in overseas recruitment, personal interests in international activity, staff timetables to allow for overseas visits or international components on courses.

Table 34: Factors critical to successful internationalization

Response	**1**	**2**	**Total**
Strategy/setting objectives and scale	1		**1**
Provide resources and organization (time and money)	3	2	**5**
Staff commitment/positive attitude	4		**4**
Student and staff exchanges	1	2	**3**
Quality institutional partnerships	1	1	**2**
Sharing information between staff/co-operation	1	1	**2**
Good management	1	1	**2**
Meeting students' needs	1		**1**
Language training		1	**1**
Administration and organization	1		**1**
Information on opportunities and staff development on cultural differences		1	**1**
Having foreign staff	1		**1**
Student accommodation	1		**1**
Presentation/marketing the institution overseas	1		**1**
A bottom-up approach	1		**1**
Motivated students		1	**1**
Good teachers		1	**1**
Finding overseas work placements		1	**1**
Teachers with non-academic work experience		1	**1**
Need to keep abreast of developments		1	**1**
Recognizing the importance of internationalization		1	**1**
Total	18	15	**33**

Comments made by interviewees explained in detail their justification for various factors:

> *Tendency to reform and keep ahead of new developments by staff. Teachers must have experience outside of education.*

Recognition of the increasing importance of internationalization, students to learn foreign languages, exchange of information within the institution so that staff know of opportunities, time and money.

Teacher exchange - teachers need international experience to become more effective in their subject.

The difficulty here is that we are the only Department teaching [the entire curriculum] in English, and other Departments are only looking at the Dutch market [to attract students from]. They [staff] benefit from internationalization such as staff seminars and are positive.

Support of management at various levels including the Executive and Faculty, also Departmental heads. Financial support from the Faculty. Needs and wants of students - students need to take part.

Bottom-up process. Raising staff awareness. As an organization we are overloaded with new things - changing our programmes and curricula...have strategic issues and need to think them over, for example, we are a Dutch institution offering an English stream but what do we want to be in 10 years - the same, bilingual on all courses or an international school?

Don't know. Maybe good management, good teachers and motivated students, but these are not special to internationalization.

Staff were then asked (Q1.8, 2.8) to identify the reasons why internationalization had occurred within the institution. The most significant difference was that income from overseas students was mentioned by only one Dutch member of staff directly involved in that. The Dutch did not mention student mix, curriculum development, membership of the EU, mastery of the subject, enthusiastic internationalists, raising staff morale or research, but added increased opportunities for the institution (of an unspecified nature), support from senior management, bottom-up demand from staff and student demand.

Table 35: Reasons for internationalization within institution

Response	1	2	Total
University Mission	4		4
Student demand	3	1	4
Bottom-up staff demand	1	3	4
Maintain student numbers	2	1	3
Demands of employers for international graduates	2	1	3
Support from senior management	2	1	3
Access to EC funds	1	1	2
Income from overseas student fees	1		1
Competitors are doing it/fashion/trends	1		1
Increased reputation		1	1
Increased opportunities for the institution		1	1
Total	17	10	27

It may be the case that non-mobile staff perceive 'bottom-up demand' - in the sense of personal interest - as the starting point for activity. The emphasis is clearly on strategy and market demand, with mention of employability that was not so apparent in the UK case study.

> *Some people 14 years ago being aware of the necessity of internationalization and they were supported by the President and vice-president, so top-down for IBS and now at stage of dissemination of thought on internationalization.*
>
> *Don't know. Bottom up.*
>
> *Personal interest of Directorate and ordinary academic staff.*
>
> *To explore other fields - interest by staff and students' demand for new subjects.*
>
> *Staff wanted a broader view - IBS Department responded to student demand.*

Consideration of educational goals to include internationalization by management. Delivers revenue by exchange subsidies and student enrolment.

Mainly because Holland is a small country and we are dependent on exports, and there is an advantage for students in the labour market.

Always had a Director of international matters and he took many years to convince others of the benefit to the school - financially (foreign student fees). Our Department organizes international activities which other Departments benefit from. Student recruitment is going down in Dutch Departments, and we have a market elsewhere. Some Departments are now offering two semesters in English. We also have an advisory role for other Departments.

Question (Q1.9, 2.9) asked whether internationalization had occurred as part of a strategic plan. Unlike their UK colleagues, Dutch staff were unanimous in their response, indicating a clear understanding of the institutions strategy, position and direction.

Table 36: Internationalization as part of a strategic plan

Response	**1**	**2**	**Total**
Yes	7	5	**12**
No	0	0	**0**
Strategy follows action/backwards rationalization	0	0	**0**
Total	7	5	**12**

The most detailed staff comments were:

Implicit. Making strategic plans and thinking strategically has only grown in the last 10 years as a management process.

Yes - I think it has grown by developing links with partner institutions (bottom-up) and then top-down co-ordination.

Yes - one target for the whole school and not just IBS. Money has been set aside for an [International] office and housing for foreign students.

Yes - not in the sense that there were large policy documents before we started but that there was a driving need.

Question 10 asked whether staff should be encouraged to become more international and if so in what ways this should be done. The Dutch respondents thought that staff exchanges were the most important vehicle with learning of a foreign language being seen as a minimal need probably because Dutch staff frequently speak at least one foreign language as a matter of course.

They similarly made no mention of using overseas students as a teaching resource, the provision of information, visiting their own students overseas or joint research but added use of foreign teaching materials, the use of guest speakers from multinational companies and the need to offer opportunities to staff:

Table 37: Ways in which staff should be encouraged

Response	**1**	**2**	**Total**
Staff exchanges	7	2	**9**
Voluntary involvement of staff	3	2	**5**
International outlook/guest speakers from multinationals	2	1	**3**
Curriculum development	2		**2**
Learning of foreign languages for teaching and administrative staff		1	**1**
Staff development (conferences, publications, etc.)	1		**1**
Educational development overseas/use of foreign teaching materials	1		**1**
Offering opportunities to staff	1		**1**
Total	17	6	**23**

Staff were clear about the reasons for, and desirable activities in, international activities:

Yes - Holland is such a small country, so there is a need to stimulate staff to go abroad.

Yes - stimulate as much as possible to work in staff exchanges, visit other schools, develop programmes, have foreign students in class and visiting staff

Only if [staff] show interest - you can't force them. Giving the opportunity for guest lectures or staff exchanges or foreign staff here.

Yes, but there are certain degrees who would say it's not important because students focus on the Dutch market, for example, in law. Staff exchanges - send staff abroad to lecture for a week or longer.

Yes - by actively getting them face-to-face with colleagues abroad, such as the international student population. Staff are frightened off by language and the time and effort needed to improve.

The next section of the interview (Q1.11, 2.11, 3.2, 4.2) moved onto the benefits and disadvantages to students of international activities defined as study and work abroad or study with overseas students present on courses.

The Dutch made no mention of knowledge of teaching and learning differences or contacts and friendships maybe because this was seen as implicit in other responses. The advantages are identified first:

Table 38: Advantages to students of international activities

Response	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**Total**
Increased understanding of cultural diversity	4	4	5	3	**16**
Increased maturity, independence, broadening	7	2	1	1	**11**
Improved employment prospects	2	3	5	1	**11**
Improved language ability		2	1		**3**
Developing transferable skills			1	1	**2**
Study at better institution overseas			1	1	**2**

Compare self with others	1				**1**
Seeing global integration/different business practices		1			**1**
Total	14	12	14	7	**47**

Staff identification of benefits to students were largely around similar themes:

> *Learn about cultural differences. Learn to communicate with foreigners. Learn about different ways of organizing business. Their C.V. is improved by working abroad.*

> *To learn cultural differences and see how it works in other culture - not only the Dutch way is the right one. More understanding of other people.*

> *[Students] have a romantic idea of going abroad. It increases their starting capabilities in the labour market. They are much more open after returning. Satisfies need for travelling.*

> *The same as I derived myself - to see different perspectives, cultural differences, flexibility, maturity.*

> *They are different after a year abroad because they have to rely on themselves, they're on their own and become independent and mature.*

> *The major benefit is not the academic part, which for business studies is largely similar, but the fact that students mature and have to learn to cope with different situations in another culture. Not all students will become more flexible, and may retreat into their own culture. They will be less afraid to go out to find a job and build culture.*

Student responses to benefits were similar:

> *The experiences when going abroad, you see other cultures and meet other people. You learn about other systems.*

To broaden my mind, to look at something else and decide whether I like it or not. To compare it with my experience here.

I do not want to stick in this culture. I want to go abroad so IBS is my way of getting out of here to see other cultures, countries, experiences. Holland is too small to live your entire life in.

The positive side was then compared with the disadvantages and problems of internationalization for students (Q1.12, 2.12, 3.3, 3.5, 4.3, 4.5). Dutch staff and students added the problems of getting overseas placements, the limited national application of some knowledge or conversely the lack of knowledge about one's own country because of a curriculum that is too broad, translating of foreign texts (unheard of in the UK), controlling the quality of education and the overseas experience, the problem of returning to a foreign country for resits, housing and the shortness of overseas study at only six months.

However, the Dutch made no mention of reintegration, poor administration, quality of support from the home institution (only the overseas one), lack of information about programmes of study, slower teaching when overseas students are present (as all are taught in a foreign language namely English), noisy French students, staff from the course team visiting, larger class sizes, poor knowledge of Europe, involvement in violent or dangerous situations.

Table 39: Disadvantages and problems to students of international activities

Response	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**Total**
Additional expense	3	2		1	**6**
Progress in home course because of mismatch of foreign study/delay/congruence	3	1	1		**5**
Language difficulties		1	2	2	**5**
Inadequate preparation/inability to settle/induction			1	3	**4**
Minority of students see it as an extended holiday	1				**1**
Resits	1				**1**
Housing	1				**1**
Controlling quality of education and overseas experience		1			**1**
Lack of knowledge about own country/too broad			2		**2**
Shortness of study overseas (6 months)			1		**1**
Cultural misunderstandings/differences			1		**1**
Teaching or learning difficulties/differences			1		**1**
Live in ghettos and do not derive benefit			1		**1**
Getting overseas placements			1		**1**
National application of knowledge				1	**1**
Translating texts				1	**1**
None					**0**
Total	9	5	11	8	**33**

Students provided their own perspective on the reality of their situation:

> *We don't take advantage of opportunities to mix with foreign students - improving language, knowledge of cultures, socialising. Languages should have more conversation. The programme of study in Year 1 is too basic - couldn't apply it to a job, but in Year 2 subjects were more specialised and project based. I liked working on projects with companies.*

> *How to finance it. Dutch Government is not prepared to pay for me to travel abroad especially when a lot of people go.*

Language - people talk very fast abroad and would like more practice in conversation and watching TV.

The course can be too broad, for example, on IBS we get information on the international situation, but what about Holland? I will look for work in Holland first.

I started English at secondary school, but Spanish is a difficult language because of grammar. I started from the beginning in Spanish at (this institution) for four hours a week, with three hours of English and three hours of German.

A Spanish student studying in the Netherlands was able to provide a different perspective to that offered by Dutch students who have been abroad:

Language - the system of studying language in Spain is horrible. This leads to very difficult problems with people. Spanish language teaching does not have a good idea about how important it is to learn a language. If you want to learn, you have to go abroad. Not international television with everything translated. Holland is a very easy, open, comfortable country, because the level of life is good, so there are a lot of facilities to live here. If you need something you can get it without a problem. Lots of people speak English.

Staff comments were largely similar if a little less orientated to the everyday problems encountered:

I see [study and placement abroad] them as guided experience. I don't see many, if any [disadvantages]. The money, but that is also a way of looking - not as a cost but as an investment. Our students see it as an investment.

Students return with high debts.

Some students become homesick or don't like it somewhere. There is a need to make sure that the academic programme of study is organized.

It is very difficult to have control of the quality of education and the nature of the overseas experience.

The question of how the course of study had prepared students for employment in the Single European Market (Q3.6, 4.6) was raised. Not surprisingly, the Dutch did not mention the European Documentation Centre (which is a prominent feature of the UK Case Study institution) but did mention that some or all study is specific to their own country and the importance of learning (at least two) foreign languages:

Table 40: Preparation for employment in Single European Market

Response	**3**	**4**	**Total**
International course/Units on SEM	4	1	**5**
Foreign languages	4	1	**5**
Some/all study is specific to own country		4	**4**
Knowledge of foreign markets	3		**3**
Understanding of cultural differences	3		**3**
Total	14	6	**20**

Students were mixed in their answers, with a clear difference between the attitude of the mobile and non-mobile group:

I feel I can get a job anywhere in the world. I am fluent in 4 or 5 languages and have learnt about different cultures.

Languages, economic developments and marketing, because there are more competitors in the market. Also logistics, doing presentations, dealing with other cultures, for example, Spanish lateness and not talking about business at German meals. Also international law.

Nothing but study is specific to Dutch policy. (Non-mobile student)

The students were then asked (Q3.7, 4.7) to comment on what they considered to be the ideal percentage of foreign students for a student body to be truly international. Dutch students had similar reservations about different key stages of their programmes to British students:

Table 41: The ideal size of international student body

Response	**3**	**4**	**Total**
At least 50%	1	3	**4**
Up to 50%	3	1	**4**
25%	1		**1**
In Year 1 from 10-15%	1		**1**
None for national specific subjects		1	**1**
Don't know		1	**1**
Total	6	6	**12**

Where students made comments, these were instructive:

> *At IBS had 10-15% in Year 1 and 2. In Hungary foreign students were separate - up to 70%.*

> *20% Dutch and 80% foreign but 50% would be perfect. There are not enough foreign students in year 1 because only 5% are foreign.*

The interviewer then asked staff about the impact of internationalization on the curriculum (Q1.13, 2.13):

It was noticeable that the Dutch made no mention of new University links, involving overseas students as a teaching resource, Dual Qualifications, franchising courses overseas or the impact of their teaching methods on overseas institutions, but they did add that courses were taught in a foreign language (English) and that a new Faculty had been developed.

Table 42: The impact of internationalization on the curriculum

Response	**1**	**2**	**Total**
New Faculty formed	4	1	**5**
Full international courses or routes	3	1	**4**
More emphasis on international aspects	2	2	**4**
Courses taught in a foreign language (English)	3		**3**
New electives/units	2		**2**
More emphasis on learning a foreign language		2	**2**
Overseas placements	1		**1**
Wider reading/ international material and lectures	1		**1**
Total	16	6	**22**

One member of non-mobile staff gave a 'Don't know' response.

> *IBS (Faculty). Facility Management curriculum has two semesters offered in English. This is significant for the part-time curriculum - before the full-time and part-time courses were not integrated credits but now they are. My starting point is to ask 'what is the professional education you are aiming for?' so that this defines the level of internationalization, which is different for marketing compared to accountancy. It is not compulsory - I look at internationalization as a means of attracting students. I make the curriculum so that students can go further with study and placement abroad and now when I see results, it is in the curriculum and attitude of staff.*

> *Dutch accountancy practice is more internationally orientated because of EC legislation, for example, American accountancy practice is being accepted in the Dutch system.*

> *...other Departments are offering or developing semesters [taught] in English, also workshops where students can be supervised in English. Development of course material in English in partnership with partners. Dutch students would not want to acknowledge their English is not good enough. We have developed a whole new subject which has never been taught - 'Dutch as a foreign language'*

which is compulsory for all except in some cases where exchange students have prescribed courses.

We've started a whole new Department and included subjects from other Departments, for example, business economics and marketing.

The question of how the organization had changed was then addressed (Q1.14, 2.14). The Dutch made no mention of the recruitment of overseas students, an Overseas Office at the Faculty level (a whole new international Faculty was created instead), increased staff travel, a central European Office, bids for EC research funds, the need to develop a reputation for teaching and learning, increased encouragement of staff, improved or worsened administration, reorganization of admission and induction, Student Union overseas societies, mixing home and overseas students, formation of Committees, slower teaching, or language courses for all.

The additions they made were the establishment of a new Faculty with all teaching and administration undertaken in a foreign language, creation of a staff-student office, expertise in international contacts, language fluency of staff, and student grants for foreign study.

Table 43: Organizational changes as a result of internationalization

Response	**1**	**2**	**Total**
New international Faculty with all teaching and administration done in a foreign language	7	2	**9**
Foreign Office created centrally with Director of International Affairs	6	3	**9**
New international courses	1	1	**2**
Expertise in international contacts	1	1	**2**
More exchange students	1		**1**
Special courses for overseas students inc. Dutch language	1		**1**
Roles designated to assist process	1		**1**
Staff-student office	1		**1**
Language fluency of staff	1		**1**

Student grants for foreign study		1	**1**
Total	20	8	**28**

A member of staff provided useful information on the specific demarcation of geographical responsibilities:

> *New Department (IBS). An International Office created with nine international liaison officers to cover US and Canada, Spain and Portugal, France and Belgium, UK, Scandinavia, Germany, Russia and Poland, Hungary and Czechoslovakia, Caribbean (Curaçao).*

Staff were asked to identify what future trends were likely to be within the institution (Q1.15, 2.15). No increase was foreseen in overseas student numbers, overseas operations, joint research, facilities for overseas students, relevance of courses to trade, improved language ability of home students or growth in Informa6tion Technology:

Table 44: Future trends within the internationalization of the institution

Response	**1**	**2**	**Total**
Better courses/international elements	5	1	**6**
More contact with overseas institutions (including staff exchanges)	5	1	**6**
Increased student mobility (exchanges/placements)	1	3	**4**
More of same	2	1	**3**
Rationalization of links	2		**2**
Improved care of and facilities for overseas students	1		**1**
More Dual Qualifications	1		**1**
Rethinking the international strategy	1		**1**
Increasing student numbers (including EC)		1	**1**
Total	18	7	**25**

The comments show a range of future possibilities:

More internationally orientated than we are now. More exchange programmes and placements abroad, more international literature, even more staff exchanges. We are internationalizing all the time, for example, software in English.

Hope that more and more degrees will become international, IBS is the main consumer but Food and Dietetics are also active.

Spread further into the organization, making other Departments as internationally orientated as is feasible and desirable, for example, fiscal economics is a Dutch (-specific) course.

Other Dutch Departments are starting to approve what we are doing after previous criticism. A Dutch accounting lecturer went to the UK to see how the subject was taught, and he will have an influence on his colleagues in the Department. Dutch Department staff fear that it will affect their position if they have to teach in English. Staff fear loss of teaching hours in their own Department, which would lead to hours in another Department or to go on a course of teaching their subject in English for half-year part-time. The [institution's] information is now in English, that is input of information onto the school computer is in English, as is information and publicity. Also the exam regulations are now in English and Dutch. We started with a consistent approach producing everything in English. Some exam section administrators are now taking courses in English language to improve their opportunities after initial resistance.

The final question (Q1.16, 2.16, 3.8, 4.8) asked staff and students if there was anything else they would like to add. There were 16 responses, divided exactly equally between each of the four groups.

Student responses were:

It is interesting to study in another country - it is exciting, you learn about other people, cultures, have different experiences and make an independent life for yourself.

The International Business School here is good, and it is good to internationalize courses to learn about other cultures, peoples, laws, and not just about Holland because Holland is a small country.

Attitude precedes experience. Staff should travel abroad. The preparation of students for travel abroad should include the need to be open-minded, the history of the destination and preparation for travel, sharing of experience with people who have been there (not just students), and contact persons both here and there.

