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THE DEVELOPMENT OF INTERNATIONALISATION POLICY IN UK HIGHER EDUCATION

A thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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ABSTRACT

This study is concerned with examining the process of the internationalisation of education and teaching within UK higher education in general, and in particular, with the impact on the working practices, values and norms of professionals in higher education. The research was placed within a conceptual framework which draws on models of higher education which contrast the classic model of the autonomous higher education institution and academic profession with more dependent institutions and professionals who respond to exogenous values and policies.

The fieldwork included 65 interviews with academics and senior administrators at four universities in the UK. The findings examined the existence of institutional polices and plans related to internationalisation, the organisational structure and whether this had resulted in a shift in working practices and power relations within universities. The content of the curriculum and delivery styles were also examined to see whether internationalisation had caused any changes to these.

The results show that current internationalisation policies are a development in higher education which is the result of exogenous new public policy concerns which may be in tension with those working in higher education as it is a movement away from traditional academic values and norms. These concerns include the need for universities to increase non-governmental income through increasing fees from overseas students and attracting external research funding from such bodies as the European Commission.

The thesis examines existing models of the internationalisation of higher education. It concludes with an examination of possible future trends of the internationalisation of higher education.

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DEDICATION

In loving memory of my dear father Tom Healy (1923-2001) a gentle man who was always there offering constant love and support and my beloved sister, Margaret Patricia Mann (1953-2000), a dedicated educator who taught me the value of education. This is for Tom's grandchildren and Margaret's children, Matthew and Sarah, their wonderful legacy who are a constant source of joy.

CHAPTER ONE: INTERNATIONALISATION AS A SALIENT ISSUE IN HIGHER EDUCATION

1.1 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Internationalisation in this thesis will be examined as a development in higher education which is the result of exogenous new public policy concerns and one which may be shifting those working in higher education away from traditional academic values and norms. It could be hypothesised, then, that internationalisation is one of the many forces that compel a whole institutional approach and therefore a contribution to advancing managerialism.

This thesis is primarily concerned with themes relating to the internationalisation of education and teaching, such as the recruitment and admission of overseas students, development of the curriculum and delivery styles and pastoral care provided for overseas students. This thesis will not focus on current issues related to the internationalisation of research.

1.2 THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

The current interest and status of internationalisation in British universities lead to the following problem statement: *Given the nature of higher education, to what extent, if any, has internationalisation made an impact on the working practices, values and norms of professionals working in higher education?*

1.2.1 Secondary research questions

The review of literature and experiences of the universities in other countries indicate that it is important to examine the following subordinate research issues:

i)   To what extent, if any, has internationalisation resulted in a shift from academic values to public policy concerns?

ii)   To what extent, if any, has internationalisation resulted in a shift of power within universities?

iii)   To what extent, if any, has internationalisation resulted in a shift in curriculum content and delivery styles?

1.3   METHODS

This study is based on 65 interviews with academics and senior administrators concerned with some aspect of the internationalisation of higher education, at four different types of universities in England during the academic year 1997-98. The four universities are Brunel University, Lancaster University, Royal Holloway (RHUL) and the University of the West of England (UWE). Although they cannot not be assumed to be a fully representative sample the universities studied provided a broad range of various types of university in England and were located in diverse geographical regions.

1.3.1   Higher education institutions selected

Brunel University has its roots in a former college of advanced technology (CAT) and recently celebrated thirty years as a university. Lancaster University is a traditional teaching and research university founded in the 1960s on a purpose-built campus and appears in some league tables as one of the top ten research institutions in the UK. Royal Holloway is one of the eight colleges of the federal University of London and has moved from a central London site, where it was founded in the late 1800s, to a campus located in Egham, Surrey. The University of the West of England (UWE) is a former polytechnic in the Frenchay district of Bristol and became a university in 1992.

1.3.2   Interviews

The primary method for collecting data from senior administrators and academics was a semi structured interview which asked questions related to government policy, institutional policy, departmental policy and the market concerning internationalisation. These were then sorted under headings (codes) using a computer qualitative data analysis programme (NUD.IST) designed by researchers in Australia. The sample of interviewees included senior administrators such as vice presidents or pro vice-chancellors (academic and research), registrars, directors of international offices, European offices, study abroad/exchange offices and student support officers. These

interviewees were either involved with central university policy making in regard to internationalisation or faculty policy making, marketing, planning, recruitment of overseas students and pastoral care. The range of academics interviewed from a broad range of disciplines consisted of professors, heads of department and lecturers who admitted overseas students to their departments, taught overseas students in their classes or provided pastoral care as tutors.

1.3.3 Survey of literature

The literature reviewed considered government policy on the internationalisation of higher education, literature related to the structures and processes of higher education organisations, literature on the internationalisation of higher education and institutional documents. The literature review confirmed that the study of internationalisation of higher education is in a pre-paradigmatic phase (Teichler, 1996) in that it as yet has no substantial or consistent theoretical base. Although there is much research conducted on the internationalisation of higher education a conceptual link has not been made with broader research in the field of higher education policy.