If I want to work in the Netherlands, the [International Business] course might not be right, because employers may take students from another course. I learnt form my internship to be completely independent. My ideas about Americans changed - how they do things and how they think about things, for example, Americans go for high goals compared to the Dutch, if they miss they try again. Americans work 8.30 - 5.30, but Australians work 9 or 10 - 6. The first real job I've had was my internship. The expectations of my American employer of me was low, because they didn't understand Dutch education.

On my course [Dutch management, economics and law], the School Board needs to look to the future of one Europe and the course is not really internationalizing. I am studying to become a house broker [Estate Agent] and it is good to have teachers telling us about broking anywhere else in Europe. Staff need to have more information about international broking systems.

Half of the students are afraid to go abroad on my course [Business and Languages Year 2], because of the fear of the unknown, because they have been raised in [the name of the place] and have family here. The problem is communication and not being able to speak the language. You need to have the right attitude to go abroad. Many students live at home, and would have to find *themselves somewhere to live, cook for themselves and so on. It is important for students here to live on their own and manage their own affairs.*

Relationship between Spain and Holland institutions is such that Spanish do not know what the Dutch system is like and the course requirements - 'OK you can study in Holland, but don't ask me anything about your study.' Staff visit for a week which is nothing and don't know about transfer of subjects.
(Spanish exchange student)

IBS is too easy, because we did study at High School in economics, business accounting, Dutch, German, English, mathematics and physics. I know that I have friends all over Europe.

Staff responses were:

Internationalization is a bottom-up process, involving raising staff awareness. As an organization we are overloaded with new things - changing our programmes and curricula, for example, we have strategic issues and need to think them over, such as the fact that we are a Dutch institution offering an English stream, but what do we want to be in 10 years time - the same, bilingual or an international school? The organizational changes as a result of the merger mean that there is too little time left to concentrate on internationalization.

My experience is that international contacts are based upon personal contacts based on mutual trust, if you have this, you don't need formally written agreements. If you need them, there is something wrong.

I'm leader for the Dutch departments, so what we do is dependent on what others do, for example, requests to increase foreign language content in the first year.

I find it a pity that there are not more opportunities within my Department [Dutch accountancy] for staff and student exchanges. Students want to go, but *we haven't found the staff who want to find links because the staff feel inadequate in their English language ability.*

The negative side of internationalization in terms of society - the development of international trade and transport of goods is bad for the natural environment. The transport of knowledge.

Have very good experience here. Part-time students study two evenings 6-10 p.m. for 4 years in order to gain promotion within Holland.

Students want to obtain qualification from well-known schools. The move of Spanish and Portuguese institutions to a semester-based year.

The organization of internationalization is not yet very well developed. Furthermore, many projects should be subsidised by the EU but bureaucracy is causing problems.

For true internationalization, languages will be the key issue. It is important for English not to become the lingua franca to the exclusion of other languages. Being a minority language has given us the opportunity to teach our language and culture

The comparative analysis of the two case studies is provided in the next Chapter, which also examines the way in which differences in institutional approaches lead to varying outcomes, as would be expected from the strategies adopted.

Chapter Five - Discussion

The discipline of colleges and universities is in general contrived,
not for the benefit of the students, but for the interest,
or more properly speaking, for the ease of the masters.

Adam Smith in *The Wealth of Nations*, (1776) Ch. 1, pt 3

5.1 Introduction

This Chapter is concerned with discussion of the case study findings, together with a review of the literature from 1993 to the end of 1996. It discusses the findings of the research in the light of the literature, and concludes with identification of areas for future study.

5.2 Discussion of the case studies

Internationalization within UK institutions is being driven explicitly and overwhelmingly by the desire to generate income through charging overseas students 'full fees'. In addition, the availability of EC funds such as Erasmus has created a desire by institutions to undertake both University links and student exchanges which did not occur in such quantities before.

The consequences of such an approach - as seen in the UK Case Study are :

- allocation of places on courses on the basis of financial as opposed to intellectual ability, as would be evidenced by extensive scholarship schemes
- a failure to allocate sufficient resources to support overseas students in terms of accommodation, counselling, academic time, and induction, since such provision is seen as a 'cost' rather than as necessary investment
- changes to the curriculum are made to attract HND and overseas students rather than in response to employer needs or the nature of the subject, as seen with one-year 'top-

up' programmes which lead to a first degree, for example, the BA Business Administration with its intentional linguistic association with the Master of Business Administration (MBA)

- lack of internal funds for staff development in, for example, the changes necessary in order to teach and support foreign students effectively (Church 1982, Rudzki 1993)
- failure to win support for internationalization across the institution, since it is driven by financial and not academic imperatives
- lack of strategic understanding at lower levels of the organization

A previous study (Rudzki, 1995b) has identified the factors critical to successful internationalization (in order of priority) as:

1. Favourable staff attitudes
2. Having the active support of senior management
3. Having staff with a specific international brief
4. Having staff who are fluent in foreign languages
5. Availability of additional funds internally
6. Having good partner institutions
7. Having staff development focused on internationalization
8. Access to information on good practice
9. Having staff experienced in teaching overseas
10. Remission from teaching

The obstacles to internationalization - identified in both the survey and case studies (Table 4) - of funding (59% of respondents), lack of time and need for prioritisation (22%), lack of students with language ability (15%) and staff attitude (lack of enthusiasm, reluctance, conflicting interests) can be usefully compared to the CNAA (1992) review which categorised the main problems under seven headings:

1. Funding
2. Internal resistance
3. Language skills
4. Mathematical skills
5. Partners

6. Operating
7. Drop-out rates

It is interesting to compare the factors for success with the obstacles, and to speculate as to the differences. Undoubtedly, some of these are due to institutions being at different stages of development, with the presence of reactive or proactive models.

The CNAA review bears out the first obstacle and sets out the range of additional cost of international programmes from its survey respondents as:

> *£5,000 - £10,000 per programme (per year)*
> *£100,000 in total for all programmes*
> *£200 per fte, £280/fte, £1,200/fte*
> *£3,000/fte, £1,000 per student per year, £500 per student*
> *plus 45 per cent, plus 50 percent, plus 100 percent on normal costs.*

It goes on to say that:

> *In the future it seems probable that higher costs will have to be measured and justified rather than just accepted as inevitable and worthwhile. The other issue is that while some costs are visible and measurable, others are not. The major hidden cost is staff time and effort, which must be deflected from other activities serving the school's mission. Some people feel that staff time is in fact the major cost, and the main determinant of the success or failure of an international initiative. As we shall see, the staff and others may also be major beneficiaries, but balancing these qualitative costs and benefits will need sensitive management skills.*

Without an understanding of the fact that internationalization is not concerned with *who* is being taught but with *what* is being taught, the institution is clearly failing to grasp the opportunities for progress in attaining teaching and learning excellence which is an alternative reason for internationalization. As a long-term approach, this is one that has wider benefits other than purely financial ones.

It is very clear that there is a fundamental difference between the British and Dutch approaches to internationalization. Where the British are principally concerned with raising additional funds from recruiting overseas students, the Dutch are concerned with the appropriateness of the curriculum for their students, so that they can aspire to international excellence in what is being taught. They also exhibit a greater desire for consensus and a bottom-up approach to innovation.

This perspective is marked by comparisons in such aspects as language provision: British students study one foreign language and Dutch students at least two, with certain Dutch students speaking five or six.

In addition, the Dutch are very clear about the relatively minor position of their country in the overall global economy, whereas no such awareness is present among their British counterparts, maybe because of imperial overhang or more probably because of the misperception of the British as to their relative importance in the economic pecking order.

Clearly, both approaches have consequences with the British approach largely ignoring the issue of staff development and especially the funding of internationalization as a process applied to the whole institution. The Dutch have no such qualms with funds, posts and strategies being agreed in advance in order to maximize the benefits to all the stakeholders - the institution, staff and students. Paradoxically, the Dutch with fewer overseas students have a better system of Student Support because they have planned for this in advance and therefore made the appropriate arrangements.

Both the survey and case studies provide evidence which is found in the more recent literature. This evidence can be compared with what is known about the antecedents of the present wave of internationalization and how the past and present can provide information for a model of future practice.

5.3 The internationalization of higher education from an historical and philosophical perspective

It is useful to start with a quote from de Wit (1995, p5) who notes the particular problem of any researcher within this field:

> *Little research has been done on the historical roots of the present wave of internationalisation of higher education, in reaction to the globalisation of our societies. It is however important to link the generally acknowledged focus on internationalisation of education in today's world to the original roots of the university, and to place the present development in an historical perspective.*

The lack of research on the internationalization of higher education may have arisen because it has paradoxically been traditionally a fundamental aspect of old Universities, and in current times is a new field of research with the increased mobility of students through such initiatives as the European Commission's Leonardo Programme (formally Erasmus) and the continuing issue of overseas students who travel abroad to study.

This legacy of a 'global community of scholars' and the universality of all knowledge is one that informs thinking in the present era of the information technology revolution, where knowledge - as evidenced by a degree qualification from a prestigious source or the commercial applicability of university research - has become a global commodity to be traded with its commercial value set by the marketplace. This is particularly noticeable with the US Business Schools where there is a direct correlation between the prestige of the School and the starting salary of its graduates, with the equivalent of this being seen in the attractiveness of Oxford and Cambridge (Oxbridge) graduates to employers. When considered in terms of research, the marketability of knowledge is particularly noticeable in the applied sciences, in subjects areas such as bioengineering and AIDS research, where the results of investigations have a very real commercial value and are therefore to be protected by all manner of legal measures from copyright to international trademarks. An example of this is seen in the success of US Companies in patenting human genes, which leads to the rather odd conclusion that human beings now no longer own their own bodies.

UK universities are not immune to this trend and have introduced clauses into employment contracts which transfer ownership of ideas and innovations away from the individual to the institution. Such clauses make the ideal of free exchange of knowledge no longer tenable, with academic freedom being denied for commercial interests. The likely consequence of this is for a shift in research with commercial value to be increasingly undertaken outside of the university sector where resources are more plentiful and salaries are higher.

Berchem (1991, p298) echoes such moves when he says that internationality of universities is not:

> *to be seen as the end of an evolution from provinciality and narrow-mindedness. However, a great deal more needs to be done to open up universities to international perspectives.*

More significantly, this shift from what Kerr (1994) calls the 'convergent model' of universal education to the 'divergence' model, where institutions become essential to the development of national identity, occurs for reasons including the economic interests of the state. Where such interests are multi-national, the rise of such institutions as McDonald's Hamburger University and Unipart University will become increasingly common, allowing the companies to control the training and development of staff more directly.

This link between university education and preparation for a vocation can be seen throughout the historical development of universities. Matthews (1994) provides this history and notes that the oldest university-type institutions are thought to have been established by the Sumerians as scribal schools or *É-Dub-ba* circa 3500 BC.

He goes on to state that the oldest surviving University is that of Karueein, founded in 859 in Fez, Morocco - considerably older than Europe's oldest which is the University of Bologna in Italy, founded in 1088. Britain's oldest Universities are Oxford (circa 1167) and Cambridge (1284). These medieval universities were principally concerned with education in theology, law and medicine - all of which led directly to occupations - and in the arts.

Alongside the universities, centres of learning for its own sake grew around the great libraries such as that in Alexandria which was considered to contain all the knowledge of the known world. A similar example of this in the British Isles can be seen in the monastic tradition, with the seventh century monasteries - now in ruins - of Lindisfarne (Holy Island) established in the 7th century by St. Aidan, and St. Paul's in Jarrow with its library endowed by a local nobleman Benedict Biscop. Such centres of scholarship and art led to the production of such national treasures as the Lindisfarne Gospels and the Venerable Bede's *The Ecclesiastical History of the English People*.

Durham University, England's third oldest University grew on the basis of the Cathedral founded in 1094 as a monastery with monks from Lindisfarne, and the final resting place of St Cuthbert.

It is important to remember that these centres of religious activity also contained great innovators and travellers, importing ideas and adapting them to local circumstances, whether it be in such areas as the production of stained glass, agricultural methods or illuminated manuscripts. Bishops would be expected to travel to Rome and would certainly be in regular contact, albeit limited to the possibilities of the time and all monasteries had a duty to provide for the traveller, whether they be on pilgrimage or no.

It is easy for some within a modern secular society to ridicule the religious nature of such communities, by forgetting that they were based upon the belief that the contemplation of God is the highest calling of human beings, and God is to be found in His creation. Indeed, at least some of this tradition remained in the organization, design and language used within medieval universities, with their quadrangles, refectories and appointment of a leader from within their own group who was given authority to rule.

Duke (1992, p. 111) affirms this view in his observation that:

> *In the Dark Ages monasteries preserved the culture and achievements of the past through difficult times for unborn generations. Few would deny the service of monastic scribes to society and civilization. For some, contemporary society is a new dark age.*

From earliest recorded history then, there is evidence of geographical locations where learning (as the transfer of knowledge) and the pursuit of knowledge (what we now would call research or scholarships) took place.

Berchem (1991, p. 297) clearly states the position of later institutions:

> *The medieval university owed its great autonomy from city rule and the local bishop to their organisational form as an independent corporation provided with appropriate privileges by Pope and Emperor. Universities had to be separate corporations precisely because most professors and students, as foreigners, did not belong to the already existing urban corporation. Universities were an amalgamation of foreigners; at Bologna, the oldest university, local masters and scholars were excluded for a long time.*

It is interesting to compare this with modern 'independent corporations' - such as multinational companies - as centres of research and learning, with recent examples being the rise of computer giants such as Microsoft and biotechnology concerns who are racing to patent parts of the human genome. This would seem to indicate that the role of the university as the primary source of knowledge and research has been supplanted by organizations powered by profit and therefore interested in those inventions or discoveries that can generate income. That the UK Research Councils have begun to insist on the potential applicability of research findings in order for funds to be allocated, is but a pale shadow of the ethos operating in the private sector.

Berchem goes on to explain that the motivation for academic mobility was:

> *the desire to learn something abroad which could not be learned at home, either because of lack of suitable educational institutions or because of insufficient student places.*

He is clear that such reasons persist to the present time, and Dineen (1992) makes the latter point in relation to student mobility from Eire, which continues to suffer from a lack of places within its higher education sector.

In addition to the above, is the further attraction of centres of excellence as places where reputations were established for pre-eminence in a particular discipline, and the ease of communication through the use of Latin as the common language - the *Lingua Franca* - of scholars - a position which has now been taken by English as the international language of scholarship (much to the understandable chagrin of the Francophones). This also goes some way to explain why so many of Europe's student's wish to study in the United Kingdom, and why so few British student have the competence in languages possessed by their foreign counterparts, leading to an imbalance in the mobility flows between the UK and the rest of the EU.

The collapse of this early ideal is attributed to a number of factors - religious diversity caused by the Reformation, the rise of the modern nation state, and the adoption of the vernacular in teaching. To these were added armed conflicts and various prohibitions on mobility.

De Ridder-Symoens (1992) echoes these points and expands on them:

> *The use of Latin as a common language, and of a uniform programme of study and system of examinations, enabled itinerant students to continue their studies in one 'studium' after another, and ensured recognition of their degrees throughout Christendom. Besides their academic knowledge they took home with them a host of new experiences, ideas, opinions, and political principles and views. Also - and this is important - they brought back manuscripts and later on, printed books. They had become familiar with new schools of artistic expression, and with living conditions, customs, ways of life, and eating and drinking habits all previously unknown to them. As most itinerant scholars belonged to the élite of their country and later held high office, they were well placed to apply and propagate their newly acquired knowledge. The consequences of academic pilgrimage were, indeed, out of all proportion to the numerically significant number of migrant students.*

This medieval world has resonances for us today with the widespread use of English, the move towards a European Credit Accumulation and Transfer Scheme (ECTS), joint- and dual degrees, and the formative experiences of study abroad which are evidenced by the interviews with both students and staff in the case studies provided in the last chapter. That entry into UK higher education is moving back towards being based on money not merit, both for home and overseas students, merely serves to echo the past, particularly where mobility is outside programmes such as Erasmus.

de Wit (1995) states that the period between the 18th century and the Second World War was noticeable for the transfer of systems of education by the colonial powers, whether they be the Portuguese and Spanish to South America, the British to their Empire in North America, the Caribbean, Africa and Asia, and the French throughout their Empire.

The period also saw the rise in the German model of research Universities and the rise in the international exchange of knowledge through publications, correspondence, conferences, and seminars. The continuing importance of this can be seen in the emphasis attached by research staff to internationalization for this purpose.

The third and final aspect of this period was the continued mobility of students and scholars, described by de Wit as *the individual mobility of a small group of well-to-do and academically qualified students to the top centres of learning in the world.*

Inter-war advances have been influenced by the creation of bodies such as the US's Institute of International Education (IIE) in 1919 and the formation of the British Council in 1934.

With the rise of the post-war superpowers, and the migration of refugee scholars to North America and Australia, European education was in a parlous state. The legacy of German academics who had collaborated with the Nazis and the dominance of Stalinism throughout the Communist world, threw shadows across reconstruction and renewal.

The spheres of influence were clear. The Americans used the Fulbright Programme and the Rhodes Scholarships to allow their brightest and best to study abroad. Britain's honourable liberal tradition of overseas scholarships operated by the ODA and its open-door policy towards overseas students continued until 1979 with the introduction of 'full-fees' for non-scholarship students. The Soviets used the Universities to provide opportunities for much the same reasons as in the West - to educate future colonial leaders and to extend the hand of fraternal brotherhood to less developed countries particularly in the Third World and Central and Eastern Europe.

This retrenchment into national interests was tempered by the limited number of opportunities available for mobility particularly at postgraduate and faculty level, especially where this was related to language study or research. Educational and cultural exchanges became a pawn to be used in the game of Superpower posturing to the detriment of both sides.

From the 1960's and 1970's the former British colonies both expanded their systems of higher education, and saw internationalization within the context of economic development. It is now increasingly realized that the adoption of internationalization as national policy is necessary in order to maximize the potential of universities and nation-states to bring about economic growth through investment in their human resources based upon the shift from the need for unskilled to skilled labour.

The 1980's saw the rise of the European Community's Research and Development Programmes, investment in student mobility in the form of Erasmus and the need to support reform in Central and Eastern Europe post 1989 with the TEMPUS Programme.

The future of higher education within Europe has been sketched within the European Commission's (1992) Memorandum on Higher Education and the extension of both the Erasmus and Tempus programmes bodes well for the future, particularly as they metamorphose into the SOCRATES and LEONARDO programmes which will embrace the EFTA countries.

The OECD has also realized the importance of this area with its launch in 1993 of the Programme on Institutional Management in Higher Education in Higher Education (IMHE) and the establishment of the Paris-based CERI - the Centre for Educational Research and Innovation.

Within Britain, the announcement of a Review of Higher Education to be Chaired by Sir Ron Dearing has been seen as the most important analysis of higher education since the

Robbins Report of the 1960's. It is unfortunate that no explicit reference has been made to internationalization either within the Terms of Reference or within the Working Parties. It is to be hoped that the findings will not be lacking in this respect when they are published.

This historical account needs to combined with an understanding of why internationalization takes place, that is the rationale for the process and the way this changes depending on the individuals, groups, institutions or governments involved.

5.4 The rationale for internationalization

The rationale given for internationalization has varied across both time and location. However it has invariably been defined by what de Wit (p9) identifies as:

> *the various stakeholders: international, national and regional governments; the private sector; institutions; faculty and students. While each of the stakeholder groups has a distinctive perception and set of priorities with respect to internationalisation, there is also substantial overlap.*

These constitute the *overlapping rationales* and can be traced through the various statements made by the stakeholders including institutional policy statements. Such rationales are used to support the perceived *incentives* and *justifications* for the process.

de Wit (p10) identifies ten economic, political, cultural and educational rationales for internationalization:

5.4.1 Economic growth and investment in the future economy

This is usually thought of as the most important reason in that it is thought that internationalization will increase technological development and therefore bring about increased growth. This argument is also extended to the provision of scholarships for overseas students, who upon return to their respective countries will then - upon reaching positions of power - view favourably the host country who provided them with the opportunities for personal advancement.