1.4 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR THIS STUDY

The preferred conceptual framework for this thesis will therefore be models of higher education organisation. These contrast the classic model of the autonomous higher education institution and academic profession with more dependent institutions and professionals who respond to exogenous values and policies.

1.5   LIMITATIONS

Due to the limitations of time only four universities in England were visited which were the same institutions that granted access and permission to interview their staff. This study could not survey the approaches to internationalisation of all universities in the UK, but a survey of international students at UK universities was conducted by the CVCP in 1995. This thesis did not assess the quality of internationalisation policies at any of the universities in this study. It was focused at the level of the higher education institution. Academics and administrators were interviewed in this study while the views of students and those of other stakeholders in government and of employers were not included.

1.6   BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

As mentioned in the opening paragraph of this chapter, internationalisation will be examined as a development in higher education which is the result of exogenous new public policy concerns and one which is likely to move those working in higher education away from traditional academic values and norms. Some institutions have followed these movements while others have been concerned by the potential threat to more traditional working practices. However, there is a tension in the internationalisation of higher education. To systems and institutional managers it has gained in appeal because they believe it increases income and responds to EU ideology and globalisation rhetoric. The academics interviewed tend to be more sceptical about this trend because higher education at its most substantial has always been internationalist. Also, they might be concerned about its impact on their freedom to admit students and create the curriculum. Clark (1983) described a matrix of academics: on one dimension they are responsive to their own institutional demands and on another to those of the 'invisible colleges' of their discipline that constitute their ruling forces throughout the world. Internationalisation may bring out the tensions implicit in this matrix.

1.7   THE SALIENCE OF INTERNATIONALISATION

Internationalisation is becoming an increasingly important issue in higher education around the world. For example the Bologna Declaration (1999) is a European Commission document which has as its main aim the convergence of higher education systems in Europe. The objective is to

develop a common structure of degrees and accreditation which has implications for all national frameworks, stakeholders and student mobility. So far, however, its operative significance in the UK, as evident in the interviews conducted for this study, is small.

Recent developments are increasingly influencing the international dimension of higher education. One of these developments is the recruitment of international students for economic reasons which is significant for institutional income and national economic interest. A decreasing level of unit costs in higher education means that institutions are increasingly stimulated to search for alternative income not only through research but also their educational services. In some countries overseas, full-fee paying students are considered as a strong financial resource for institutions but also as an important contribution to the national economy. In the UK, international students make a considerable contribution to UK exports through buying UK higher education services (CVCP, 1995).

While one can acknowledge that there is increased recognition of, and interest in internationalisation, one cannot state that there is agreement about why it is important because the imperatives for the internationalisation of higher education are many and diverse and academics are often sceptical. Economic competitiveness, environmental and political interdependence, national security and peaceful relations among nations are three primary reasons for why more emphasis needs to be given to the international dimension of higher education.

1.8   CONCLUSION

Internationalisation is therefore emerging as a salient policy concern but is viewed differently from the many vantage points in higher education. The next chapter will provide a review of UK policy since the 1960s.

CHAPTER TWO: POLICY HISTORY OF THE INTERNATIONALISATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION

2.1 OVERVIEW OF POLICY

Even though there have been many other excellent reviews of UK government policies on internationalisation of higher education issues which places them in the context of broader state higher education policy aims and developments, particularly Rudzki, 1998: 20-35 and Elliott, 1997: 189-201, it will be useful in this chapter to recount some key historical policy developments. The changing nature of relationships from the 1960s to the present between government, higher education institutions and the market is also examined. Clark's triangle of the co-ordination of forces is used to explain the relationship between government and higher education in regard to internationalisation. Public funding of universities, as well as student tuition fees and finance, are common themes in this constantly evolving triangular relationship. The government encourages marketing for overseas students (particularly the Department of Trade and Industry) and to some extent, the British Council. Higher education institutions recruit and admit overseas students who pay full fees. These fees contribute to the revenue of institutions which is increasingly important as the government has continued to reduce funding to institutions in recent years.

Government agencies (for example, the Quality Assurance Agency) increased monitoring to assure quality of international programmes and protect the reputation of UK higher education in the internationally competitive market of education provision

The main threads of public policy have been fees/income and latterly quality assurance. However these instrumental considerations go alongside powerful residual thinking about the cultural and other benefits of receiving international students.

2.2   POLICY IN THE EARLY 1960S

2.2.1   *Robbins Report 1963 - the calculation of costs of receiving overseas students*

The main issue in regard to the internationalisation of higher education during the early 1960s concerned the cost to the government of receiving overseas students at institutions of higher education in the UK, even though the numbers of university students were much smaller (Kogan and Hanney, 2000). The Robbins Report on higher education (1963) was the first attempt to provide an estimate of the costs involved in receiving overseas students. It is estimated that the proportion of overseas students in the undergraduate population at that time made up 7%, while postgraduates made up 32% (Robbins, 1963, para. 47) equating to some 10% of the overall student population, with 60% being from the Commonwealth.

The Robbins Report further stated that the presence of overseas students in higher education institutions 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 gave rise are not without their diplomatic and economic advantages; and where students from developing countries were concerned it provided 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' (Robbins, 1963, para. 173; Rudzki, 1998).

However, as Rudzki (1998) notes, Robbins calculated that overseas students received an effective annual subsidy: '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, 1963, para.174). The Report therefore debates whether 'the aid is best given by subsidising fees' (Report of the Committee on Higher Education 1963, para. 175). This view was in conflict with the 'liberal bilateralism' (Rudzki, 1998) of the universities because this presupposed that overseas students gave as much to the system culturally and intellectually as they took out financially. Issues such as the viability of

courses without the presence of overseas students, especially at postgraduate level, are not referred to, as the students represent a 'benefit' to the universities.

2.2.2 Introduction of differential fees in 1967

In 1967 the government introduced fee differentials for overseas students amid university and student opposition (Rudzki, 1998). It was also a time when the number of universities was expanding. For over a decade the practical effects of the differential fee were mitigated by the cheapness of the GB pound (£), the influence of pre-existing historical links, the *lingua franca* status of English and the continuing international prestige of the British universities. Accordingly overseas student numbers reached a peak in 1979, although the distribution of countries of origin was shifting markedly to the newly developed countries in the Middle and Far East. The numbers of international students have increased significantly since the mid-1980s and are now at an all time high.

2.3 POLICY IN THE LATE 1970S/EARLY 1980S

2.3.1 Freedom to Study Report (1978)

Rudzki notes that by the late 1970s, the arguments about the purpose and functioning of policies for overseas students were taking on a broader perspective (Rudzki, 1998). Although costs were still a consideration, for the first time studies began to assess the educational experience of overseas students as well. One of these studies, Freedom to Study was published by the former Overseas Students Trust in 1978. This went further than the Robbins Report because it not only examined the costs of receiving overseas students, but also considered the relationship between overseas students, the higher education institutions they studied at and their educational experience as a whole. The Report converged with the Robbins Report in still continuing to perceive internationalisation as solely concerned with overseas student fees (Rudzki, 1998: 24). Issues such as organisational structures for support of internationalisation, international content of the curriculum and its delivery and staff development and rewards were not examined in the report. There was also no concern about the experience of UK students who studied abroad.

The significant point of Freedom to Study, states Rudzki, was that the relationship between the overseas student and their chosen higher education institution, and not state policy, has the greatest effect on the experience of the student (Rudzki, 1998: 24). However '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' (Williams, P. 1981).

2.3.2 The Overseas Student Question (1981)

Following the Freedom to Study report, the Overseas Student Trust commissioned Williams to edit a collection of papers published in The Overseas Student Question - Studies for a Policy (1981). Rudzki highlights that this provided a comprehensive analysis of the research and publications concerning overseas students over the previous twenty years. These papers cover many of the central questions still

important to the issue of internationalisation (Rudzki, 1998: 25).

Williams (1981) identifies what he refers to as the emerging 'overseas student problem' (Williams, 1981: 1; Rudzki, 1998: 25). He compares the idyllically small number of medieval wandering scholars to the mass mobility of students which is different because it is based upon 'the movement of the partially educated, often in search of qualifications as of knowledge and wisdom'. The growth of the overseas student problem was made worse by the ending of the Empire and the change in national interest of the need to educate civil servants for the colonies. Williams states that 'these past two decades [the 1960s and 70s] have also been years of accountancy, a golden age of cost-benefit analysis 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 to our economic self interest: and that contribution should preferably be calculable' (Williams, 1981: 4). Rudzki notes this approach has also become a concern at the institutional and departmental level so that the economic interests of universities, as well as educational interests, have to be considered (Rudzki, 1998: 27).

The approach arose directly out of the calculation of the 'overseas student subsidy' at the time of the Robbins Report which Williams points out 'represented in a sense the end of the 'age of innocence' in respect of overseas students in Britain (Rudzki, 1998: 27). 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' had arisen (Williams, 1981: 4; Rudzki, 1998: 27).

2.3.3 Introduction of a national policy on full-fees

Rudzki outlines the pressures for a decision on fee levels were first, a rapid growth in numbers involving a subsidy, which was paid irrespective of the country of origin; secondly, courses being taken (science and technology were the courses most preferred as they had use in the home countries of students and these were more expensive); and thirdly, British national interests (Rudzki, 1998: 28). 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, 1981: 9). Therefore in 1980, British policy on overseas students in higher education changed by abandoning an essentially laissez-faire regime of indiscriminate subsidy in which fee levels were set at levels well below cost.