5.4.2 The labour market

This is particularly important in subjects where students spend a year abroad such as international business and modern languages, where mobility is a prerequisite to competing in the international labour market. The increasing requirement for all graduates to speak at least one foreign language is increasingly seen in countries which speak minority languages such as Finnish or Dutch.

The demands of that environment for international managers have been researched by Barham and Devine (1990) and are quoted in the 1992 CNAA Review as follows:

Figure 5: Desirable characteristics of international managers

Characteristic	*% of respondents who ranked a characteristic amongst the five most important*
Strategic awareness	*71*
Adaptability to new situations	*67*
Sensitivity to different cultures	*60*
Ability to work in international teams	*56*
Language skills	*46*
Understanding international marketing	*46*
Relationship skills	*40*
International negotiation skills	*38*
Self-reliance	*27*
High task orientation	*19*
Open, non-judgmental personality	*19*
Understanding international finance	*13*
Awareness of own cultural background	*2*

Such a listing indicates the factors that should be considered in the design of academic programmes - particularly at postgraduate level - if they are to meet the demands of international business.

5.4.3 Foreign policy

The use of education as an adjunct to promotion of diplomatic interests can be seen in the provision of scholarships and in cultural programmes which can maintain relationships or establish political dialogue after a period of breakdown. This is because education is not seen as an area of controversy with both sides of any international disagreement being able to see the value of educational cooperation.

de Wit (p11) makes the observation that:

> *The twin arguments of economic and diplomatic investment were the traditional rationale in the UK for welcoming foreign students and educating them on generous terms, in the years before fee revenue became the dominant incentive In the case of Germany, Roeloffs states that the policy in Franco-German relations - aiming at reconciliation in the first post-war phase, then cooperation, then integration - has been the motive for academic cooperation between France and Germany.*

5.4.4 Financial incentives

Income generating activities in such forms as recruitment of foreign students, franchised courses and provision of educational consultancy, can lead to a situation where national governments can reduce the amount of support they provide for higher education.

de Wit (p11) states that:

> *Within Europe at the present time, this situation is most pronounced in the British higher education system.*

The introduction in 1979 of full-fees, meant that:

> *As a consequence, the internationalisation of higher education in the UK has been mainly concentrated on attracting high tuition paying foreign degree students, and has been understood in that manner. Indeed, many administrators in the British higher education institutions have seen the exchange of students, where there is no net income gain,* [for example the 'free-movers' from within the European Union] *as an expensive burden rather than as something to stimulate.*

> *Hence there is an institutional argument based on finance, as indicated by Callan for the UK: 'The full cost fees policy was resisted at first, but later became, ironically, a financial lifeline to institutions in the face of progressive restraints of public expenditure through the 1980's.'*

5.4.5 National educational demand

The lack of places within the system of higher education in some countries means that Government policy within those countries actively encourages its students to study abroad. Within Europe this is noticeable in Norway and Ireland. Other countries - such as Portugal and Greece - simply do not have the academic infrastructure to cope, and therefore students seek places abroad. Internationalization becomes in both these classes of country not an option but an essential element in their educational policy.

5.4.6 The cultural function

The cultural function is one which aims to develop notions of interdependence between nations. It is interesting that such cultural awareness is the most quoted benefit by students upon returning from their year abroad, (see Tables 17 and 38):

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1983) makes this cultural function explicit in Article 26(2):

> *Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations,*

racial or religious groups, and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace.

5.4.7 Development of the individual

The experience of living in a foreign environment, and the disorientation caused by culture shock, can be opportunities for personal growth. Students frequently mention the value of experiencing another culture and the permanent broadening of the mind that results.

5.4.8 Providing an international dimension to research and teaching

The need to move from a parochial, provincial or national approach to research and teaching, is being driven by a number of factors. (See Tables 11 and 32 for the benefits to staff). Firstly, the advantages that can be gained by exchange of information amongst researchers and the cost-savings that these represent in not reinventing the wheel, mean than cooperation can be of mutual benefit. Secondly, the rise of a single global economy and the need for global solutions to such problems as environmental destruction, demand perspectives that embrace the global picture if they are to be credible in their analysis. Thirdly, students are increasingly mobile and certainly on mainland Europe have experienced several countries before reaching higher education (Tables 7 and 28). Internationalization is seen as the norm by such individuals and to be welcomed in the diversity of thought and approaches that they represent.

Even for those students where *physical mobility* is not an option (Group Four within the Case Studies) within their period of study, the prospect of *intellectual mobility* is one to be welcomed. This latter mobility can be achieved through the availability of foreign texts, foreign staff and links with other institutions via such means as communications technology.

5.4.9 Institution building

The strengthening of institutions via external contacts is especially valuable for those countries outside of the affluent group of nations, namely the Second and Third World, who can benefit from such contact. Conversely, the use of research students as a cheap form of labour in the First World, is one that has been increasing.

As subject areas become increasingly specialised, the original pattern of centres of excellence and migration of scholars to those centres is being repeated. The University Department becomes international through default, in that the Faculty is drawn from the world's leading scholars. This is seen in the problems of 'brain-drain' - experienced in the migration of academics and professional staff from Britain to North America, and most recently following the end of the Cold War in the relocation of staff from the former Soviet Union to the same destination.

Such Universities no longer compete with other Universities in the same country but with other leading foreign institutions. Both Paliwoda (1990) and Arkin (1991) make this explicit in their identification of leading postgraduate Business Schools at INSEAD (France), IMD (Switzerland), Erasmus Rotterdam (Netherlands) and the London Business School (UK).

5.4.10 Improvement in the quality of education and research

The inevitable competition between universities both internally and externally, makes demands for change in strange ways. It is common for Dutch, Finnish and Swedish institutions to teach courses partly or wholly in English. Britain is in competition with North America and Australia for foreign students. Academic staff at the forefront of their discipline are finding it easier to move across national boundaries. Students are growing impatient at the shortcomings to be founded in their home institutions after experiencing the benefits of foreign Universities, whether this be in such areas as the excellence of British University libraries or the flexibility of Dutch degree programmes (see for example, Tables 17 and 38). Taken as a whole, such forces - especially when exercised by fee-paying students - will continue to influence change.

How this change takes place and what informs it, are now central issues which have been addressed at the transnational level as described below.

5.5 Strategies for internationalization of higher education

5.5.1 The OECD's IMHE Programme

The most important work to date is undoubtedly that edited by de Wit (1995) who undertook the work as part of the Programme of Institutional Management in Higher Education (IMHE) instigated by the OECD in 1993. This is one of two areas of work, the second being on the international reach of teaching and learning within the curriculum, which is being undertaken by the Paris-based Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (CERI).

The IMHE work has centred on a series of international meetings (Helsinki 1991, three in Paris during 1992, Washington 1994, Monterey 1995) which have worked within the terms of reference, namely (p1):

> *to examine the ways in which institutions are accommodating, through their own planning and development processes, the growing demand for a greater international view, taking in both the range of international activities and the elaboration and/or reformulation of the fundamental missions of teaching, research and service (eg in teaching, via changes in course contents and methods). This implies a clarification of the means necessary to assure appropriate, coherent planning and development of all international activities and international orientations within the institution; i.e. an examination of the development of strategies within institutions for internationalization.*

Such an approach has defined 'strategy' as not the search for an ideal form but rather one which is most appropriate to the particular institution, given its size, location, stage of development and so forth, that is a *contingent* strategy.

de Wit does however state (ibid.) that:

It may, however, be possible to identify distinct broad models or common approaches being adopted by institutions, and so to construct a rough typology of institutional strategies for internationalization Thus 'strategies', for the purpose of this study comprise those strategic commitments which guide the institution's international orientation for the future.

In these respects, this thesis has preceded the OECD work, results of which have been used by de Wit, who goes on to provide (p. 2) the definition on internationalization which has been adopted by the OECD:

The complex of processes whose combined effect, whether planned or not, is to enhance the international dimension of the experience of higher education in universities and similar educational institutions.

He goes on to identify the four basic approaches to internationalization as being based on activity, competency, ethos and process. They should be understood not as mutually exclusive but rather as what he describes as *different strands of a cord.*

Activity approach: The activity approach describes internationalisation in terms of categories or types of activities. These include academic and extra-curricular activities such as: curriculum development and innovation; scholar, student and faculty exchange; area studies; technical assistance; intercultural training; international students; joint research initiatives. This approach focuses exclusively on academic activities and does not necessarily include any of the organisational issues needed to initiate, develop and sustain the activities. It is this approach, however, which is more widely used in the description of internationalisation.

Competency approach: The competency approach looks at internationalisation in terms of developing new skill, attitudes, knowledge in students, faculty and staff. The focus clearly on the human dimension not on academic activities or organisation issues. It is interesting to note how closely linked the competency *approach is to the rationale cited in the previous section which addresses the development of the individual.*

Ethos approach: The third approach focuses on developing an ethos or culture in the university or college that values and support intercultural and international perspectives and initiatives. This approach is closely linked to the process approach.

Finally, what is considered to be the most comprehensive approach to describing internationalisation:

Process approach: The process approach frames internationalisation as a process which integrates an international dimension or perspective into the major functions of the institution. Terms such as infuse, integrate, permeate and incorporate are used to characterise the process approach. A wide range of academic activities, organisational policies and procedures, and strategies as part of this process.

The process approach has been identified by:

A review of definitions, institutional case studies and research reports shows that various elements have been identified as playing an important role in the internationalisation process. These elements are described in a variety of different ways - mechanisms, facilitators, activities, barriers, factors and strategies...we have used the term 'strategies' to characterise those initiatives which are taken by an institution of higher learning to integrate an international dimension into research, teaching and service function as well as management policies and systems.

de Wit (p. 17) goes on to differentiate between the *organisational strategies* which seek to develop policies and administrative systems in order to institutionalise the international dimension and *programme strategies* which are concerned with integrating international issues into teaching and research.

Programme strategies contain - at present - four types of activity - those that are research-related, those that are education-related, those that are related to technical assistance and development cooperation, and those that are related to extra-curricular activities and institutional services.

Organisational strategies by comparison contain the following elements which mirror those identified by Rudzki in Blok (ed.) (1995) as factors critical to successful internationalization: commitment and support of Board of Governors and senior administrators; support and involvement of a critical mass of faculty/staff; international office or position; adequate funding and support both internally and externally; policy; incentive and rewards for faculty and staff; existence of formal communication channels; annual planning, budget and review process.

de Wit then moves to describe four models of internationalisation strategies: Neave's 1992 unpublished UNESCO document; Davies' (1992) model; Van Dijk and Meijer's (1994) model and Rudzki's (1993) model (provided Chapter 6 of this thesis). The models reveal a certain amount of serendipity between the researchers as will become apparent below.

5.5.2 Neave's model

Neave approaches the problem of internationalisation from a theoretical standpoint and identifies two possible approaches at opposite ends of a spectrum the top-down - what he calls 'managerial rational' - and the bottom-up ('academic consensual'). He also adds change to the matrix. The problem with Neave's analysis is that it lacks the value of any practical application and is largely self-evident, even though it is described in new terms which serve merely to mystify what is essentially a straightforward approach to understanding the implementation of change in any organization.

5.5.3 Davies' model

Davies' (1992) model starts from the University's mission and moves onto elaborating a matrix of four possible strategies:

	Ad hoc	*Systematic*
Marginal	A	B
Central	C	D

He goes on to define each strategy in terms of the organizational behaviour which can be identified:

> *Quadrant A:* ad hoc - *marginal*
> *The amount of international business is relatively small: some overseas students; a small amount of consultancy or continuing education. Research linkages will largely be confined to motivated individuals and arrangements for charging and financing are variable and unsystematic. Little specialism exists in personnel or organisational form. A weak database exists on opportunities, competition and trends in the international market place and little systematic assessment of opportunity occurs. Internationalism is low in the mission and on the planning agenda. Incentives are usually non-existent.*
>
> *Quadrant B: systematic - marginal*
> *The amount of business is still relatively small, but is well organised and co-ordinated. Areas of international activity are precisely identified and correspond with fields of internal strength and market opportunity. Projects and effort are focused on particular market segments in which the university will endeavour to become expert and niche marketing is usual. Costing and pricing are accurate and realistic. A small number of institutional agreements are meaningful and work. Supporting procedures are clear and relevant. Staff training is limited but related.*
>
> *Quadrant C:* ad hoc - *high centrality*
> *The amount of international business is considerable across a number of different categories and a wide range of market segments and client groups. Whereas there may be some strong areas, marketing is usually ill-focused. Curriculum may not be particularly geared to international issues in any co-ordinated way. Acceptance of projects is usually on a knee-jerk basis. Costing and pricing are eccentric. There is a tendency for a sizeable number of*

institutional agreements, many of which are not operational but largely rhetorical. Central marketers often generate business which faculties and individuals resent and reject, but the financial imperative is strong. Tensions are rife. Support services are often not geared to considerable international effort, and ground rules change with bewildering rapidity. Quality control is haphazard and often related to periods of crisis in international projects.

Quadrant D: central-systematic

There is a large volume of international work in many categories, which reinforce each other and have intellectual coherence. The international mission is explicit and followed through with specific policies and supporting procedures. The database is extensive and regularly updated. Agency agreements exist in overseas countries, as do partner institutions for the delivery of programmes, with clear and effective operating procedures. Personnel and curriculum policies are continually appraised and readjusted to support the international effort. Financial management is highly systematic, as are inter-institutional linkages. Substantial financial commitment to international projects is apparent. A dedicated organisational structure to support a range of international efforts is in place, and the tension that exists between these organs and mainstream faculties is usually constructive. Reward and incentive mechanisms are properly used. Systematic quality monitoring occurs.

The great strength of Davies' model is that it provides a conceptual framework allowing for the analysis of universities by examining the kind of activities being undertaken and from this being able to predict the strategy being used. In this it exhibits an unusual elegance and is based on actual scenarios encountered within institutions. Davies' makes the point that the framework is not meant to be prescriptive but reflects:

the consequence of the force of external imperatives to generate money, the leadership style and priorities of the Rector and key internationalists in the faculty and administration, and many other factors.

5.5.4 Van Dijk and Meijer's model

The Van Dijk and Meijer (1994) model builds upon Davies' parameters of importance (central-marginal) and style (*ad hoc* - systematic) by adding a third parameter which they call 'support' and which is either one-sided or interactive - what can be understood as authoritarian or democratic.

They have used the model to analyse the higher education sector in the Netherlands, that is the 13 universities and 79 *hogescholen.* They found that all the universities and 78% of the *hogescholen* had a written policy, usually originating from the Executive Board and mostly directed to (outgoing) student mobility. In practice, the central Office for International Relations is larger within Universities with an average of 5.3 fte staff compared to 0.9 fte in the *hogescholen,* with both types of institution delegating the implementation of policy to faculties.

It is also significant that about 20 *hogescholen* see internationalisation as being of marginal importance, with the reason being their monosectoral basis such as agriculture or primary teacher training.

The support dimension is also more developed at universities with more regular consultation between the centre and faculties.

The statistical analysis of the survey shows that the largest number of institutions (54%) undertake international activities in a 'central-interactive but *ad hoc*' way, with the next largest grouping (14%) having moved from this to a systematic approach. No institutions engage in 'marginal-one-sided-systematic' or 'central-one-sided-*ad hoc*' activity.

Van Dijk and Meijer also show that there is a positive correlation between the variables within the three dimensions in that the inputs correlate with both the process characteristics and the outputs. This translates as evidence that *'Institutions that are active and successful in one aspect of internationalisation are also successful in other aspects.'* In addition, increased investment of staff and money results in a higher output in percentage terms especially as regards student mobility. Finally, the support dimension in terms of the way that all levels of the institution interact, shows the clearest correlation between the importance of internationalization and its success.

The success of the Van Dijk and Meijer model lies in its construction from reality and its predictive power to identify critical input factors. It also succeeds in extending Davies' model into a third dimension, which allows for a more elaborate understanding of the process and the way in which various determinants - such as the availability of resources - affect the outcome. The Dutch case study shows how the application of such an approach can lead to a very different type of internationalization than found in the UK.

5.5.5 Rudzki's model

Rudzki's (1993) model (provided in Chapter 6 of this thesis), like that of Van Dijk and Meijer, is built upon empirical work in the form of a national survey of UK business schools. It contrasts with Neave's 'top-down versus bottom-up' approach by introducing concepts of proactive and reactive approaches. Where it differs fundamentally from the other models however is in its identification of four dimensions of internationalization: organizational change, curriculum innovation, staff development and student mobility.

In this it identifies in detail the institutional activities which form the basis of internationalization and which should be addressed for a coherent and complete approach to be implemented. Discussion of this is left to the next chapter.

5.6 Areas for future study

The whole question of research in internationalization has been raised in Smith, Teichler and van der Wende's (eds.) (1994) work *The International Dimension of Higher Education: Setting the Research Agenda.*

In the preface, Moritz Csáky makes the point that:

> *The international dimension of higher education is to be perceived as one of the important features of contemporary universities but our scientific understanding of this dimension is still less developed. Therefore the board of IFK decided to host and co-sponsor a research workshop focused on this topic hence to contribute to the scholarly efforts in this field.'*

The various contributors identify gaps in understanding relating to academic mobility, the contribution of the international dimensions to institutions, student mobility flows, policy-making, trans-european cooperation, structural changes necessitated by international activity, work with developing countries, the contribution of various disciplines to the study of the international dimension, economic issues of international education, and interdisciplinary approaches.

The research findings within this thesis generate their own avenues for future work:

- the need to repeat the 1993 survey in order to assess the changes over time and the impact of the increase in the membership of the ABS from 96 in 1993 to 104 in 1996
- the application of the Davies/NUFFIC model in order to assess UK universities
- to assess the distribution and value of overseas scholarships within UK universities and to see whether these have increased, remained static or decreased in number and real value
- to assess the effect of Dearing on international activity and UK business schools
- to test the research finding that internationalization of UK business schools is being driven by external funding, by for example, surveying institutions in order to identify international activities which are not income-generating or which are funded by the institutions themselves
- to compile a historical review of the growth of UK business education
- to investigate what constitutes the 'global community of scholars'

I am also indebted to Carnestedt's extension of my survey questionnaire in asking additional questions, which are shown in Appendix III.

As has been seen, the internationalization of higher education although not a recent phenomenon, is nevertheless one in which critical examination and construction of a conceptual framework is very much in its early stages. That increasing numbers of researchers and practitioners are now engaged in reflection, analysis and theory construction is to be welcomed, and bodes well for the future development of the discipline.

In the next Chapter, the shift from the descriptive to the prescriptive takes place, based as it is on a synthesis of the research, literature and social realities of the age.

Chapter Six - A Model of Internationalization

Theory gathers together all the isolated bits of empirical data into a coherent conceptual framework of wider applicability.

Cohen and Manion (1996, p14)

6.1 The application of a strategic management model to the internationalization of higher education institutions

(Parts of this Chapter have been published in *Higher Education,* 29: 421-441, 1995)

As has been seen in the previous chapter the growth of international activities within higher education institutions takes place in a number of different ways ranging from the ad hoc (reactive) to the strategic (proactive). This Chapter draws on the research in order to identify the key elements within any process of internationalization and to provide a framework for assessing levels of international activity within institutions. It concludes with a model of internationalization. Although the perspective is largely a UK one, the model is fractal and can be used by individuals, departments, institutions, national or transnational organizations.