Elliott writes that this policy change was however prompted by the decision of the government to find savings in public policy across the board. The Department of Education did not consider the international significance of this particular 'saving' and apparently, nor did the Foreign Office. This all caused considerable dismay in the academic community as overseas student numbers fell rapidly (Elliott, 1997: 195). It affected most adversely students from the poorest countries (in response to which the British government subsequently introduced a package of ameliorating measures called the Pym Package, named after the Foreign Secretary of the time, Francis Pym). Elliott further points out that it also caused further problems because higher education institutions' public funding was cut by the estimated value of the foregone subsidy. This left institutions with no alternative to replacing the lost income to avoid making cuts in their programmes - in part by persuading overseas students that a UK degree was worth the much higher cost that would now be charged for it (Elliott, 1997: 195). By 1984 the numbers of overseas students had already regained the 1980 level and this was largely due to focusing promotional efforts on Pacific Rim countries. By 1995/96, apart from EU students, the biggest source of international students were Middle and Far Eastern students. EU student fees like those for British students remain subsidised and their numbers are subject to regulation quotas by the funding councils. By comparison with the 56,000 Asians, Africa accounted for only 13,000 which is about the same as for North Americans (Elliott, 1997: 195).

Returning to the need for a national policy Rudzki (1998) lists Williams (1981: 6) three possible reasons for the desire to limit the numbers or composition of overseas students. The first of these is 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% to 11.0% in 1979/80. The second reason for a national policy is the argument in terms of the strain on local services and housing. Again the

evidence 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 argument is the belief that overseas students were subsidised at the British taxpayers' expense (Rudzki, 1998: 28-29).

2.4   POLICY IN THE 1990S

2.4.1   *The importance of the internal market and inter-institutional competition*

The introduction of full-cost fees emphasised other more radical shifts in university policies in the 1980s. Full-cost fees gave overseas students the economic role of supporting the university infrastructure and provided a stimulus to inter-institutional competition. Accordingly, in the internal market of the 1980s and the 1990s the vigorous and competitive pursuit of overseas students became inevitable. Equally inevitably, the ending of the binary divide in 1992 may have affected the former polytechnics approach to overseas students. The former polytechnics had a regional focus with students largely recruited from the local region. When they became universities they no longer felt dependent on local authorities and sought to recruit students much more from overseas to enhance their non-governmental income and thus acquire resources that would enable them to match their new status. Some respondents suggested this had resulted in competition with the old universities, and led to the new universities lowering fees and admission requirements to attract a larger share of the market.

2.4.2 *Higher education perceived as a tradable commodity for export*

Elliott notes that higher education being perceived as a tradable commodity for export overseas was a significant development in international higher education (Elliott, 1997: 190). It led to the provision of higher education being extended to overseas campuses while at the same time providing more income to home universities from students on campus. For the first time the Department of Trade and Industry became involved in the export of educational services and collaborated with the British Council. This was facilitated not only by economic and cultural changes within the system which paved the way for franchising and validation arrangements but also by the advance of global information and communications technology (ICT). ICT made possible the use of distance education courses, directed at specific nationality groups, taught in the students' own country and tailored in structure and content to the demands of the students' workplace. However, negative publicity about the lack of quality of franchised courses led to a growing concern of central authorities about the loss of Britain's good reputation in higher education abroad. Concern was expressed by the Higher Education Quality Council which extended its assessments overseas and established Codes of Practice (Elliott, 1997: 197). Maintaining a high reputation became

more of a concern since the introduction of unofficial league tables of which overseas sponsors and parents take much notice.

2.4.3 Increased monitoring of higher education delivered overseas

The concerns about poor quality of collaborative educational provision overseas have been addressed by government and the Higher Education Funding Council for England. They have imposed unprecedented levels of centralised monitoring and control on the international links of higher education institutions overseas.

2.4.4 Policy on the quality of provision of international education – Codes of Practice

The Higher Education Quality Council (HEQC) produced Codes of Practice (1995, 1996) to guide higher education institutions through the complex ways through which quality of education can be safeguarded over geographical and cultural distances (in 1997 the functions of the HEQC were taken over by the Quality Assurance Agency) (Elliott, 1997: 197). Moreover such arrangements are now subject to external audit overseas as well as at home. Elliott points out that that guiding principle is that the course delivered overseas should in all essential respects be the equivalent of its home delivered counterpart - taking into account appropriate customisation for legitimate local adaptations, including the language of instruction (Elliott, 1997: 197).

The increased prevalence of market considerations, according to Elliott, reflects government conviction that efficiency and effectiveness in any area of activity are directly proportional to the range of customer choice. Organisations will be successful if they are enterprising and willing to take risks and reward initiative (Elliott, 1997: 193). Therefore in higher education as in other areas the role of government 'is limited to creating the conditions in which free competition can thrive. Events and outcomes will be shaped by the market, not by the government' (Scott, 1996; Elliott, 1997: 193).

2.4.5 European policy - The EC's Memorandum on Higher Education (1991)

European policy, according to Rudzki, has attempted to be influential in determining the shape of future developments in internationalisation as seen in the European Commission's 1991 *Memorandum on Higher*

Education. The policy emanating from this document has been referred to as 'Europeanisation' (Rudzki, 1998: 32). Within the Memorandum, the shape of the future higher educational agenda has 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 and 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. Rudzki further notes that the impact of the Memorandum has yet to be assessed (Rudzki, 1998: 33) but as the expression of European Union policy it can be expected that it will have an increasingly important influence on national policy making, even if its effects were not significantly evident at the time of this study.

2.4.6 European Student Mobility Programmes

The Erasmus programme was concerned with the mobility of students from all disciplines across the European Community, and although rejected on grounds of cost by the European Council in June 1986, it later found acceptance with an initial budget of 85m Ecus for the initial period from 1987-1989 rising to 192m Ecus for 1990-1992 (Teichler, 1996). 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 attractive to higher education institutions: i) the establishment of European university networks; (ii) mutual recognition of qualifications and (iii) supplementary measures.

In the period 1992/93, the Erasmus and Lingua Directory shows that Engineering had the largest Inter-University Co-operation Programmes (ICPs) with 283 (13.3%), Combined Languages, Literature and Linguistics with 214 (10.0%), Social Sciences with 202 (9.5%) and Business and Management Science with 197 (9.2%). 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. However, in terms of total ICPs for all subjects areas, the UK led with 473 (22.2%), both sending and receiving the largest number of students

(16,688 and 19,060 respectively giving net mobility flow of –2372). Within this total, the largest subject area was Business and Management Studies with 4,326 UK students going abroad as part of the approved ICPs. Teichler has reflected on the relatively less positive attitudes of British students, compared with other nationalities, to their Erasmus experiences (Teichler, 1996; Elliott, 1997: 196).

The direct successors of Erasmus are the Leonardo and Socrates programmes, which have distilled the lessons learned 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. In general, there has been a negative response to such centralisation from UK academic staff who fear the dominance of the centre within their own institutions (Henkel, 2000).

Other European Commission programmes such as the Framework research programmes have also had a significant 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 which may include the cuts in UK national funding, the strength of UK proposals and increasing resources allocated within UK universities, such as European Officer posts, whose function is explicitly to attract external funding.

2.4.7 The Bologna Declaration (1999)

The Bologna Declaration is a pledge by 29 countries to reform the structures of their higher education systems in a convergent way. However, it is not a path towards the 'standardisation' or 'uniformisation' of European higher education and the fundamental principles of autonomy and diversity are respected. The Declaration reflects a search for a European wide answer to problems that European countries have in common. The process originates from the recognition that in spite of their valuable differences, European higher education systems are facing internal and external challenges related to the growth and diversification of higher education, the employability of graduates, the shortage of skills in key areas, and the expansion of private and transnational education. The Declaration recognises the value of co-ordinated reforms, compatible systems and common action.

The Bologna Declaration is a binding commitment to an action programme. The action programme is based on a clearly defined common goal, a deadline and a set of specified objectives:

- a clearly defined common goal: to create a European space for higher education in order to enhance the employability and mobility of citizens and 'to increase the international competitiveness of European higher education.....as the vitality and efficiency of any civilisation can be measured by the appeal its culture has for other countries'.

- a deadline: the European space for higher education should be completed in 2010 and it is an opportunity for higher education institutions to be actors in this essential process of change.

- a set of specified objectives:

  i)   adoption of a common framework of readable and comparable degrees, 'also through the implementation of the Diploma Supplement';

  ii)   profile their own curricula in accordance with the emerging post-Bologna environment with the introduction of undergraduate and postgraduate levels in all countries, with first degrees no shorter than three years and relevant to the labour market. Activate their networks in key areas such as joint curriculum development;

  iii)   ECTS-compatible credit systems also covering lifelong learning activities;

  iv)   a European dimension in quality assurance, with comparable criteria and methods;

  v)   the elimination of remaining obstacles to the free mobility of students (as well as trainees and graduates) and teachers (as well as researchers and higher education administrators.

A follow-up structure was organised which included a meeting in Prague in May 2001 of EU Education ministers to assess progress made at the European, national and institutional level. Signatory countries are considering or planning legislative reforms or governmental action in relevant areas of their higher education systems; convergent reforms have already been introduced in several countries or are in progress. They signal a move towards shorter studies, two-tier degree structures, credit systems, external evaluation, more autonomy coupled with more accountability. Another trend is towards the blurring of boundaries between the different constituent sub-sectors of higher education.

2.5 PRESENT POLICY

2.5.1 No overall coherent policy

Some, in the view of Elliott (1997), consider the adoption of internationalisation as national policy is necessary in order to maximise 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. While there is no corpus of national government policy, speeches of ministers promoted sustained internationalisation of higher education institutions for the purpose of making them more responsive to the challenges of the globalisation of the economy and society.

The need to insist on higher education's useful purposes, according to Elliott, reflects the powerful pressures of the market since 1979. The Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE) recognises this when it states, 'market forces, student choice and the self-interest of individual institutions should continue to be the primary instruments of change' (HEFCE, 1996). The absence of any explicit reference to internationalisation, other than 'higher education as a tradable activity', implies a reluctance to use the term internationalisation, in contrast to overseas governments which were prepared to use the term (Elliott, 1997: 190).