For the purposes of the model, internationalization of higher education has been defined as:

> *a defining feature of all universities, encompassing organizational change, curriculum innovation, staff development and student mobility, for the purposes of achieving excellence in teaching and research.*

This roots the process of internationalization firmly in the historical continuum by stating its *a priori* nature within what is understood by the university as *universitas* - 'the whole world'. Within such an understanding, the provincial or even national university becomes a contradiction, since all universities must be international if they are to claim legitimacy for the knowledge they convey as being truly at the forefront of thinking.

This definition of 'university' is to be understood as any institution of higher education - a definition that is in keeping with the European Commission's Erasmus programme.

Such a definition brings together the various elements of the process into a coherent whole, and avoids the mistake of treating the areas in isolation. This shift from disintegration to integration of activities is a prerequisite for the effective use of a strategic management model. Such a combination of internationalization as a phenomenon with a conceptual model with which to analyse the process, is further enhanced by the identification of activities in each of the four dimensions of the process, namely organizational change, curriculum innovation, staff development and student mobility. (This ordering is deliberate in that it addresses the elements in order of their permanence. starting with the organization which outlives those who work within it, and ending with those transient beings known as the students.)

This is not, however, to suggest that the strategic management model is the only one that can be used. This Chapter considers it, in that it is one with which the author has most familiarity and which can be applied in a way which is readily accessible to the general reader. It is also transferable as a tool for analysing the process in the various systems of higher education.

There are other approaches which can contribute equally well, both within management theories - such as those on change and decision-making - and outside of management. This latter group could well include an historical study of patterns of internationalization from the foundation of institutions to the present day, a particularly rich field since a number of institutional histories have been written since that time and contemporaneous records are available in some cases.

Similarly a sociological investigation of what constitutes the 'global community of scholars' (a concept frequently used but never defined) could also yield useful insights into the process, the reason for its existence and future directions. As can be seen from earlier comments about the nature of the *universitas,* the philosophical perspective could help to define the way in which the concept of the university as an institution presupposes certain attributes and purposes of which internationalization is one, such that one could argue that if there exists in fact a 'global community of scholars', does this predicate the existence of a 'global university' linked by the exchange of knowledge between individuals in order to create a meta-mind, or to misquote Jung a 'collective consciousness'?

The concept of 'globalization' although not synonymous with internationalization is equally capable of yielding significant perspectives particularly when applied by the geographers and social theorists to explain patterns of migration of both staff and students and the reasons for these. In this, globalization in terms of world systems theory and what Robertson (1994) describes as *the Western project of modernity* have a lot to offer future researchers.

To return, however, to the method adopted, that of strategic management, the application of such an approach to higher education has been discussed by Easterby-Smith (1987), and Kelly & Shaw (1987). Easterby-Smith differentiates between the normative (using such tools as SWOT, STEP and the Boston Consulting Group Matrix) and descriptive approaches of strategic management as described by Leontiades (1979).

The descriptive approach has been championed by Mintzberg (1978), who has defined strategy as a 'pattern of decisions', which either lead directly from an intended strategy to a released strategy (where for example the objective is clear), or are diverted from the intended to an unrealised then emergent to a released strategy (where discussion has to take place not only about tactics but about the destination). This latter indirect route is often found in Universities as described by Clark (1983) due to the particular organizational culture considerations of academic life for 'critical detachment' as outlined by Rutherford *et al.* (1985). Such an academic culture is based on the intellectual independence of staff with any allegiance being primarily to their subject, Departmental colleagues or profession such as Law, Medicine or Foreign Languages, and not to the institution as a whole. Such an organizational arrangement is exacerbated by funding arrangements which will favour one area of study above another, whether such discrimination is shown at the institutional level, or in the case of the UK, at the Governmental level. Within such a culture therefore, it is inevitable that management inspired initiatives will be tempered by the experience of the 'chalk-face' staff who see such initiatives as being externally driven and not something that is a useful contribution to their work.

Holdaway and Meekison (1990) provide an example of the application of the strategic planning approach to the activities of the University of Alberta in Canada. They conclude that *'successful University planning requires appropriate procedures, wide involvement, trust, recognition of the political realities of universities, emphasis on the process, and proper timing.'* In this they predate the findings of later researchers who have identified the importance of active commitment and involvement of groups of staff, together with an awareness of the larger context in which universities operate.

In his later works (1994a, b, c), Mintzberg re-examines the nature of strategic planning and concludes that its failure can be seen as a result of two factors. Firstly, the absence of commitment from top management to planning, and secondly, a non-congenial climate where the need for strategic thinking is not seen as important. The reasons for these failures are that strategic planning seeks to restrict the power of senior managers to make decisions over direction and the improper use of planning as a means of extending the past rather than redefining the future in a creative way. His views are borne out in the identification of staff commitment as a critical factor to successful internationalization, and in the ad hoc or reactive approach adopted by some institutions.

Johnson and Scholes (1989) have adopted Mintzberg's approach and argue that strategic management is to be understood in three interdependent stages: strategic analysis, strategic choice and strategic implementation. The model constructed from this provides a useful analytical tool in understanding the process of internationalization within higher education institutions, since it addresses the key issues as developed below.

6.1.1 Strategic analysis

(A) *the environment*

Questions that can be asked cover both the internal and external environment of the organization, such as: What is the university's plan for the future - its 'mission'? What activities are being undertaken at present? What is the capacity of the staff and the institution to undertake any activities? (constraints might include linguistic ability, finances or government policy). What are the opportunities for, and threats to, the institution? (the former might include increasing overseas student numbers, while the latter could be factors such as the low pay of academic staff due to inflation, shortage of staff willing to travel or to undertake the increased workload associated with internationalization). Who are the stakeholders - students, staff, parents, employers, government bodies or other persons? Who are the competitors - for example, other providers in the same country, foreign providers or other ways of gaining knowledge or qualifications? What are the internal and external opportunities and threats?

A PEST analysis (Political, Economic, Social, and Technological) can identify the external trends in more detail and an example of this is given below:

Figure 5: An example of a PEST analysis of internationalization of Higher Education

Political	**Economic**
UK Government policy on HE	National £50 billion budget deficit
Possible introduction of fees	Financial constraints on capital expenditure of Universities
Decreasing value of student grants	Low inflation
EC policy on human capital	Need to recruit 'full-fee' students
Social	**Technological**
High unemployment level	Increasing level of skills required
Excess of demand over supply for University places	Increasing availability of Information Technology
English as the common international language - 'lingua franca'	Ease of travel and communications

Williams (1984) provides the example of the UK Government's decision to introduce a policy of charging 'full fees' to foreign students, thereby ensuring a severe drop in the number of such students coming to the UK, especially from Malaysia. This resulted in a loss to the UK of all the advantages the presence of foreign students had, such as long-term trade and knowledge of the UK overseas. Such restriction of access to UK higher education can usefully be compared to the ERASMUS programme, whereby students from the European Union are exchanged on a no-fee (to the student) basis.

To this can be added the effect of UK Government funding of the British Council and Overseas Development Administration, which both provide opportunities for students - particularly from the Commonwealth - to study in the UK. Other Governments also impact on the global environment, for example, China's 'open-door' policy, where students gaining places at Universities overseas are allowed to travel. The development of the US 'Study Abroad Programmes' is another example of how national policies affect foreign institutions - in this case, the educational, social and financial impact of American students on host institutions. The effects of 'brain drain' on national higher education systems are also apparent, with the most recent examples being found in the migration of scientists from Russia to the West from the late 1980's onwards.

Collection of data

An analysis of the institutional environment should aim to provide accurate information related firstly to the current state of activity, and secondly to the staff's ability and willingness to engage in the process of internationalization. Without such information, no meaningful policy and plan can be developed since it will not be based on current realities such as the capacity of staff to undertake work.

Such an information gathering exercise or audit should include:

- the corporate plan and mission statement
- the institution's international policy papers (where these exist) and the following statistical information:

(i) the International Audit (undertaken by management)
(ii) the Staff Audit (undertaken by individual members of staff)

(I) The International Audit

Such an audit is an information-gathering exercise undertaken by management and should include the following as a basis for future decision-making:

- Total number of students (both full- and part-time)
- Number of overseas students, country of origin and percentage of total above

- Total number of staff - academic, administrative, technical
- Total number of full- and part-time courses including Dual or Joint Qualification Courses and Franchised courses
- Courses with a complete international approach (at both undergraduate and postgraduate levels)
- Courses with a partial international approach, such as units on international business or optional electives
- Courses unsuitable for internationalization and reasons for this e.g. UK Accountancy courses although these may contain perspectives on other accountancy systems outside of the Anglo-Saxon domain. (Such cases would be classified under the previous category)
- Institutional links by name of institution, country, type of activity (student mobility whether exchange and/or work placement, student recruitment, staff exchange, research etc.) and contact person within one's own institution
- Consultancy contracts such as Know How Fund or Overseas Development Administration projects
- Other activities such as overseas recruitment

(II) The Staff Audit

The staff audit applies not only to academic members of staff but also to the administrative and technical staff, as these latter groups are often found to contain hidden talents especially in their language fluency. Each member of staff should be asked to complete a confidential questionnaire containing the following information.

(It should be noted that considerable resistance is encountered when staff are asked to disclose their international contacts, this can be partially overcome by giving assurances that no institution will be contacted without the permission of the member of staff concerned, or better still, that all contacts will be through the member of staff who has the link. The audit findings should also be made freely available to all staff).

- Language ability with level of fluency (mother tongue, advanced/ability to teach in the language, intermediate, social/conversation, beginner, would like to study)
- Experience of working and teaching abroad (dates, location)

- Membership of international professional bodies
- Research (general description of any international research)
- Publications (general description)
- Consultancy (general description)
- International Conference attendance
- Staff willingness to engage in international activities such as overseas visits, teaching abroad, language acquisition, and so forth. Staff should express the duration of visits from: (a) less than one week, (b) one to two weeks, (c) two to four weeks, and (d) more than four weeks.
- Other relevant information such as positions of external examiner held overseas

Such an approach can be compared to the CNAA (1992) which covered similar ground but in less detail.

Data collation

The collation of data about the current state of the institution seen in the various documents and audits listed above, is to be supplemented with an assessment of future goals and obstacles to their fulfilment.

Opportunities

The current situation of UK higher education has presented a number of opportunities to institutions such as staff attitudes favourable to travel abroad and an increasing demand for business courses from students and employers. Alongside this has been the UK Government's desire to increase student numbers in higher education against a background of reduced funding - the 'unit of resource' - per student. At time of writing (December 1993) this growth has been halted after having met its target of 1 in 3 from a previous level of 1 in 5 school-leavers. Benefits have also been felt from the introduction of EC educational programmes such as ERASMUS and LINGUA. To these should be added TEMPUS which arose after the opening up of Central and Eastern Europe in 1989. Further EC programmes are also being developed in order to promote Europe's external relations with the US, South America and other areas.

Threats

Threats can be defined in terms of several variables. Financial difficulties whether these arise out of cuts in Government funding, hyper-inflation or simply under-resourcing of institutions, all have a negative effect on progress.

Human problems can be seen in the demographic profile of staff, with a dramatic shortage of lecturers expected within the UK over the next twenty years as the majority retire. This has been seen as a blessing by some managers within institutions who are seeking ways to reduce costs by cutting staff numbers.

Technological advances clearly pose a major problem for those institutions who are unable to gain access to the information superhighway or who have not the required finance to purchase the Information Technology necessary to allow students to become computer literate or have access to modern methods of information storage and retrieval.

Material shortages, whether they be in limited library stock or in teaching materials, cause unacceptable problems for staff in their ability to provide a quality education for students. Such shortages extend to the professional development of the staff, who find themselves isolated from the sources of knowledge with which they can improve their teaching or research.

The concept of 'plant' in the business sense within the context of universities, can be understood to mean the buildings and lands used including the student halls of accommodation, sports facilities and other amenities that are necessary for a university to become a community of scholars. Where such provision is lacking or in decline, the fabric of this community falls (in some causes quite literally) apart. It is difficult to reach one's destination through such ruins.

The importance of information and links is central to rapid progress, otherwise time is wasted in 'reinventing the wheel', while those institutions at the forefront extend their unassailable lead. Such bodies as UKCOSA in Britain, NUFFIC in the Netherlands, the DAAD in Germany, the European Association of International Education (EAIE) with its headquarters in Amsterdam, and the British Council globally, are all examples of bodies which can provide assistance with finding partners, information on good practice and networks of support for staff. Without such help, it is easy to become dispirited with the undoubted difficulties that exist when trying to make progress in a new area.

It is useful to provide an example of the threats facing a national system of higher education. In the case of the UK, there are a considerable number of such threats including the increasing number of institutions overseas that are teaching business courses in English such as those in the Netherlands and Scandinavia. In addition, cutbacks in the level of funding - the 'unit of resource' - for Universities from Government have been coupled with cuts in the level of Government grants made available to students, with the difference being met by an increasing reliance on loans. Such a situation can only become worse with the introduction of tuition fees for undergraduate courses (these already exist for postgraduate courses) and increases further Britain's decline compared to other countries.

Such changes inevitably lead towards a system of financially-based entry to higher education as opposed to entry based upon ability. Such a backward leap reinforces social divisions and the self-perpetuating élites with all the injustices that this produces, providing evidence for the view that history indeed repeats itself firstly as tragedy and then as farce.

(B) resources - internal strengths and weaknesses

The UK system has a number of internal strengths such as the reputation and quality of UK degrees, the added-value of a UK degree for overseas students; the activity of the British Council overseas in promoting British culture and establishing links; access to information and training from UKCOSA and the availability of external funds from the EC and US through such schemes as Erasmus and Fulbright.

Weaknesses in the same system can be seen to be the comparative shortage of foreign language skills amongst staff and students; the demoralisation of staff caused by rapid growth; new contracts of employment and levels of pay which cannot attract or keep the best young staff; shortage of funds internally for development and cutbacks in

Government funding via the diminishing 'unit of resource' (amount of money available to teach each student) that this translates into.

(C) objectives - power, expectations, organizational culture

The objective of any process of internationalization should be the development of the university. As higher education is an expanding market, consideration of competitors and market share are not generally considered to be of primary concern, although the recruitment of overseas students by UK institutions is affected by the attraction of other countries such as the United States and Australia. This is seen especially when the cost of tuition fees, accommodation and other subsistence costs are taken into account. Dutch institutions are particularly active in teaching all or part of some courses in English (EAIE, 1993).

Power

Within higher education, there are groups of staff whose power by virtue of their position and expertise is key to internationalization. The growth in the types and numbers of these 'gatekeepers' indicates a development within international education as can be seen in the specialist sections of the EAIE, which are currently:

(a) ACE - Admissions Officers and Credential Evaluators
(b) EBS - Economics and Business Studies
(c) EEPC - European Educational Programme Co-ordinators
(d) IRM - International Relations Managers
(e) LTT - Language Teachers and Testers
(f) RILO - Research and Industrial Liaison Officers
(g) SAFSA - Study Abroad and Foreign Student Advisers

Such a taxonomy of functions indicates the way in which the whole field of internationalization is gaining in importance and becoming more complex in the implementation of activities.

Expectations

Expectations should ideally be congruent between management, staff and students. Students are increasingly demanding courses that will allow them to compete on an international basis, particularly within Europe but also further afield. Staff on the other hand feel a need primarily for job security within a framework of good pay, social status and career development. However, both groups recognise internationalization as a self-evidently 'good thing'. Such a favourable initial attitude is an excellent basis for further progress, particularly when management support is forthcoming. However, if the process is mismanaged, this goodwill can very easily be reversed into outright hostility particularly from local residents.

Organizational culture

Organizational cultures implicitly and explicitly modify behaviour by rewarding some activities, for example, unitisation of courses, while discouraging others, for example, personal tutorials. Within the informal staff structures, international activity can be regarded as a 'perk' for the few - usually the most senior staff. This is the precise opposite of what is desirable, namely an accessibility to a range of opportunities for all staff who wish to engage in them, and particularly those young staff who can benefit the most from such contacts.

However, the way internationalization is dealt with within an institution will carry very clear and powerful messages about its importance. Such messages may well range from active discouragement of staff activities, through benign neglect to whole-hearted support and redirection of resources to place internationalization as a central dimension of the university's activities.

Questions that can be asked include: Where does the power reside within and outside of the organization and in which direction does the university wish to go? What are the expectations of the Government, staff and students? Does the organizational culture encourage or discourage excellence and innovation?

6.1.2 Strategic choice

(A) generation of options

The question of what is possible and what is desirable leads to a number of choices having to be made. Strategic options will inevitably vary according to the aims of the organization, such as:

- Teaching or research? - this split may well define the levels of activity at undergraduate and postgraduate levels
- Élite or mass education? - recruitment of the best students or the best provision for the mass of students? The CNAA (1992) report states that 'the elite group must always be small' and cites the London Business School, Cranfield and Ashridge as examples of institutions with an international reputation. Arkin (1991) adds Henley to this list, as well as INSEAD in France and IMD in Switzerland
- International or local Business School? - this of course begs the question, 'what constitutes an international Business School?' If the answer is an international student body, is there a critical mass of overseas (i.e. non-UK) students which must be reached before such claims can be realistically be made and what percentage of the total body would this be? Useful comparisons may be made with internationalization in other countries such as Bechem (1991) and Dineen (1992)
- Specialist or generalist? - should a Business School specialise on teaching and research in a select number of subjects and thereby gain a reputation as a centre of excellence in those subjects, or offer a wide range without particular distinction? Paliwoda (1992) raises this argument concerning the generalist MBA versus specialist postgraduate courses in for example, Marketing or Business Information Technology. The argument is developed by the CNAA (1992) observation that:

> *Within the segment comprising the top few and the aspiring claimants, there will be room for specialisation; individual schools will be known for a particular type of programme or sectoral specialisation, for example. Only the largest institution can afford to define its product-market scope broadly.*

The other options, which are not mutually exclusive but rather complementary, can be understood to fall into one of four dimensions (Figure 7)

Figure 6: The Four Dimensions of Internationalization:

1. Organizational change (OC) ↘ | 2. Curriculum innovation (CI) ↙

Internationalization

3. Staff development (SD) ↗ | 4. Student mobility (SM) ↖

The conceptualisation can be illustrated by giving examples of activities across the dimensions as follows (Figure 8). When considering the following listing of possible activities, it is useful to assess both current and future levels of activity as the most straightforward way of setting performance indicators and targets for the operational plan.

Figure 7. Examples of activities across dimensions of internationalization

↓Secondary activity / Primary activity→

	SM	**SD**	**CI**	**OC**
SM	ERASMUS	Teaching visits	New courses for foreign students	Provision of Halls of Residence places
SD	Production of student report on host institution	Research	Opportunities to develop specialist expertise	Secondment of staff to International Office
CI	Preparation of cultural briefings by students for other students	Development of teaching methods appropriate to overseas students	Short courses for overseas experts	Franchising of courses overseas
OC	Need for recognition of study abroad	Resource allocation for the language training of staff	Creation of administrative systems for exchange students	Increasing recruitment of overseas students and staff with overseas expertise

Organizational change

In a world that is changing ever more rapidly, universities need to adapt if they are to avoid stagnation, decline and eventual extinction. In such circumstances, the necessity to internationalize becomes an imperative with the consequent need for strategic planning to achieve this, as identified in the EC Memorandum. Laureys (1992) makes the point that instead of individual initiatives, universities now deal with long-term programmes for which a structural commitment is needed.