2.5.2   Higher education perceived as an export commodity

Government ministers promote the commercial and diplomatic value of the 'education export industry' (Elliott, 1997). A study commissioned by the UK's CVCP in 1995 estimated that international students' tuition fees and associated expenditure in Britain generated in excess of £1 billion per annum in invisible exports and helped sustain between 35-53,000 jobs (CVCP, 1995). Indeed, the Department of Trade and Industry calculates that the sum total of all kinds of education related exports come to no less than £7 billion, which makes it one of the country's most important economic activities. Other inferences can be drawn from the thrust of actual policies, including general educational policy, as a whole. There are long term benefits of educating those who may include the future leaders of overseas countries. There are, for example, no fewer than 300,000 British alumni in Malaysia alone.

The fact that the British government has not made an explicit policy on the internationalisation, as opposed to the export, of higher education reflects political priorities. However, it also reflects the fact that, arguably, there is less need for explicit policy when, *de facto*, higher education institutions pursue international agendas by virtue of their autonomy, their language of instruction and their academic as well as financial imperatives (Elliott, 1997). Universities have become less autonomous as the government have reduced funding and they have had to acknowledge the presence of the market and other sources of funding much more. The government's approach has been ambivalent in that it has made explicit to institutions that they make their own ways within the market, whilst implicitly expecting them to recruit more students. This became explicit in 1983 (Kogan and Kogan, 1983) when grants were decreased in the expectation that funds would be made up from overseas students' fees.

2.5.3   University funding and their policies of internationalisation

Most policies on internationalisation, or more narrowly, the recruitment of overseas students were intended to generate income. Despite being autonomous, few institutions have sufficient non-government resources to operate freely. The public funding system, directly or indirectly, conditions whether and how a university operates internationally which, in turn, ensures that 'managerial' as well as purely educational factors shape an institution's international engagements and policy (Kogan and Hanney, 2000). The ways in which their academic communities determine their international agenda are related to their scholarly interests as given status within the 'invisible colleges' (Clark, 1983). The single most important source of public funds reaches higher education institutions in the UK via the higher education funding councils which are derived from the government Department for Education and Employment (DfEE). HEFCE states 'meeting the needs of the economy and industry; meeting the aspirations and needs of students; serving local and regional communities and 'higher education as a tradable activity' are important policy considerations for higher education institutions (HEFCE, 1996; Elliott, 1997).

2.5.4   UK universities and European funding

Two sets of motives may operate within institutions. UK higher education institutions need to find non-funding council resources to maintain a greater level of autonomy. But, secondly, many are keen to do so

since universities have always tended to be internationally minded, especially in research. The European ideal itself, 'provided a strong philosophical stimulus to internationalisation, though the idealism was soon tempered by the realisation that Brussels funds were available, and several universities' international offices were predicated on the desire to tap European Community funds' (Davies, 1995; Elliott, 1997: 191). There was evidence that this was the case at some of the universities in the empirical study.

2.5.5 Government funding for international activities

Of the British government funds for international activities some are made available, indirectly, by the Foreign and Commonwealth Office (FCO) (and The British Council) and the International Development Agency (IDA) (formerly the Overseas Development Administration). The FCO and the British Council provides funds in the form of scholarships to further national interests by encouraging talented students to study in the UK or assist in the transformation of former communist countries. The IDA grants awards through project funding to contribute to the further development of developing countries (Elliott, 1997: 191).

2.5.6 Government scholarships

The principal direct means through which the British government contributes to higher education's international agenda, noted by Elliott, are through schemes of targeted scholarships, such as Chevening Scholarships and the Technical Co-operation Training Awards although as with all development assistance programmes they are judged by their impact on social, economic and political development and 'internationalisation' (Elliott, 1997: 197). The most recent education policy paper from the British International Development Agency (IDA), taking its perspective from the World Bank, reiterates the prior claims of basic over higher education because of the former's better rates of social return. In addition to OECD countries, there are technology transfer programmes to developing or transformational economies in the Third World or the former communist countries such as the Fund for International Co-operation in Higher Education (FICHE) and the Know-How Fund. In all, the British government contributes about £120 million per annum to the support of international students through scholarships while the 'subsidy' of EU students is calculated at a further £200 million (or the equivalent cost of four average size universities). However, British universities are more than academic businesses because an evaluation of the FICHE showed that in the period 1993-96 the government cash grant of £3 million levered £54 million in foregone

charges from UK higher education institutions due to staff freely giving their time and expertise to colleagues in developing country universities (Elliott, 1997: 197-198). These apparently disconnected initiatives do not appear to be based on complete analysis of foreign aid policy needs and on an analysis of the impacts on UK universities.

2.5.7 British Council funding

The British Council, a non-government agency, receives around £130 million per annum to further UK interests overseas by promoting mutually beneficial arrangements between British and foreign collaborators, often academic (Elliott, 1997). Amongst other activities, usually on a shared-cost basis, the British Council pump-primes 1300 research links every year in western Europe alone. However, the British Council's other important role, apart from the teaching of English language, is its collaboration with education institutions through the Education Counselling Service (ECS) which was set up in 1984 to promote study in the UK. Nearly 300 institutions pay the British Council to organise exhibitions, visit programmes, use university advertising material and the like in the increasingly keen competition to recruit fee-paying students (Elliott, 1997: 198).

2.5.8 Non-government sources of funding becoming increasingly significant

Non-British government sources of funding for higher education institutions are becoming more significant including funding from the EU and other international organisations. Non-governmental funding provides financial freedom for British universities, which is crucial since overseas earnings accrue to them exclusively and are not accounted for by the higher education funding councils.

Compared to many others, Elliott notes that British students are generously supported by the taxpayer. Not only are nearly all tuition fees paid for most first degree programmes by local authorities (LEAs) but some students from less well-off backgrounds qualify for grant support towards their living costs (Elliott, 1997: 199). Where courses have a compulsory period overseas these entitlements are portable. There is, though, no policy that a declared proportion of the student population should study abroad in the way that some governments, for example the Norwegian government, have deliberately engineered through their loans and grants systems. This is to ensure that Norwegian graduates have international competences.

British degrees courses are comparatively short and intensive (and until recently mostly non-modular) and this makes periods of intercalated study more problematic (Elliott, 1997: 199).

2.5.9 Internationalisation policies of other countries

In the view of Elliott, the most obvious way in which some European countries have signalled their conversion to internationalisation is by introducing taught courses with English as the language of instruction in order to accommodate or attract academics and students unable or unwilling to learn another language than their own or English. This has been most pronounced in the Netherlands but is also happening in countries speaking a major world language such as Germany (Elliott, 1997).

2.5.10 Impact of internationalisation policies on institutions

Probably internationalisation's most pronounced impact on the UK higher education institutions, notes Elliott, is through engendering new international education professionals (Elliott, 1997: 199-200; Rudzki, 1998). Virtually all universities have teams dedicated to international promotion, recruitment, contract negotiation, advertising, fund raising and alumni relations as well as welfare support. While much of this would have developed as a concomitant of higher education's 'massification' and the related requirement for higher education institutions to diversify their income streams, the conversion of non-EU students into income yielding customers and the proliferation of 'off-shore' opportunities have been a powerful additional stimulus.

Elliott points out that one area where most British higher education institutions have not needed to make much adjustment in order to accommodate international students is welfare and accommodation (Elliott, 1997). Because of the tradition that British students study away from their home towns, and because they used to be quite young at the commencement of their studies, UK higher education institutions have invested in providing comprehensive student services - housing, social and medical. Equally, in a multi racial society, it has been relatively easy to cater for religious or dietary needs of foreign students (Elliott, 1997: 200).

2.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter has provided a review of policy related to the internationalisation of higher education from the 1960s to the present. The first attempts at policy making were narrowly focused on the calculating the costs of receiving overseas students at UK higher education institutions. In 1967 the UK government ended its laissez-faire approach to overseas students and introduced differential fees for overseas students amid opposition from higher education institutions.

The focus shifted later towards a broader approach, at least among commentators, which began to make an assessment of the whole educational experience for overseas students and not just costs. In 1979/80 the government implemented a national policy of full cost fees for overseas students which was actually not prompted by the overseas student 'problem' but to find savings in public policy across the board. Full – costs fees resulted in a marked shift in distribution of countries of origin of overseas students to newly developed countries in the Middle and Far East.

The 1990s resulted in further cuts in government funding for universities which resulted in the search for non-governmental, such as overseas student fee, income. The old universities faced competition from the new universities as they tried to find a new niche in the overseas student recruitment market. Higher education services were perceived as a tradable commodity for export for the first time by the Department of Trade and Industry and led to new developments in franchising and validation agreements between UK universities and overseas institutions. However negative publicity led to a policy on the quality of provision of international education, to monitoring and new forms of quality assurance.

European policy moved towards shaping the future of developments in internationalisation. The main influence has been through student mobility programmes and funding for research programmes and co-operation between institutions. The European Credit Transfer Scheme (ECTS) developed recognition of study abroad in Europe. The Bologna Declaration (1999) aims to extend the ECTS and establish a common framework for degree qualifications in the future.

Current UK educational policy can be summarised as the mobilisation of the skilled human resources

needed to make the UK a more internationally competitive trading nation, both within the EU but more especially the expanding markets of Asia and Latin America. This is linked to a belief in the efficacy of market forces and individualism. To the extent that higher education has a distinct international purpose within that wider aim it is to maximise export earnings by selling education services to paying customers. The impact of governmental and international policy shifts will be examined further in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER THREE: REVIEW OF LITERATURE FOR ANALYSIS AND CONCEPTUALISATION

This chapter examines literature which will be used in the analysis and conceptualisation of the research results. This will be an aid in determining whether the internationalisation of higher education institutions is a response to shifting academic values and practice (internalist influences) or to the demands of public policy (external influences). It does so by examining conceptual approaches to higher education governance, and by identifying definitions and models of internationalisation.