For internationalisation to become a reality within the organization, the following issues need to be addressed:

(a) allocation of resources such as the creation of specialist posts and an International Office that undertakes those activities best done centrally (such as publicity and residential accommodation), whilst facilitating those activities which are best devolved to Faculties, Departments or individual members of staff (such as provision of course information).

(b) the establishment of high-quality links with partner institutions overseas (see Rudzki and Stonehouse, 1994a) through, for example, ERASMUS and TEMPUS programmes. Evaluation of the latter programme has been undertaken by Kehm, (1997).

(c) structural change, for example incorporating the acquisition of a modern language into the curriculum of all students.

(d) co-ordination and support of development at the most senior level of the institution. For discussion of the various stakeholders from the three sectors of government, academe and the private sector see Knight (1997).

(e) the development of admissions and access policies with the requirement of competent evaluation of foreign qualifications including foreign language ability.

(f) recognition of the increasing importance of information technology for teaching and learning, whether this be library computer databases, pre-recorded videos or distance learning methods using television and radio.

(g) extension of links with commerce and industry in order to provide placements for students, access to first-hand knowledge for staff, and an understanding of how the curriculum needs to be changed in order to prepare students in the best way for the world they graduate into.

(h) the development of courses for groups outside of higher education such as the retired or unemployed.

(i) the establishment and maintenance of quality in links and programmes. See for example Lenn's (1993) examination of practices and resources for quality assurance, or van der Wende (1994b) who stresses the need to assess the value of foreign diplomas and the need for international comparisons of study programmes.

(j) links with organizations operating in the sector such as the British Council, UKCOSA, the Association of Commonwealth Universities (ACU) or the Academic Cooperation Association (Smith, 1993)

Curriculum innovation

Curriculum innovation can be understood as the incorporation of the leading knowledge and methods into the subjects taught. It has a number of aspects both internal and external to the institution.

Internally, this includes the creation of new courses - either full courses or modules within existing programmes; the extension of language acquisition as a compulsory or optional element in the programme of all students; changes in the way the subject is taught or studied such as the use of case studies or project work; new ways of assessing what is learnt, for example through continuous assessment; and the use of internships (work experience) whether this be within the country or abroad. There is also a need to examine the way in which courses need to be adapted to meet the special needs of foreign students both in content and in teaching methods.

Externally, there is an increasing move towards portability of qualifications with credit accumulation and transfer schemes (CATS) and the EC equivalent the European Credit Transfer Scheme (ECTS). In addition Joint or Dual Qualifications such as the French *Maîtrise* or the German *Diplom*, are becoming common as features of partnership agreements within the UK award of a BA degree. Where such equality is not present in an agreement between institutions, some universities are franchising courses abroad, with the final award gained being that of the UK institution leading to a situation where a student may gain a British degree without ever having set foot in the UK. The question of quality assurance has been raised by Van Overbeek (1997) who expresses his concern of dual qualifications.

The CNAA (1992) describes the typical undergraduate [UK international business] programme as:

- *of four years duration;*
- *with around 30 students per year;*
- *from three nationalities;*
- *offering compulsory French or German, or perhaps Spanish;*
- *the language taught from outside the business school;*
- *for about four hours a week;*
- *a year spent abroad either studying or working.*

Even within this type of programme, there is considerable scope for innovation, with transfer of best practice possible between partner institutions.

Staff development

Brown and Atkins (1985) have highlighted the shortage of funding in UK universities for staff development activities. Within the field of internationalization, their findings can be extended to the following categories:

(a) the availability of facilities for staff to learn foreign languages
(b) financial support for conference attendance
(c) opportunities for research - Arkin (1991) states popular areas as being *'aspects of cross-cultural management, Japanese management practice, the emergence of market economies in eastern Europe and the impact of the single European market'*. In addition she identifies London and Warwick as being the two institutions which gained the Universities Funding Council's five-star rating for work deemed to be of international excellence
(d) the amount of time staff are allowed to work on publications
(e) opportunities for staff exchanges. Burns (1993) speaking about Australian higher education expresses his concern in the short-term nature of the finance received from the funding councils as compared to the need for long-term plans within universities.
(f) programmes and facilities to encourage guest speakers and lectures

(g) support for foreign scholars attending a host institution

(h) the secondment of staff to other posts

(i) the availability of training in special skills such as teaching overseas students, setting up links or obtaining external funding

(j) the encouragement of a teaching specialism

(k) the recruitment of staff with overseas teaching and business experience

(l) opportunities for undertaking consultancy and the way in which this adds value to what is taught

Student mobility

Student mobility should be understood as not only the *physical mobility* of the minority of students, but the *intellectual mobility* of the majority, in the sense that the majority will derive benefit from the other dimensions of internationalization, and most especially from curriculum innovation and staff development.

Criticism of physical mobility of students has come from Christensen (1994) with his concern for what he describes as 'academic tourism', that is study abroad which is little more than an extended holiday. He goes on to raise issues of quality and credit transfer, which have been extensively covered by other authors, such as Lenn (1993).

Barnett and Wu (1995) compared changes in student mobility figures drawn from UNESCO statistics in 50 countries over the period 1970-1989. They found that African countries had become increasingly peripheral, with a decrease in the importance of colonial and linguistic factors. The dominance of the US and some Western countries coupled with the increasing importance of economic development, led to their conclusion that the international student exchange network suggested an academic hegemony consistent with economics and politics.

Kouptsova (1991) describes mobility within higher education in the USSR and the increased opportunities for foreign staff and student travel as a result of political changes.

Other aspects of student mobility to be considered include:

(a) the recruitment of overseas students - (defined as non-EC, students as EC students are now regarded as being 'home students') - who are permanent members of a course

(b) the existence of exchange programmes, where students spend time abroad. Study abroad programmes have been studied by Teichler and Steube (1991) who examined programmes in the UK, France, Germany, Sweden and North America.

(c) the availability of overseas work placements

(d) the way in which trans-national student gatherings are encouraged

(e) field trips as a learning method and the way in which institutions can assist visiting staff and students who are on field trips

(f) the way in which the acquisition of cross-cultural skills and cultural awareness is made explicit in being able to understand other cultures and the desirability of this as a part of education. See for example, Lambert (1993) who discusses the preparation needed by outgoing students particularly in language training and cultural awareness.

(g) the desirability of learning a foreign language either as a compulsory or optional part of study

(h) access to foreign materials in the home institution, for example books, journals, case studies, computer networks

(i) improved career prospects from working or studying abroad

(j) the experience of overseas students within the UK as described by Reed et al (1978), Kinnell (1990), Dickenson and Dickenson (1992) and McNamara and Harris (1997). The view from abroad is provided by, for example, Cammelli (1991) who describes the role of foreign students in Italy.

(k) the development of the 'buddy approach' where foreign students are paired with home students as described by Quintrell and Westwood (1994)

(B) evaluation of options - financial implications and SWOT analysis

It is a mistaken belief that international activities necessarily demand additional resources. Some activities can be undertaken on a no-cost basis such as curriculum content changes. Other activities can save money, such as rationalisation of staff visits overseas, where visits to students, conferences or for research purposes can be combined.

Some activities can actually generate income in order to fund other resource-hungry initiatives, 'cash-cow' activities of this type usually include the provision of short courses for overseas students or managers and the running of Summer Schools.

Finally, there is the whole issue of applying for external funding, whether this be for example, the British Council's support for costs of visits or large-scale EC funding for research contracts. Sims & Stelcner (1981) have provided a methodology for cost-benefit analysis within a Canadian University, which can be applied to this area.

In terms of a SWOT analysis, the elements of this have been dealt with above under strategic analysis, and can be understood to include the following (Table 3) (although these will vary across institutions and countries):

Figure 8: An example of a SWOT analysis of internationalization

STRENGTHS	**WEAKNESSES**
Quality of existing provision	Lack of staff time
Commitment of senior management	Lack of funds
Interest and activities of some staff	No appreciable benefits
Value of UK degree overseas	Shortage of student accommodation
Spare capacity	Poor state of repair of buildings
OPPORTUNITIES	**THREATS**
Long-term strategic position	Staff resistance - overload
Organizational development	UK competitors
Increased income from fees	Fragmented approach by university
Curriculum development	Other priorities e.g. Quality
Staff development - languages, links etc.	Staff resentment of overseas travel
Devolved power to staff - subsidiarity	Sectoral decline

(C) selection of strategy - the 'strategic fit' of a strategy is based on suitability, feasibility and acceptability given an institution's overall 'mission' (David, 1989). The range of international activities adopted by an institution will in some sense reflect that institution's perceived needs and its direction. This paper argues that internationalization can range from being the complete mission of the institution embracing all other aspects, to a

selection of a number of options concerned with students, staff, courses and organizational development.

6.1.3 Strategy implementation

(A) resource planning - once a strategy has been decided, it is necessary to allocate the resources which have been calculated as being necessary for success. Such resources will include finance, staff, offices, student accommodation and manual or computerised records of, for example, student programmes of study with dates and courses taken.

(B) organizational structure - ensuring that the most effective methods are used, for example, centralised functions such as marketing and student accommodation, with decentralised decision-making such as the power of Course Leaders to decide on the suitability of applicants and the overall mix of students taking their course. Such issues are especially apparent now that all EC students are regarded as being 'home' students, and 'overseas' students are understood as being non-EC.

Within the organization, it is imperative that internationalization is discussed and its progress observed at the highest level, for example, the Board of Governors. This should be supplemented by a Working Party of practitioners who can inform policy through their experiences. Such a grouping might well be known as an 'International Committee'.

(C) people and systems - faculty staff

Questions that can be usefully asked here are: what staff need to be appointed or moved from other duties? What new administrative procedures need to be designed and implemented? Can the strategy be readily adapted to cope with operational difficulties? Are staff and students able to improve the strategy given their direct experience of its applications?

Handy (1986) provides a useful guide for the psychological progression in any organizational change as being:

1. *Create an awareness of the need for change (preferably not by argument or rationale but by exposure to objective fact).*
2. *Select an appropriate initiating person or group ('appropriate' in this context refers to sources of power as perceived by the recipients of the strategy).*
3. *Be prepared to allow the recipients to adapt the final strategy. (that which one adapts can more easily call one's own. Ownership equals internalisation, i.e. self-maintaining).*
4. *Accept the fact that, like the good psychoanalyst, the successful doctor gets no credit but must let the patient boast of his sound condition. Good managers live vicariously.*
5. *Be prepared to accept a less than optimum strategy in the interest of achieving something rather than nothing. Compromise has its own morality.*

Such a guide can be a starting point for any member of staff seeking to promote the cause of internationalization within their institution and summarises the stages in their approach. It can also be usefully compared in its approach for similarities with the descriptive approach to strategic management of Mintzberg (1978) as mentioned earlier in this paper.

6.2 Models of internationalization

One of the difficulties with reaching an understanding of internationalization, is the absence of both a common definition and a conceptual framework within which to locate the different approaches. Clearly, the nature of the process varies according to the purposes to which it is put - the 'Grand Tour' is one historical example whose purpose was to produce a well-educated rounded individual capable of holding their own in the social circles of their patrons.

This variety of concepts can be seen in the current approaches such as the US use of 'Study Abroad Programmes' and the EC's Erasmus programme model, with its dependence on one- or two-semester based student mobility, and the inclusion of staff mobility, intensive programmes or complementary measures to a much lesser extent.

Various authors have increasingly described their national and institutional approaches, such as Snellman (1995) who describes the approach of Finland in internationalising its higher education system using a 'top-down' approach with its concern to ensure quality. Van der Bore and Shute (1991) have examined universities in sub-Saharan Africa and concluded that the best way to develop institutions is through North-South university co-operation. Daniel (1991) describes the international role of the UK's Open University. Gordos and Tuschak (1991) describe how the whole of the engineering programme at the Technical University of Budapest was transferred into English, and report the underlying philosophy, practical details of implementation and practical experience of managing the programme. Holtermann (1996) describes the establishment of the Nordic Centre at Fudan University, Shanghai, China. Zoller (1994) examines how internationalization has occurred in the Université Libre de Bruxelles. Aarts (1994) describes the introduction of international education, and makes the point that a strongly decentralized organization has proved to be the most efficient and generates both staff involvement and commitment. The American perspective is given by Scott (1994), in describing the process of internationalization at Ramapo College of New Jersey and Vann, Ryan and Howes' (1993) account of Ball State University, with an account of the problems encountered, principally student attitudes, faculty needs and expectations, and institutional budgetary constraints.

Kerr (1990) makes the interesting comparison between increasing internationalisation and the way in which national systems of organizations are increasingly aimed at maximizing national interests in such areas as providing graduates to meet market demand.

Lupton (1991) has suggested an alternative model based on a series of steps commencing with:

international visibility, for example by:

- *acting as host to visiting management 'gurus' from abroad;*
- *organising international conferences and workshops;*
- *joining international networks such as the European Foundation for Management Development (EFMD) as an institution and encouraging staff to join specialist networks such as the European Accountancy Association or the European Marketing Academy;*
- *taking part in international comparative research projects;*
- *facilitating visits by foreign students and managers.*

This initial step is followed by faculty exchanges or sabbatical periods abroad, together with student projects in other countries, introduction of international teaching materials, and joint programmes. The CNAA (1992) also notes the 'Middlesex model', 'with large student exchanges, large numbers of students moving around Europe and substantial language learning.' To these can be added the proactive and reactive models. The reactive is given first as it is, in the author's experience, far more commonly found within institutions:

Figure 9: the reactive model of internationalization

Stage 1 CONTACT

Academic staff engage in making contacts with colleagues in other countries, curriculum development, limited mobility, links lack clear formulation of purpose and duration

⇩

Stage 2 FORMALISATION

Some links are formalised with institutional agreements being made. Resources may or may not be made available

⇩

Stage 3 CENTRAL CONTROL

Growth in activity and response by management who seek to gain control of activities

⇩

Stage 4 CONFLICT

Organizational conflict between staff and management leads to withdrawing of good will by staff. Possible decline in activity and disenchantment

⇩

Stage 5 MATURITY OR DECLINE

Possible move to a more coherent, that is, proactive approach

It is clear from the above, that the failure of management to manage the initiative - that is management by 'adhocracy' - inevitably leads to conflict, missed opportunities and confusion about direction.

The University hierarchy should however ensure the dissemination of internationalization to every level of the institution, devolving power, on the basis of the concept of subsidiarity - to those levels where the work is actually undertaken. In addition, central policies on policy and continual improvement can be progressed through supporting staff initiatives and enthusiasm.

Gribbon (1994) provides evidence from the University of Warwick, England to show that the tension between central administration and individual academic departments - ‘strong parallel centres of authority’ - needs to be especially managed at two points. The first is in the development of new exchange schemes, while the second is in the administration of individual students or staff on existing incoming or outgoing schemes. In this model, the best projects are those which become ‘organic’, benefiting several departments and different parts of the administration. The least successful projects were shown to be those arising from a central initiative.

Such a reactive process can be compared with the proactive approach that follows (Figure 10).

Figure 10: the proactive model of internationalization

Stage 1 ANALYSIS

Awareness of what 'internationalization' is and what it entails. Strategic analysis of short-, mid- and long-term organizational objectives - answering the question 'Should we internationalize?' 'Why bother?' Staff training and discussions - understanding of options - what types of international activities are available. International Audit of existing activities and Staff Audit.

SWOT analysis. Cost-benefit analysis.

⇩

Stage 2 CHOICE

Strategic plan and policy drawn up in conjunction with staff and explicit use made of mutual interest of staff and organization. Performance measures defined. Resources allocated. Networking with internal and external organizations.

⇩

Stage 3 IMPLEMENTATION

Measure performance.

⇩

Stage 4 REVIEW

Assessment of performance against policy and plan.

⇩

Stage 5 REDEFINITION OF OBJECTIVES/PLAN/POLICY

Process of continual improvement and the issues of Quality this entails. Return to Stage 1 in cycle of growth and development.

These earlier models have been redefined into a six-stage process as described below.

6.3 Towards a substantive and formal theory - the fractal process model of internationalization

The six-stage model described below has been developed on the basis of existing research findings and the author's own work. It is a synthesis of both the empirical work undertaken and the various accounts from practitioners as to their experiences, and has been constructed using the *grounded theory* approach.

It is based upon the following hypotheses:

1. Within UK business schools internationalization is driven by external funding and takes place primarily because of this, as opposed to logical necessity in the case of for example, modern languages teaching.
2. Institutions are concerned with internationalization only inasmuch as it serves their strategic purposes.
3. The best way to ensure internationalization takes place is to create Centres of International Excellence with a critical mass of scholars. Internationalization can therefore be considered to be more likely at the research level, although European funding of student mobility has been largely targeted at undergraduates as opposed to postgraduates or teaching staff.
4. Contrary to what might be claimed by the majority of institutions, internationalization is not perceived as a fundamental requirement in order to achieve quality in teaching or research.

Internationalization as organizational change, curriculum innovation, staff development and student mobility is essential for those universities who wish to ensure the attainment of leading areas of knowledge. For other institutions content to feed off the crumbs that fall from these universities, internationalization is of secondary or no importance whatsoever.

Figure 11: The fractal process model of internationalization

CONTEXT

↓

APPROACH

↓

RATIONALE

↓

ACTIONS/DIMENSIONS/ACTIVITIES

↙↓↘

Organizational Change (OC)	Curriculum Innovation (CI)	Staff Development (SD)	Student Mobility (SM)

↓

MONITORING AND PERIODIC REVIEW

↓

CHANGE/REPOSITIONING/REALIGNMENT/REARRANGEMENT/
REAPPRAISAL/READJUSTMENT/RECONCEPTUALISATION

Stage 1 - CONTEXT

In considerations of internationalization at the institutional level or below, it is necessary to consider the external context, understood firstly as the transnational environment (such as an analysis of opportunities, the existence of specialist networks such as the

EAIE or EFMD, or the availability of external funding to support activities), and secondly, as the national environment (such as overseas aid policy which supports scholarships for overseas students, consultancy opportunities, or foreign institution strengthening). The importance of higher education policy towards the public and private sector (where this exists) will undoubtedly influence what is feasible and determine the level of national support available. In addition the activities of agencies (such as the British Council, DAAD, NUFFIC etc.) also play a major part in any decisions about the actions to be undertaken.

This allows institutions to ensure that their approach will be consistent with the external realities pertaining to their situation and to avoid engaging in a process of internationalization which is neither achievable in terms of acceptable quality nor sustainable as described by van der Wende (1994b).

Stage 2 - APPROACH

Any approach to internationalization will not only be influenced by the *external* factors identified above in the *context*, but also by *internal* factors. These can be understood to include such aspects as the history and culture of the institution; its priorities and 'mission'; its perception of internationalization as to purposes and benefits; and the factors influencing success together with the obstacles (as identified in Chapter 4.2.4 and 4.2.7).

The approach can be understood to fall on a continuum which ranges from overt internationalization (proactive) through passive (reactive), covert and non-existent or deliberate non-engagement.

Overt approaches will be proactive and explicit, and be based on a clear strategy and policy.

Passive approaches will be reactive and will be mainly a response to external factors such as the availability of external funding or the need to increase income as a response to governmental cuts in funding.

Covert approaches are identifiable by activities being undertaken by individuals - both staff and students - operating without official support. Indeed a great deal of such covert activity may be taking place unbeknown to the institution's management, precisely because no audit has been undertaken, and because funding or other types of support are not made available.

Non-existent approaches will be characterised by a lack of activity, and more importantly, no desire to engage in any activities which do not appeal directly to naked self-interest such as overseas trips for staff or increased income.

Non-engagement will be identifiable by a refusal to undertake international activities with sanctions imposed upon staff who break such a dictat.

Stage 3 - RATIONALE

The various rationales for internationalization have been described by de Wit (p.9):

> *The rationales and incentives for internationalisation are influenced and to a large extent constructed by the role and viewpoint of the various stakeholders: international, national and regional governments; the private sector; institutions; faculty and students. While each of the stakeholder groups has a distinctive perception and set of priorities with respect to internationalisation, there is also substantial overlap...In policy documents and statements, a great diversity of arguments, social, economic and educational, are deployed to support the internationalisation of education. Some of these arguments have their origin in the needs of society and/or the economy; some in the needs of education itself. Together they constitute a set of* ***overlapping rationales*** *for the process and activities of internationalisation. In turn, they form the basis of the* ***incentives*** *for internationalisation that are perceived by stakeholders, and the* ***justifications*** *that are made internally and externally. And as has been said before, there is potential concurrence, but also conflict, between the interests of the different stakeholders.*

He goes on to describe these as follows:

- Economic and political rationales
  - economic growth and investment in the future economy
  - the labour market
  - foreign policy
  - financial incentives
  - national educational demand
- Cultural and educational rationales
  - the cultural function
  - development of the individual
  - providing an international dimension to research and teaching
  - institution-building
  - improvement of the quality of education and research

What this research shows, is that within UK Business Schools the most influential rationales adopted are those of financial incentives and the provision of an international dimension to research and teaching, with consideration of the cultural function and development of the individual being incidental benefits of the process.

Stage 4 - ACTIONS/DIMENSIONS/ACTIVITIES

The various actions that form the process of internationalization at the institutional level have been previously formed into a typology (Rudzki, 1995a), and consist of four dimensions organized into an inter-related matrix of activities:

1. Organizational Change (OC)
2. Curriculum Innovation (CI)
3. Staff Development (SD)
4. Student Mobility (SM)

1. Organizational Change (OC)

The necessity for organizational change can be seen when one considers examples of the types of activities which can be undertaken:

- institutional commitment to internationalization as evidenced by a policy, strategy, allocation of resources, and an operational plan
- permanent twinning with foreign institutions (Rudzki, 1994a)

- joint research under for example the FRAMEWORK Programme (de Wit, 1995, p. 79)
- establishment of external networks with others at the institutional, faculty, departmental or individual level
- franchising of courses
- the establishment of joint or dual qualifications with other institutions
- recognition of the complexity of administering international activities and the development of staff

The above activities share a common need to be approved by the central authorities of the institution which changes the way in which the organization has operated hitherto.

2. Curriculum Innovation (CI)

Examples of curriculum innovation include:

- the teaching of a compulsory second language for all students and language support for foreign students (see for example, Connie and Addison, 1995)
- involvement in the EC's LINGUA Programme
- development of new complete programmes of study such as International Business Studies, European Union Law or Area Studies
- development of new modules or new inputs into existing programmes, such as a course on 'Business in Central and Eastern Europe' or using case studies of local multinational operations

3. Staff Development (SD)

The importance of staff development in its broadest sense of continuous professional development in order to update knowledge and skills, has been largely overlooked in the European mobility programmes, a situation which is changing given the recognition that the long-term affect on staff mobility has a greater impact on the teaching and research process than the mobility of individual students.

This impact can be considered as embedding the process within those elements that are directly engaged with it on a daily basis. Staff development includes both academic and administrative staff, in such areas as:

- the professionalisation of administrators dealing with international matters through training by such bodies as UKCOSA, NUFFIC and the EAIE
- staff training in such matters as the different approaches required for teaching foreign students especially when they are learning in a different language to their mother tongue
- encouragement of staff to learn additional languages by providing facilities and incentives for such learning
- the establishment of sabbatical years to allow staff to engage in overseas activities if they so wish
- work with overseas teachers or researchers both at the host and home institutions
- encouragement of the physical mobility of staff through the available transnational and national programmes
- awareness of the dangers of brain-drain and the effect this has on overseas institutions - both those from which staff leave and those to which they go
- the allocation of financial and other resources to allow staff to engage in international conferences, seminars, workshops, congresses, etc.

4. Student Mobility (SM)

Student mobility should be understood as both the *physical* mobility (for the minority of students) as well as *intellectual* mobility (for the majority). This latter category is one that has been largely ignored in the debate on student mobility. Student mobility therefore can be understood to include:

- physical mobility by study abroad for (a) part of a course - usually one academic year or one semester - that is half an academic year, or (b) for a complete course (overseas recruitment)
- intellectual mobility via for example, access to overseas lecturers, translation of leading overseas books and journals, access to the Internet
- development of overseas field trips where these are applicable to the subject of study
- student exchanges via such programmes as Fulbright or ERASMUS
- development of mechanisms for recognition of overseas study by Credit Transfer (ECTS)
- development of linguistic ability by the introduction of a compulsory language into all programmes of study
- understanding of the procedure by which students obtain visas

It is noticeable that where attention is not paid to ensuring the success of student mobility, the evidence shows (Williams 1981, Kinnell 1990, Rudzki 1991 and 1993) that overseas study can have the opposite one to that intended, in that negative experiences are reinforced by initial culture shock leaving a permanent impression upon the individual.

Stage 5 - MONITORING AND PERIODIC REVIEW

The process of periodic review is essential in order to ensure that there is still a consistency between what is happening within the institution and the elements within the model, namely the external *context*, the *approach*, the *rationale*, and the *activities*. The process of internationalization is one that requires constant monitoring in order to elicit information as feedback on how the process is operating, and to identify those activities which require improvement, for example, the provision of accommodation for overseas staff and students, or the way in which visiting staff are integrated into their host Departments.

The review stage therefore allows an evaluation to take place in order to gauge both the extent and the failings of the internationalization process, and can be understood in terms of the continuous improvement model of quality.

Stage 6 - CHANGE/REPOSITIONING

The whole point of the review is to allow changes to be made, including the increase or reduction of activities as is required. In this way, a cycle of adaptation to both the internal and external environments takes place, in order to ensure the survival of the process and its sustainability.

Outcome scenarios

The internationalization within UK higher education can be seen to be the inevitable result of a search for funding (naked self-interest), the pursuit of excellence (enlightened self-interest), financial necessity and technology.

For comparative purposes, it is interesting to examine internationalization of companies as a way of understanding the process within universities (see for example, Porter 1980, McDonald 1989, Paliwoda 1993, Campbell and Verbeke, 1994). Those companies who wish to become world-class can be compared to those companies who remain small and mine their existing seam of customers. For both extremes, the global inter-relatedness of economic activity has important lessons in terms of the mobility of capital, the cost of production in terms of labour costs, and the geographic location of key technologies whether this be in such fields as microprocessors. biotechnology or financial services.

The long-term survival of both companies and universities is not impervious to these influences, which is why higher education institutions would do well to learn these same lessons, such as that competitive advantage goes to those organizations who can meet customers needs better, cheaper and quicker.

The question for higher education institutions - and government policy - is whether 'internationalization' is to be seen as an external, optional or missing element in their composition. By simplifying and using extreme examples, the reader is better able to appreciate more accurately the possible scenarios following various strategic decisions. I have used three examples from the spectrum of possible activities to illustrate how the four dimensions of internationalization within the theory would be undertaken:

Scenario A - the international institution

Organizational change: for leading institutions, internationalization will be seen as essential to their long term strategic development in terms of achieving excellence in their teaching and/or research. They will become known for their Centres of Excellence in particular subject areas and will therefore be able to attract the best scholars in a virtuous cycle of growth.

Curriculum innovation: if a process of transfer is developed, research findings will feedback into the curriculum, with resulting benefits for students who will therefore be seen as having the most up-to-date knowledge by employers.

Staff development: leading international scholars will be attracted on the basis of the Centre of Excellence status. They will be seen as leaders in their subject and engage in information exchange at conferences, journals and publications.

Student mobility: it can be expected that in the long-term the institutions will charge additional tuition fees. Admissions policy will select on the basis of wealth and intellectual ability, and draw from the widest possible range of students. Scholarships should be fully-funded.

Scenario B - the opportunistic nationalists

Organizational change: these institutions will see internationalization as an optional activity and will seek to maximize income from international activities through overseas student recruitment, franchising of courses and attraction of external funds from such sources as the European Commission's programmes. Little or no institutional investment will be provided for international activities, as these will be expected to be self-financing or income-generating. Growth of activities will be dependant on external funding and where this disappears, will have a profound effect on the development of the organization.

Curriculum innovation: the curriculum will adapt in those areas where it will provide financial benefits through, for example, one year 'top-up' degrees for overseas students or those UK students completing HNDs.

Staff development: staff will engage in some international activity if funding is available, such as international conferences, teaching exchanges, and joint research. The attitudes of staff towards internationalization will be largely negative and based on their negative experiences of the institutional approach.

Student mobility: the emphasis will be on the recruitment of overseas students.

Scenario C - the parochial institution

Organizational change: institutions with little or no interest in internationalization with funds being spent on other activities which are seen as being more important such as responding to the national political agenda in terms of for example, regional development, local access and educational innovation. Such responses to political initiatives will be cultivated assiduously especially where such initiatives bring funding with them.

Curriculum innovation: the curriculum will be based on traditional content or local market demand, and therefore frequently fall into becoming local and/or regional training provision. Any attempts to broaden the curriculum will be driven by lecturers' own interests and met with indifference or opposition from the centre due to the 'funding implications' of such initiatives.

Staff development: staff who feel happy working in a limiting environment with limited horizons and no passion for their subject will prosper. Independence of thought will be viewed negatively by university authorities, with conformity leading to promotion.

Student mobility: few overseas students, and the lowest entry requirements for home students based on the low demand for places as a result of the low quality of staff and subject - leading to problems with finding sufficient students to fill courses. Paradoxically, active recruitment of overseas students will be seen as a way of solving this structural problem.

The three examples above serve to make the point that the importance attached to internationalization as defined at the start of this thesis, that is as *a means of achieving excellence in teaching and research*, will profoundly change the way in which universities both change and position themselves within the education sector.

This view can be usefully compared to that provided by Reva Berman Brown (1993) who provides a number of future models of both universities and Business Schools. The former group are the teaching model, the research model, the vocational model, the societal model and the multi-purpose model. All of these are confronted by organizational problems which are more clearly seen in the Business School and are design, domain, usage, ambivalence, and power and control over knowledge.

Brown's formulation of Business School types is based upon her findings of a survey sent to seven UK Business School Directors which asked about the purpose of the Business Schools. This resulted in three possibilities - that of the primacy of research or teaching, or a multi-purpose model which combines the two. Brown went on to ask questions which revealed that the main audience for the academic research was other academics, and that the curriculum offered reflected a bias towards academic disciplines as opposed to the needs of the marketplace.

6.4 The future of UK higher education

The future of the British University sector has been explored by Ball and Eggins (1989) who have provided a useful overview of directions. A close reading of *The Times Higher Education Supplement* throughout the period of the research has revealed a more comprehensive number of recurring themes, which have been listed alphabetically for ease of reference. These serve to illustrate the demands that are being met upon Universities and will continue to determine the future agenda for Higher Education in the United Kingdom:

- Access - increasing the numbers of students who are not from traditional backgrounds, that is straight from school, 18 years old and middle- or upper-class
- Accommodation: teaching and residential
- Associated College status
- CATS
- Continuing education
- The UK's relationship with the Commonwealth
- Cultural briefing
- EU - role of
- Tuition Fees and whether these should be introduced for UK undergraduates
- Foreign trade and exporting
- Franchising of courses both UK and overseas

- Funding of HE
- Growth of HE
- HE as the provider of management education versus the Corporate Classroom
- IT as vehicle for teaching and open learning e.g. satellite link-ups with lectures, Open University techniques
- International management education
- Links with business
- MCI - the Management Charter Initiative and how it is defining what constitutes management skills
- Multi-culturalism
- Multinational operations
- NVQs
- Quality Assurance
- Research
- Semesterisation and the abolition of the three academic terms system
- Student loans - the introduction of these and the phasing out of government grants
- Teaching and learning
- Range of courses: Higher National, undergraduate, postgraduate, professional
- Unitisation of courses into discrete 'modules' as opposed to a single programme of continuous study

However, the present state of UK higher education has been summed up in a recent editorial of *The Times Higher Education Supplement* (28th February 1997) referring to the slight easing of Government pressure on the sector:

> *Cuts in real terms have been reduced across the board to a point where all should be able to survive another year if they allow early retirements, make a few redundancies, rationalise some departments, increase class sizes and drum up some more part-time or overseas students...Nothing new in this. It happens year after year. It is how the gradual - what the engineers call 'graceful' - degradation of British higher education has been managed. It ensures that reform is postponed and that excellence and the reputation of British education suffer.*

As the findings of the Dearing Report - the largest review of Higher Education since the Robbins Report in 1963 - are scheduled for publication in 1997, it is helpful to remember some of the key changes that followed Robbins. Principal of these were the establishment of the Polytechnic sector within higher education, together with the establishment of the Open University and two Business Schools (in London and Manchester).

The submission of the Association of Business Schools entitled *Pillars of the Economy* (1996) to the Dearing Committee, devotes a section to the international dimension. Drawing on statistics available from the HESA (Higher Education Statistical Agency) and the British Council, the ABS makes the point that business and management courses attract the largest number of foreign students - accounting in 1995/6 for 36,800 EU and overseas students (20% of the overall total) of which half (18,000) were on undergraduate courses. The estimated income of this latter group is calculated is £187 million and £223 million for the former. In addition, over 10,000 students are taught in their own countries on courses franchised by the UK.

It is interesting to note that the perception of internationalisation has moved little from the full-fees debate in 1979 and the Robbins perspective of 1963. Internationalization is still not perceived as essential to the activities of Business Schools in terms of their curricula or organizational growth, and the increase of franchised courses is merely an extension of income-generating activities, the milking of the 'cash-cow' that is the overseas student market.

The introduction of full-fees was only possible when the world's students were beating a path to the door of Britain's universities. Now that those doors are coming off their rusty hinges in terms of ability to provide a higher education which represents added-value, it should come as no surprise that the UK's self-interest of the early 1980's has come home to roost with a vengeance as overseas students view North American or Australian universities as a better prospect in terms of the facilities and services provided.

The failure of Dearing to address international issues has been criticised by Reilly (1997) - the Director of the UK Socrates-Erasmus Council - who makes the point that in the published version of Dearing's Report:

> *No hint can I discover there of the impact and significance of our relationship with Europe for teaching, learning and research. Member States of the European Union are used almost exclusively for comparative purposes. The key word in relation to other countries is "competitor". Where is the recognition that nearly 200 UK higher education institutions have established active, effective, collaborative partnerships with 1400 EU/EEA universities, granting academic recognition and often joint degrees?*

Reilly then goes on to point out the impact of introducing tuition fees in terms of restricting student mobility as it will restrict recruitment of students from other parts of the EU and the impact on UK students who wish to study parts of their course elsewhere in Europe - such as in Modern Languages or European Studies. Reilly concedes that Annex A of the Terms of Reference for Dearing asked that the Report should consider the context in which "links between higher education in the UK and elsewhere in the world are growing, as the international mobility of staff and students increases" but fails to find any evidence as to how the Report has sought to recognize this and protect European mobility. His prognosis is bleak:

> *...it is difficult to escape the conclusion that in three years the number of UK students willing and able to undertake a period of study in another Member State will have dwindled, while young people in partner Member States will continue to seek the experience.*

The long-term consequences are stated unequivocally:

> *What impact will this have on the UK role in Europe? How will it enhance the opportunities for young people if they find that, in the European context environment in which they will spend their working life, they are increasingly handicapped by linguistic incompetence and lack of experience of living and working in another European country.*

The legacy of Dearing will no doubt be formed by the social, economic, political and technological pressures of the age. When one lives through such a time, it is essential to try and perceive the *Zeitgeist*, if only to inform future generations of the folly of their ancestors. At present, public opinion is being moved through talk of the disproportionate allocation of resources to higher education to the detriment of the further education, secondary and primary sectors. The lack of a comprehensive nursery education system is also seen as the result of such 'excessive' spending on higher education. Presentation of the argument in the polarised terms of 'either higher education/or nursery' subtly sets the agenda and the context without permitting alternatives such as 'either a private national lottery or nursery education' or 'either an arms industry or free education for all.'

Within such an argument, University education is seen as the prerogative of the middle classes who obtain 'free' education at the expense of the masses. It therefore makes logical sense to make the middle classes pay (more) by the imposition of a graduate tax (on top of the additional tax they pay as a consequence of the higher salaries attracted by 'graduate' jobs as well as the full costs of their education in terms of tuition fees and subsistence). Such calculation conveniently ignores the added value that an educated work-force brings to a national economy, but more worryingly, the fact that in the long-term higher education will be perceived as leading to both direct and indirect financial penalties which are not applied to non-graduates, thereby resulting in a reduction in the number of people wishing to go into higher education.

The place of internationalization within such a system is marginal because of the cost, and necessary only for whatever self-interests might exist in, for example, increased research standing, as is evidenced by those university departments with an international track-record in research and publications, who have obtained the highest 'Five star' rating in the most recent Research Assessment Exercise.

Future research into internationalization might provide evidence to show that where there is a cost with no apparent benefit - as for example in the provision of overseas 'scholarships' - such assistance will gradually wither on the vine, with awards not keeping pace with inflation and becoming increasingly token gestures, incapable of supporting scholars in their original sense of 'scholarship'.

In the UK Case Study undertaken as part of this research, it is known that the 'overseas scholarships' offered by the institution did not even cover the costs of the tuition fees. Such evidence would do well to be supported by a more comprehensive analysis of the situation pertaining to the presence and real value of scholarships.

The current situation reveals that British higher education has learnt nothing from the introduction of full fees for overseas students in 1979, and has continued to perceive internationalization as peripheral. It is significant that no reference was made directly to internationalization within the Terms of Reference made to Dearing, apart from that mentioned above, and it is to be regretted that the Report failed to examine Britain's historical links with the Commonwealth, its support of European Union schemes such as LEONARDO (which provide funds), and the presence of so many overseas students on British campuses and how they contribute to both the local economy and ensure the viability of some courses particularly at postgraduate level.

6.5 The future of higher education across the European Union

Looking beyond these shores to continental Europe, one can see the shape of future developments in internationalization in the European Commission's 1992 Memorandum on Higher Education. This might more accurately be called 'Europeanization' since it relates to the Member States.

Within the Memorandum, the contours of the Higher Educational landscape have been defined in terms of:

- Student Mobility within the Community
- Co-operation between Institutions at European level
- Europe in the Curriculum
- The Central Importance of Language
- The Training of Teachers
- Recognition of Qualifications and Periods of Study
- The International Role of Higher Education
- Information and Policy Analysis

- Dialogue with the Higher Education Sector

Such an approach goes beyond the narrow perspective of national governments and recognizes what the Memorandum describes as the *'strategic importance...vital for the future of Europe'* of higher education in ensuring long-term economic and social success. It is to be hoped that the internationalization of European education will include these issues and form the basis for the strategic decisions which will become the legacy of the 21st century.

6.6 Conclusion

The application of strategic management techniques to the question of the internationalization of higher education provides a theoretical framework which can be informed by data collected in the field.

Such an approach presents staff with a method for analysing their own institution, together with an awareness of the options available, as well as a structure for making informed choices. It is in keeping with the current EC position on future approaches to higher education.

The increasing importance of internationalization is to be welcomed, as is the work of various researchers who are attempting to reach a clearer understanding of the process and its elements. It is to be wished that as we approach the millennium, the next century will bring the 'global community of scholars' ever closer together as a vehicle for both the beneficial advances in knowledge and the raising of consciousness that the world so desperately needs.

When Jean Monnet (1888-1973), who is considered to be the father of the European Community, was asked about the difficulties he had faced in uniting post-war Europe, his reply was simple *'If I was to start again I would start with education'*. I believe that it is through this development of understanding and the tolerance this brings that mankind can begin to live in peace.

Internationalization is therefore not an option, but a primary necessity for all institutions that wish to claim credence for their teaching and research as having a contribution to make in the global family.

But this is only a starting point, and it as well to finish at a point where I began by re-examining those purposes which internationalization seeks to fulfil.

During his pastoral visit to Poland in 1997, Pope John Paul II attended the 600th Jubilee of the Jagiellonian University of Krakow - the institution where he studied philosophy and theology, and which later became part of his diocesan responsibilities as Archbishop of Krakow, including the period when the Faculty of Theology was suppressed by the Communist government.

In his address to the Rectors of Polish Universities (8 June 1997) at the Collegiate Church of Saint Ann, he spoke of the fundamental questions facing not only the specific case of Krakow, but of all universities:

> *What is a university? What is its role in culture and in society? Alma Mater. Alma Mater Jagellonica. This is the name by which the University is known, and it has a profound significance. Mater - mother, namely the one who gives birth, educates and trains. A university bears some resemblance to a mother. It is like a mother because of its maternal concerns. This is a spiritual concern: that of giving birth to souls for the sake of knowledge, wisdom, the shaping of minds and hearts. It is a contribution which is absolutely incomparable. Personally, years later, I see ever more clearly how much I owe to the University: love for the Truth and knowledge of the ways to seek it.*

Teaching is not the only function however of the University:

> *The vocation of every university is to serve truth: to discover it and to hand it on to others...This brings to mind precisely the image of the University, which, through the work of research carried out by many scientific disciplines, gradually approaches the supreme Truth. Man transcends the boundaries of*

individual branches of knowledge in order to direct them towards that Truth and towards the definitive fulfilment of his own humanity.

The work of the scholar is not without its spiritual rewards and peak experiences:

Man has a lively awareness of the fact that the truth is above and beyond him. Man does not create truth; rather truth discloses itself to man when he perseveringly seeks it. The knowledge of truth begets a spiritual joy (gaudium veritatis), alone of its kind. Which of you, dear Ladies and Gentlemen, has not experienced in greater or lesser measure such a moment in your work of research? I hope that moments of this kind will be frequent in your work. In this experience of joy at having known truth we can see also a confirmation of man's transcendent vocation, indeed, of his openness to the infinite.

The university then has as its function the development not only of the intellect but also of the moral sense of individuals and an awareness of the transcendent, which connects the intellect to other parts of the individual:

There are few things as important in human life and society as the service of thought. The "service of thought" to which I am alluding is essentially nothing other than the service of truth in its social aspect. Every intellectual, independently of his personal convictions, is called to let himself be guided by this sublime and difficult ideal and to function as a critical conscience regarding all that endangers humanity or diminishes it.

The qualities required of scholars make a number of demands upon the self:

...the development of one's own humanity and a particular ethical sensitivity...for it is not enough to be concerned about the logical, formal correctness of one's own thinking. The workings of the mind must necessarily be nourished by the spiritual climate of indispensable moral virtues like sincerity, courage, humility, honesty, and an authentic concern for man. Moral sensitivity makes it possible to preserve a connection between truth and goodness ...A distorted or incomplete vision of man can easily make science

change from a blessing into a serious threat to humanity. The great progress made by scientific research today fully confirms such fears. From being a subject and goal, man is not infrequently considered as an object and even a form of "raw material".

Education which does not address these qualities invariably diminishes the individual and the whole of humanity by failing to make the connection between the truth and the purpose of knowing the truth.

In closing, then, the future of individuals and institutions is a common one and one in which the shared vision of internationalization can be fully understood and realised. The whole point of internationalization as a means of achieving excellence in teaching and research is not an end in itself but has a more profound purpose:

This is the great challenge which academic institutions today face in the fields of research and teaching: the education of men and women not only competent in their specialization or full of encyclopaedic knowledge, but above all endowed with authentic wisdom. Only people with this kind of education will be capable of shouldering responsibility for the future of Poland, Europe and the world.

Glossary

Business School - *any Department, Faculty or other organizational unit that is specifically concerned with the teaching of business, whether the institution identifies such a unit as a 'Business School' or not.*

Curriculum innovation - *the way in which what is taught within a university is updated in order to ensure its relevance in terms of both the subject content and the educational process.*

Incoming student - *students from another country who come to the host country to study either for a full course or part of one*

Internationalization - *a process of organizational change, curriculum innovation, staff development and student mobility for the purpose of attaining excellence in teaching, research and the other activities which Universities undertake as part of their function.* (Rudzki 1991)

Organizational change - *the process by which an educational establishment reacts to factors in its environment in order to ensure its continued survival for the purposes of maintaining teaching, research and related activities.*

Outgoing student - *students from the home institution who leave in order to study abroad for a short period such as one or two semesters*

Overseas student - (for the purposes of university fees in the UK) *any student who is not treated as a 'home student' for fee purposes; for this purpose students from elsewhere in the European Union are treated as 'home' students.* For the purposes of general discussion, it should be noted that the term 'overseas student' is peculiar to the UK, with the commonly accepted term elsewhere being 'foreign student', that is a student who is not a national of the country.

Staff development - *the process by which academic and other university staff are able to enhance their knowledge, skills and awareness for the purpose of self-improvement and professional development.*

Student mobility - *the intellectual and physical mobility of both undergraduate and postgraduate students.*

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Abbreviations used in the text

ABS	Association of Business Schools
ACE	(professional section of EAIE)
ACU	The Association of Commonwealth Universities
AMBA	The Association of MBA's
AMBE	Association for Management and Business Education
CATS	Credit Accumulation and Transfer Schemes
CI	Curriculum Innovation
CNAA	Council for National Academic Awards
CUMS	Council of University Management Schools
EAIE	European Association of International Education
EBS	(section of EAIE)
EC	European Commission
ECTS	European Credit Transfer Scheme
EEPC	(section of EAIE)
EFMD	European Foundation for Management Development
ERASMUS	European Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students (EC programme)
EU	European Union
FCO	Foreign & Commonwealth Office
HE	Higher Education
IRM	(section of EAIE)
LEM	(section of EAIE)
LINGUA	Community programme to promote knowledge of the languages of the Community among students and teachers in the EC (EC programme)
LTT	(section of EAIE)
MBA	Master of Business Administration
NARIC	National Academic Recognition Information Centre
OC	Organizational Change
PEST	(see STEP)
PHARE	Poland, Hungary, assistance for economic restructuring (EC programme)
RILO	(section of EAIE)
SAFSA	(section of EAIE)

SD	Staff Development
SM	Student Mobility
STEP	Social, technological, economic and political analysis (sometimes known as PEST)
SWOT	Strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats analysis
TEMPUS	Trans-European Mobility Scheme for University Studies (EC programme)
TEXT	Trans-European Exchange Consortium
UK	United Kingdom
UKCOSA	United Kingdom Council for Overseas Student Affairs

Appendix I

Membership of the Association of Business Schools (January 1993)

1. Anglia Business School, University of East Anglia
2. Ashridge Management College
3. Aston Business School, University of Aston
4. School of Management, University of Bath
5. Birmingham Business School, University of Birmingham
6. Blackburn College
7. Bolton Business School, Bolton Institute of Higher Education
8. Dorset Business School, Bournemouth University
9. Bradford University Management Centre
10. School of Business and Professional Studies, Bradford & Ilkley Community College
11. Brighton Business School, University of Brighton
12. Bristol Business School, University of the West of England
13. Buckinghamshire Business School, Buckinghamshire College of Higher Education
14. The Judge Institute of Management Studies, University of Cambridge
15. Canterbury Business School, University of Kent
16. Cardiff Business School, UWIST
17. Faculty of Business Information and Management, Cardiff Institute of Higher Education
18. Central England Business School, University of Central England
19. The Business School, Cheltenham and Gloucester College of Higher Education
20. City University Business School
21. Coventry Business School, Coventry University
22. Cranfield School of Management
23. Crewe and Alsager College of HE
24. Croydon Business School, Croydon College
25. Derbyshire Business School, University of Derby
26. Dundee Institute of Technology
27. Durham University Business School
28. The East London Business School, University of East London
29. Edinburgh University Management School

30.University of Glamorgan Business School

31.Glasgow Business School, University of Glasgow

32.Glasgow Polytechnic Business School

33.Business School, University of Greenwich

34.Gwent College of HE

35.Hatfield Business School, University of Hertfordshire

36.Havering Technical College

37.Henley Management College

38.Heriot-Watt Business School, Heriot-Watt University

39.Huddersfield University School of Business

40.School of Management, University of Hull

41.Humberside Business School, Humberside University

42.The Management School, Imperial College

43.School of Management and Economics, University of Keele

44.Kingston Business School, Kingston University

45.Lancashire Business School, University of Central Lancashire

46.The Management School, Lancaster University

47.Leeds Business School, Leeds Metropolitan University

48.School of Business and Economic Studies, University of Leeds

49.Leicester Business School, De Montfort University

50.Liverpool Business School, Liverpool John Moores University

51.The London Business School

52.Faculty of Business, London Guildhall University

53.Loughborough University Business School

54.Faculty of Business, Luton College of HE

55.Putteridge Bury Management Centre, Luton

56.Manchester Business School, University of Manchester

57.Faculty of Management and Business, The Manchester Metropolitan University

58.Manchester School of Management, UMIST

59.Middlesex University Business School

60.Napier University

61.Nene College

62.Newcastle Business School, University of Northumbria at Newcastle

63.School of Business Management, University of Newcastle upon Tyne

64.School of Management and Accountancy, North east Surrey College of Technology
65.The Business School, University of North London
66.The Business School, Norwich City College of F and HE
67.Nottingham Business School, The Nottingham Trent University
68.School of Management and Finance, University of Nottingham
69.The Open Business School, The Open University
70.School of Business, Oxford Polytechnic
71.Department of Economics and Management, University of Paisley
72.Peterborough Regional College
73.Plymouth Business School, University of Plymouth
74.Portsmouth Business School, Portsmouth University
75.The Business School, Robert Gordon's University
76.Department of Business and Management, University College Salford
77.Management Centre, Sandwell College of F & HE
78.Sheffield Business School, Sheffield Hallam University
79.Sheffield University Management School, University of Sheffield
80.Southampton University Management School
81.South Bank Business School, South Bank University
82.Stafford College of FE
83.Business School, Staffordshire University
84.School of Management, University of Stirling
85.Stockport College of Technology
86.Strathclyde Business School, University of Strathclyde Business School
87.University of Sunderland
88.Teesside Business School, University of Teesside
89.School of Management Studies, University of Oxford
90.School of Management, Thames Valley University
91.Tottenham TC
92.Ulster Business School, University of Ulster
93.Warwick Business School, University of Warwick
94.West Herts College
95.Faculty of Business, Management and Social Studies, University of Westminster
96.Wolverhampton Business School, University of Wolverhampton

Appendix II

The Internationalization of UK Business Schools - Survey

The following questionnaire takes less than 10 minutes to complete. There is also a space at the end for any additional comments you may wish to add. Thank you for your help in conducting this research.

1. Does your Business School have:
   (a) a policy for internationalization? YES [ ] NO [ ]
   (b) a strategy for implementing the policy? YES [ ] NO [ ]

2. Does your Business School engage in any of the following international activities (tick which apply):

   (a) active recruitment of overseas students [ ]
   (b) student exchanges e.g. ERASMUS networks [ ]
   (c) staff exchanges [ ]
   (d) Know How Funded activities [ ]
   (e) EC funded activities under PHARE [ ]
   (f) joint courses with overseas institutions [ ]
   (g) franchising of courses overseas [ ]
   (h) joint research with overseas institutions [ ]
   (i) active recruiting foreign academics [ ]
   other, please specify:
   (j) .... [ ]
   (k) .... [ ]
   (l) .... [ ]

3. Which of the following do you consider to be the critical factors to successful internationalization (please rank in order from 1-5 with 5 being the most important):

(a) having staff with a specific international brief [ ]

(b) having staff who are fluent in foreign languages [ ]

(c) having access to information on good practice [ ]

(d) having good partner institutions [ ]

(e) availability of additional funds internally [ ]

(f) favourable staff attitudes [ ]

(g) remission from teaching [ ]

other, please specify:

(h) .... [ ]

(i) .... [ ]

4. Within your Business School is there a member(s) of staff whose primary responsibility is international matters?

YES [ ] (Go to Q.5)

NO [ ] (Go to Q.6)

5. What is their name:

Job title:

Grade:

6. What do you see as the major developments in internationalization of higher education over the next decade?:

(a)... (b)...

(c)... (d)...

(e)...

7. Would you like to receive a free copy of a summary of the survey findings?

YES [ ] NO [ ]

8. Would you object to answering additional questions:

(a) by post YES [ ] NO [ ]

(b) by telephone YES [ ] NO [ ]

(c) by a visit YES [ ] NO [ ]

9. Additional comments:

....

Signature (and name in block capitals)

Thank you for your co-operation. Please do not hesitate to contact me should you wish assistance in this or any other matter.

Romuald E J Rudzki, Head of Overseas Office, Newcastle Business School, University of Northumbria (formerly Newcastle Polytechnic). Tel. 091-235-8661

Appendix III

Carnestedt additions to survey questionnaire

- What are the three main reasons for implementing internationalization at your university?
- Who does the overall plan for internationalisation strategy? (b) Are the departments involved in doing the plan? (c) If yes, in what way? (d) Is it a general purpose strategy or built on the characteristics and objectives of your university? (e) Is it an operational plan?
- How do you mainly market your university internationally?
- Do you feel that there is competition between the universities in your country? In what way?
- From your point of view, who benefits the most from internationalisation (indicate 1-5, where 1 is the main benefactor); (a) university. (b) academic staff. (c) students. (d) business community. (e) any other suggestions. Comments
- What aspect of internationalisation in higher education do you think give most impact to (such as student mobility, staff mobility, research collaboration, curricula development etc.): (a) the universities/the academic world. (b) the business community. (c) relations between the countries involved. (d) national and foreign policy. (e) the students. Comments.
- Name one recent (within the last decade) political change that have had a big impact on the internationalisation process at your university.
- Can you see that there is a difference in intensity in international activities at different departments and if yes, in what departments and in what way?
- Do you think that internationalisation improves the quality of teaching? Justify your answer please.
- Would the international student flow at your university be different if your country's policy regarding tuition fee would be different (in Sweden implementing tuition fee and in Australia abolishing them for international students)? Justify your answer please
- Does your university have a formal agreement with a Swedish/Australian (choose whatever is appropriate) university?
- How would you like to develop the situation

Appendix III

Carnestedt additions to survey questionnaire

- What are the three main reasons for implementing internationalization at your university?
- Who does the overall plan for internationalisation strategy? (b) Are the departments involved in doing the plan? (c) If yes, in what way? (d) Is it a general purpose strategy or built on the characteristics and objectives of your university? (e) Is it an operational plan?
- How do you mainly market your university internationally?
- Do you feel that there is competition between the universities in your country? In what way?
- From your point of view, who benefits the most from internationalisation (indicate 1-5, where 1 is the main benefactor); (a) university. (b) academic staff. (c) students. (d) business community. (e) any other suggestions. Comments
- What aspect of internationalisation in higher education do you think give most impact to (such as student mobility, staff mobility, research collaboration, curricula development etc.): (a) the universities/the academic world. (b) the business community. (c) relations between the countries involved. (d) national and foreign policy. (e) the students. Comments.
- Name one recent (within the last decade) political change that have had a big impact on the internationalisation process at your university.
- Can you see that there is a difference in intensity in international activities at different departments and if yes, in what departments and in what way?
- Do you think that internationalisation improves the quality of teaching? Justify your answer please.
- Would the international student flow at your university be different if your country's policy regarding tuition fee would be different (in Sweden implementing tuition fee and in Australia abolishing them for international students)? Justify your answer please
- Does your university have a formal agreement with a Swedish/Australian (choose whatever is appropriate) university?
- How would you like to develop the situation

- In your experience, what is the most important to think about when dealing with Swedish/Australian universities (choose whatever appropriate). What kind of hints would you give both academically and socially?
- Additional comments
- How many people work at the International Office at your university?
- Where can the International Office be found in the university structure, such as in relation to the Vice-Chancellor, to whom does the Director report?
- Could you give an estimate of the following for your university (a) Total number of international students? (b) Total number of incoming exchange students? (c) Total number of outgoing exchange students? (d) What are the five largest groups of nationalities? (d1-d5) (e) Have these groups changed over the last 10 years? (f) In what way? (g) Can you anticipate what will change in the future? (h) In what way?
- Does your institution have a planned target number or percentage of international students? (a) What is the target and for what year is the target set?

Appendix IV

Initial survey letter

[Address]

[Date]

Dear [insert]

The Internationalization of UK Business Schools: policies and practices

I am writing to you in the hope that you will participate in the largest survey ever undertaken of UK Business Schools in the field of international activity.

This survey forms a central part of my Doctoral research as described above and will be available upon completion. In the interim, I have submitted a proposal to present the initial findings at the forthcoming EAIE (European Association for International Education) Conference to be held in The Hague from 2-4 December 1993.

I enclose a brief questionnaire that takes less than 5 minutes to complete and trust that you will be able to complete it and return it in the envelope provided.

All respondents will - if they so wish - receive a free copy of the results, which will not identify activities within any institution individually. I believe that an assurance of such confidentiality will allow information to be shared between Universities in the most helpful way.

Should you have any questions or comments, I would be delighted to discuss this research with you.

Looking forward to your reply,

Yours faithfully,

Romuald E J Rudzki
Head - Overseas Office
Newcastle Business School

Enc. (1) Questionnaire
(2) SAE

Appendix V

Follow-up survey letter

[Address]

[Date]

Dear [insert]

The Internationalization of UK Business Schools: policies and practices

Some time ago I sent you a questionnaire concerning the above.

Unfortunately to date I have not yet received a reply from you. I have therefore taken the liberty of enclosing another copy and trust that you will be able to find the few minutes necessary to complete it in spite of the time pressures we currently all face.

You may be interested to know that the majority of ABS members have already responded, but for this research to be truly representative, it would be helpful if your Business School could be included in the analysis. This analysis will be undertaken after the 20 June, so your early reply would be much appreciated.

Should you have any questions about the research itself, please do not hesitate to contact me. Alternatively, if you are concerned about the authenticity or confidentiality of the research , my Director of Studies - Dr. Atkins at the School of Education, University of Newcastle upon Tyne - can be contacted.

If you still fell unable - for whatever reason - to complete the questionnaire, I would be grateful if you could return it in the envelope provided, so that a nil return can be recorded.

I am sure that you will appreciate the feelings of anxiety researchers face when presented with an incomplete picture of their area of study, rather like getting to the end of a jigsaw only to find that key pieces are missing!

I very much look forward to receiving your reply.

Yours sincerely

Romuald E J Rudzki
Head - Overseas Office
Newcastle Business School

Enc. (1) Questionnaire
(2) SAE

Non-respondents to survey questionnaire

1	10 Bradford & Ilkley Community College
2	14 University of Cambridge
3	16 Cardiff Business School, UWIST
4	19 Cheltenham & Gloucester College of HE
5	22 Cranfield School of Management
6	25 Derbyshire Business School
7	26 Dundee Institute of Technology
8	39 Huddersfield University Business School
9	50 Liverpool Business School (returned late)
10	54 Luton College of Higher Education
11	55 Putteridge Bury Management Centre
12	67 Nottingham Trent University
13	70 Oxford Polytechnic
14	86 University of Strathclyde
15	91 Tottenham TC

Appendix VII

Case Study Interview Script

Good morning/afternoon [name]

I've made a few notes to make sure I cover everything and I'd like to go through these now.

Firstly, I would like to thank you for agreeing to take part in this research and if I could explain briefly what it is all about.

As I mentioned in my letter, the interview is part of a larger piece of research on 'The Internationalization of Business Schools', which is the subject of the part-time Master of Philosophy degree I am currently undertaking.

The research will inform the current debate on internationalization within Universities both here and abroad and your contribution will help to define the ways in which it should and should not be taking place.

The interview is concerned with your experience and thoughts on internationalization. There are no right or wrong answers to the questions and I would like you to answer them as honestly as possible.

Your answers will be treated with complete confidentiality, and you will not be able to be identified by name, post or institution, thereby guaranteeing your anonymity. At the end of the interview, I will show you a copy of my notes and the final analysis of all the interviews will appear in my thesis.

If during the interview, I ask a question you would not wish to answer, please say 'pass' and I will move onto the next one.

If at any point you wish to stop the interview please say this and I will immediately discontinue the questioning. This will not affect the research results as I will approach another person at the University from my reserve list for an interview.

Finally, if you would like me to repeat any questions or explain anything, please feel free to ask.

Do you have any questions you would like to ask me?

If we could begin...

Appendix VIII

Case Study Interview

Group 1: Staff (mobile)

Interview number:

Case Study Institution:

Name of interviewee:

Post title:

Date:

Location:

Time start:

Time end:

The Internationalization of UK Business Schools

1.1. What do you understand internationalization of higher education to include?

1.2. Have you engaged in any international activities at this or any other institution? If so, please describe briefly the nature of the activities.

1.3. How did you become involved in international matters?

1.4. What do you think was your motivation for becoming involved?

1.5. What benefits do you think you have gained?

1.6. What disadvantages have you encountered?

1.7. What do you think are the factors critical to successful internationalization within this institution?

1.8. Why do you think that internationalization has occurred in this institution?

1.9. Do you think internationalization has taken place as part of a strategic plan?

1.10. Do you think staff should be encouraged to become more international in their outlook or not? IF 'yes', in what ways do you think this should be done?

1.11. What benefits do you think students derive from overseas study and work placement?

1.12. What disadvantages do you think there are to students engaging in study and work placement abroad?

1.13. What impact, if any, has internationalization had on the curriculum? (Can you give examples)

1.14. How has the organization changed in response to internationalization?

1.15. What do you think the future trends in internationalization are likely to be in this institution?

1.16. Is there anything else you would like to add?

Appendix IX

Case Study Interview

Group 2: Staff (non-mobile)

Interview number:

Case Study Institution:

Name of interviewee:

Post title:

Date:

Location:

Time start:

Time end:

The Internationalization of UK Business Schools

2.1. What do you understand internationalization of higher education to include?

2.2. Have you engaged in any international activities at this or any other institution? If so, please describe briefly the nature of the activities.

2.3. Do you think you have had sufficient opportunities to become involved by this institution or not?

2.4. What do you think is the motivation of staff who become involved in internationalization?

2.5. What benefits do you think are gained by those staff who participate?

2.6. What disadvantages do you think are experienced by those staff who participate?

2.7. What do you think are the factors critical to successful internationalization within this institution?

2.8. Why do you think that internationalization has occurred in this institution?

2.9. Do you think internationalization has taken place as part of a strategic plan?

2.10. Do you think staff should be encouraged to become more international in their outlook or not? IF 'yes', in what ways do you think this should be done?

2.11. What benefits do you think students derive from overseas study and work placement?

2.12. What disadvantages do you think there are to students engaging in study and work abroad?

2.13. What impact, if any, has internationalization had on the curriculum? (Can you give examples)

2.14. How has the organization changed in response to internationalization?

2.15. What do you think the future trends in internationalization are likely to be in this institution?

2.16. Is there anything else you would like to add? (Please continue overleaf if necessary).

Appendix X

Case Study Interview

Group 3: Students (mobile)

Interview number:

Case Study Institution:

Name of interviewee:

Post title:

Date:

Location:

Time start:

Time end:

The Internationalization of UK Business Schools

Group 3. - Students (mobile)

3.1. What do you understand internationalization of higher education to include?

3.2. What do you think are the benefits of internationalization to you as a student?

3.3. What do you think are the disadvantages of internationalization to you as a student?

3.4. What direct experience do you have of internationalization? (Give examples)

3.5. What are the problems you have encountered?

3.6. How has your programme of study prepared you for employment in the Single European Market?

3.7. What percentage do you think is the ideal number for a student body to be truly international? 1 in 10, more than, less than

3.8. Is there anything else you would like to add?

Appendix XI

Case Study Interview

Group 4: Students (non-mobile)

Interview number:

Case Study Institution:

Name of interviewee:

Post title:

Date:

Location:

Time start:

Time end:

The Internationalization of UK Business Schools

Group 4. - Students (non-mobile)

4.1. What do you understand internationalization of higher education to include?

4.2. What do you think are the benefits of internationalization to you as a student?

4.3. What do you think are the disadvantages of internationalization to you as a student?

4.4. What direct experience do you have of internationalization? (Give examples)

4.5. What are the problems you have encountered?

4.6. How has your programme of study prepared you for employment in the Single European Market?

4.7. What percentage do you think is the ideal number for a student body to be truly international? 1 in 10, more than, less than

4.8. Is there anything else you would like to add?

Appendix XII

Articles 126, 127 of the Maastricht Treaty

Article 126 and 127 of The Treaty on European Union - popularly known as the Maastricht Treaty, makes provision for Education, which was absent from the Treaty of Rome in 1957. The Treaty was agreed on 11/12.1991 and signed in 2/1992.

The full text is as follows:

Chapter 3
Education, vocational training and youth

Article 126

1. The Community shall contribute to the development of quality education by encouraging co-operation between Member States and, if necessary, by supporting and supplementing their action, while fully respecting the responsibility of the member States for the content of teaching and the organization of education systems and their cultural and linguistic diversity.

2. Community action shall be aimed at:

- developing the European dimension in education, particularly through the teaching and dissemination of the languages of the member States;

- encouraging mobility of students and teachers, inter alia by encouraging the academic recognition of diplomas and periods of study;

- promoting co-operation between academic establishments;
- developing exchanges of information and experience on issues common to the education systems of the member States;

- encouraging the development of youth exchanges of socio-cultural instructors;

- encouraging the development of distance education.

3. The Community and the Member States shall foster co-operation with third countries and the competent international organizations in the field of education, in particular the Council of Europe.

4. In order to contribute to the achievement of the objectives referred to in this Article, the Council:

- acting in accordance with the procedure referred to in Article 189b, consulting the Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions, shall adopt incentive measures, excluding any harmonization of the laws and regulations of the Member States;

- acting by a qualified majority on a proposal from the commission, shall adopt recommendations.

Article 127

1. The Community shall implement a vocational training policy which shall support and supplement the action of the Member States, while fully respecting the responsibility of the member States for the content and organization of vocational training.

2. Community action shall aim to:

- facilitate adaptation to industrial changes, in particular through vocational training and retraining;

- improve initial and continuing vocational training in order to facilitate vocational integration and reintegration into the labour market;

- facilitate access to vocational training and encourage mobility of instructors and trainees and particularly young people;

- stimulate co-operation on training between educational or training establishments and firms;

- develop exchanges of information and experience on issues common to the training systems of the Member States.

3. The Community and the Member States shall foster co-operation with third countries and the competent international organizations in the sphere of vocational training.

4. The Council, acting in accordance with the procedure referred to in Article 189c and after consulting the Economic and Social Committee, shall adopt measures to contribute to the achievement of the objectives referred to in this Article, excluding any harmonization of the laws and regulations of the Member States.

Appendix XIII

Networks of support

ABS	Association of Business Schools (includes Scotland?)
ACU	The Association of Commonwealth Universities
AEGEE-EUROPE	European Student Association (see Prometheus)
AIESEE	European Student Association (see Prometheus)
AMBE	Association for Management and Business Education
AMED	The Association for Management Education and Development
Arels-Felco	(Source: UKCOSA)
APA	Association of Polytechnic Administrators - Alison Venis x4909
AUKHEEO	Association of United Kingdom European Education Officers
BETA	Business Education Teachers Association, est. 1973 (G Moore)
British Council, The	
BUTEC	British Universities Transatlantic Exchanges Committee
BUTEX (BUTEC + CAPTEC)	British Universities Transatlantic Exchanges Association
CAPTEC	The Colleges and Polytechnics Transatlantic Exchanges Committee
CIEE	Council on International Educational Exchange
CNAA	Council for National Academic Awards
CUMS	Council of University Management Schools (see Arkin paper)
CVCP/CDP	Committee of Vice-Chancellors & Principals/Committee of Directors of Polytechnics
DES	UK Government's Department of Education and Science (now DfEE)
DfEE	Department for Education and Employment
EAIE	European Association for International Education
EFMD	European Foundation for Management Development
EMS	European Student Association (see Prometheus)
ESTIEM	European Student Association (see Prometheus)
HEURO	Association of UK Higher Education European Officers
IAU	International Association of Universities
NUS	National Union of Students
OST	Overseas Student Trust
PCFC	Polytechnic and Colleges Funding Council

POOG	Polytechnic Overseas Officers Group
SRHE	The Society for Research into Higher Education
UCAS	Universities Central Admissions System
UKCOSA	United Kingdom Council for Overseas Student Affairs

- United Kingdom - The British Council, Medlock Street, Manchester, M15 4AA, United Kingdom. Tel. +44-161-957-7000, fax. +44-161-957-7561, e-mail. david.r.elliott@britcoun.org. Contact: David Elliott, Director Higher Education or Liz Green, Promotions Officer, Education Counselling Service, tel. 0161-957-7541, fax. 0161-957-7561

Scandinavia:

- Finland - Ms Ulla Ekberg, Director, Centre for International Mobility (CIMO), PO Box 343, Hakaniemenkatu 2, 00531 Helsinki. Tel. +358-9-77 47 76 86. Fax. +358-9-77 47 73 33. e-mail. ulla.ekberg@cimo.fi. http://www.cimo.fi
- Norway - Centre for International University Cooperation (SIU), Bergen. Also Rolf Lofstad, National Academic Information Centre, P. O. Box 1081 Blindern, (NAIC), N-0317, Oslo, Norway. Tel. 47-22-858861/2/3. Fax. 47-22-858869. E-mail: Rolf.Lofstad@admin.uio.no
- Sweden - Ms M C Hildebrand, Head of International Development, National Agency for Higher Education, PO Box 7851, 103 99 Stockholm, Sweden. Tel. +46-8-453 7141, fax. +46-8-453 7140, e-mail. marianne.hildebrand@hsv.se. (alternatively:) Ms Ulla Rylander, Director, Department for Educational & Research Exchange, The Swedish Institute, PO Box 7434, 103 91 Stockholm , Sweden. Tel. +46-8-789 20 00, fax. +46-8-20 72 48, e-mail. ur@si.se

Eastern Europe:

Albania

Bulgaria

Czechoslovakia

Hungary

Romania

Poland

Yugoslavia

CIS:

N. America:

- Canada - Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada, Ms Sally Brown, Senior Vice-President, AUCC, 350 Albert Street, Suite 600, OTTAWA, ONT K1R 1B1. Tel. +1-613-563 12 36. Fax. +1-613-563 9745. e-mail. sbrown@aucc.ca.
- Canada - CBIE, Mr James W Fox, President, CBIE, 220 Laurier Avenue West, Suite 1100, OTTAWA, ONT K1P 5Z9. Tel. +1-613-237 4820. Fax. +1-613-237 1073. e-mail. jfox@cbie.ca. http://www.cbie.ca
- United States - (the United States has three main bodies dealing with international matters - the CIEE, IIE and NAFSA):
- Dr Richard M Krasno, President & CEO, Institute of International Education (IIE), 809 United Nations Plaza, NEW YORK, NY 10017 - 3580, USA. Tel. +1-212-984 5425. fax. +1-212-984 5452, e-mail. rkrasno@iie.org, http://www.iie.org. The IIE was founded in 1919 in order to promote mutual understanding between nations and the free flow of knowledge and ideas across national boundaries.
- Dr Naomi Collins, Executive Director, NAFSA, 1875 Conneticut Avenue NW, Suite 1000, Washington, DC 20009-5728, USA. Tel. +1-202-462 4811, fax. +1-202-667 3419, e-mail. naomic@nafsa.org. NAFSA is the US Association of International Educators
- Other bodies include the AACSB (American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business) and the Academy of International Business.

S. America:

- Mexico - Ms Jocelyne Gacel de Avila, President AMPEI, Foreign Student Study Centre, University of Guadalajara, Calle Tomas V Gomes #125, 44100 GUADALAJARA, JAL, Mexico. Tel. +52-3-616-43 99/82. Fax. +52-3-616-4013. e-mail ampei@corpudg.mx

Middle East:

Far East:

- Mr Koichi Nakajima, Executive Secretary, International Centre, JAFSA, c/o Keio University, Mita 2-15-45, 108 Minato-ku, Tokyo, Japan. Tel. +81-3-34 534511, fax. +81-3-37 692047, e-mail. nakajima@ic.keio.ac.jp

Australasia

- Dr Denis Blight, Chief Executive, IDP Education Australia Limited, PO Box 2006, Canberra, ACT 2601. Tel. +61-6-285 8309, fax. +61-6-285 3036, e-mail. denisb@idp.edu.au

Key bodies

ABS (Association of Business Schools)
344/354 Gray's Inn Road
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WC1X 8BP
Jonathan Slack
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Fax. 071-833-1012 or 837 8189

ACA (Academic Cooperation Association)
Ms Julia Race, Director
rue d'Egmont 15
1000 Brussels
Belgium
Tel. 32-2-513-2241
Fax. 32-2-513-1776
E-mail. aca@pophost.eunet.be

ACA is an independent organization specialising in the management and analysis of international co-operation.

ACU (Association of Commonwealth Universities)
John Foster House
36 Gordon Square
LONDON WC1
Tel. 0171 387 8572
e-mail: pubins@acu.ac.uk
Librarians: Anna Gane, Nick Mulhurn

AIEA (Association of International Education Administrators)
c/o Dr V N Bhatia

Washington State University

Bryan Hall 206

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USA

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Fax. 509 335 3784

e-mail. bhatia@wsu.edu

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AMBE (Association for Management and Business Education)

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Fax. 0181-547-7026

AMED (The Association for Management Education and Development)

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Fax. 071-836-0295

Publish the AMED Directory of Management Development Consultants, IMEC Publishing, PO Box 23, 7400 GA Deventer, The Netherlands, Tel. (31)-570-037-414, Fax. (31) 570-032-345

AUKHEEO (Association of United Kingdom Higher Education Officers)

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The British Council

Medlock Street

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M15 4AA

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Tel. 0161-957-7000

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Contact: David Elliott, Director Higher Education or Liz Green, Promotions Officer, Education Counselling Service, tel. 0161-957-7541, fax. 0161-957-7561

BTEC (Business and Technician Education Council)

Central House

Upper Woburn Place

London

WC1H 0HH

The Central Bureau for Educational Visits and Exchanges (CBEVE)

Seymour Mews House
Seymour Mews
LONDON
W1H 9PE

Telephone: 071-486-5101
Fax: 071-935-5741
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The Central Bureau for Educational Visits and exchanges is a charity established in 1948 to promote international education through exchange and interchange. It is funded by the UK Department for Education, the Scottish Office Education Department and the Department of Education for Northern Ireland. Also publish 'Link up'.

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CIEE (Council on International Educational Exchange)

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CIEE e.V.

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Germany

Tel. 02 28 65 97 46

The CIEE was founded in 1947 to re-establish student exchanges after the Second World War. It is a private, not-for-profit organization and has a membership of over 200 US Universities and Colleges.

CDP (Committee of Directors of Polytechnics)

Kirkman House
12-14 Whitfield Street
LONDON
W1P 6AX

CNAA (Council for National Academic Awards)

344-354 Gray's Inn Road
London
WC1X 8BP

Consortium of Care for International Students

Joan Sinclair More
Executive Secretary
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Tel. and Fax.: 021-429-6095

CRE: Association of European Universities

Dr Andris Barblan, Secretary General
CRE: Association of European Universities
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http://www.unige.ch/cre/

CVCP (Committee of Vice-Chancellors & Principals)

The Universities Information Unit

29 Tavistock Square

LONDON

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Analytical Services Branch

Department for Education and Employment

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European Association for International Education

Van Diemenstraat 344

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The Netherlands

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E-mail: EAIE@SARA.NL

The EAIE was founded in December 1989 at the first major conference to be held for professionals engaged in higher education international exchanges. It has a membership of over 1200 and is growing rapidly.

ECBE (European Council in Business Education)

ECBE

En Brison

CH - 1832

Chamby

Switzerland

Tel. +41 - 21 -964 5430

Fax. +41 - 21 -981 1477

ECLO (European Consortium for the Learning Organisation)

Pierre De Potter

Secretary ECLO

Chaussée de Bruxelles

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Belgium

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Fax. 32-2-655-58 12

'ECLO is a research, development and delivery consortium which consists of European Corporations, Universities, Business Schools and Research Centres committed to becoming a major Forum and Observatory of Learning Organisations' initiatives. ECLO shares - through appropriate educational programmes - its observations and models.

It is an International non profit making Association established in Belgium in 1993. Funding comes from membership fees, grants and revenue generated by delivery activities (educational programmes and implementation tolls).

UK member is Dorset Business School.

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EFMD (European Foundation for Management Development)

Dr Ellen Kaye-Gehrke, Director
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Fax. +32-2-646 0768

A guide to all EFMD members is edited by Ihde, A. and Steverink, L.

ELEDA (European Learning Education and Development Association)

Emile Van Reepinghen
ELEDA, c/o efmd
40 rue Washington
1050 Brussels
Belgium

Linked to ELLI with its 1993 'Technology in Management Learning' Conference ELEDA is a consortium of institutions and technology-interested companies whose objective is to promote advances in management learning and the uses of new technology. Founder members from the UK are Ashridge Management College and London Business School.

ELLI

60 Rue de la Concorde
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Belgium

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Fax. 32-2-514-11 72

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Established in 1991

Higher Education International (HEI)

Higher Education International, a Company founded by the now defunct Council for National Academic Awards, the Committee of Directors of Polytechnics and the Standing Conference of Principals, states that it 'provides a forum for the discussion of issues of common concern to higher education internationally.'

As part of this purpose, it was asked by the Department for Education (DfE) to circulate the European Commission's Memorandum on Higher Education in the European Community and related documentation to appropriate bodies and personnel within the UK and to arrange consultative events in 1992, the project being financed by the European Commission.

IAU (The International Association of Universities)

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