3.1   INTERNALIST APPROACHES TO HIGHER EDUCATION ANALYSIS

In tracking the effects of internationalisation on power and policy-making in higher education institutions two approaches can be noted which describe the internal dynamics of the higher education system to explain change. These are to be found in R. Burton Clark's *The Higher Education System* (1982) and Becher and Kogan's synoptic model in *Process and Structure* (1992). In Becher and Kogan's depiction, a system has four levels which are the individual, basic unit, institution, and central authority (Becher and Kogan, 1992: 9). Each level has its own distinctive values, but the important aspect is how the levels connect with each other in terms of decision-making and policy making and through monitoring and allocation of tasks and resources. The model claims to show then, when the operational mode (tasks to be performed) gets out of synchronicity with the normative mode, change is due.

Relating all the four levels of higher education system to internationalisation, each level has different values and work norms related to their different tasks. The central authority has a role to play in introducing new policy on matters such as international students' fees, international students' visas and employment law. Institutions determine their own policy on internationalisation and decide whether they are going to establish international student recruitment targets, grant a proportion of the budget for the creation of an international office or allocate a certain amount of on-campus accommodation to international students. Departments have to decide whether to admit international students after considering their applications and whether to develop the curriculum to an international perspective or for delivery overseas. Academics have to teach international students, develop partnerships with overseas institutions and keep track of developments in international research. To ensure these tasks are performed effectively, monitoring

takes place and resources are granted accordingly. These are mainly changes in the operational mode. It will be seen in Chapter 5 that these may not be underpinned by shifts in values, or in the normative mode.

3.1.1 Clark's discipline-enterprise matrix

The need for academics to keep abreast of current research developments in their discipline relates to R. Burton Clark's discipline-enterprise matrix where academics have a dual accountability to their international 'invisible colleges' of fellow academics in their discipline, as well as to their home institution. This differentiates higher education institutions from other organisations and denotes the peculiarities of academic work which may explain tensions between academics and institutional managers who may have different values. Academic systems are fragmented and independent because of extreme division of labour while at the same time there are complicated mutual influences (Clark, 1983). It would thus follow that socially driven policies (such as internationalisation) would not be a primary concern.

With internationalisation, institutional managers may wish to recruit more international students to generate more revenue while academics may already feel stretched to the limit with large classes at a time when the institution and central authorities are cutting back on resources. Such divergencies of concerns may result in a conflict of interests and political power struggles within the institution (Baldridge 1978 et al.; Bolman and Deal, 1984). From the interviews in this study, academics view managers responding more to public policy demands than to changes in academic values and practices related to evolving disciplines and increasing specialisation or the creation of sub-disciplines and domains. This may be in contest with the ideal of the 'collegium' or the independence of an institution and professional freedom.

3.1.2 The autonomous higher education institution and academic profession

R. Burton Clark uses the assumptions of the collegial-professional model to explain change in higher education systems. This all happens quite independently of national government policy or institutional management. The key word for the collegium is 'freedom'. R. Burton Clark sees liberty as an objective of university provision (Clark, 1983). Organisational features linked to the ideal collegial model include consensus decision-making, academic freedom, autonomy, self-governance and only limited hierarchy based on seniority and expertise (Kogan and Hanney, 2000: 27). Weick describes the collegium as a 'loosely coupled' organisation where there is a relative lack of co-ordination, a relative absence of regulations, and little linkage between the concerns of senior staff as managers and those involved in key

processes of teaching and learning. There is also a lack of congruence between structure and activity; differences in methods, aims, and even mission and goals among different departments and little horizontal interdependence. There is loose definition of policy for the university as a whole and little control over activity or the implementation of any policy. Some observers of higher education such as Trow (1994) think this model and its values are disappearing in UK universities because managers are responding to external shifts in policy rather than developments in academic disciplines.

3.1.3 International students and the curriculum

As far as the curriculum is concerned, a question could be raised about the extent to which overseas students enter UK courses with different paradigms about the nature of knowledge than do their UK counterparts. For example, it has been observed that whilst Swedish education and research pursue positivistic modes, Norwegian education tends towards more hermeneutic styles (Eide,1993). Is it therefore possible that UK educational experiences will cause some shift in students' assumptions about knowledge and that contact with non-UK students will affect the nature of UK curricula? It is not clear from this study, however, that national educational knowledge styles will come into the international picture in this way.

Some disciplines attract more international students than others such as engineering and management science which may be described as 'hard'. Disciplines which are vocational have more influence with sponsoring overseas governments. Management faculties generate more income than other faculties due to international students and overseas clients and have more resources to market the faculty than other departments which they have to often subsidise. The same finding was observed in a study on lifelong learning for the European Union (Kogan, Henkel and Healy, 2000). Having more resources makes them more powerful than other faculties and more influential with the centre when negotiating and contesting international aims of the institution. In one university departments which are low recruiters of international students are held accountable to the managerial centre and subject to more monitoring and regulation. Thus differential demands for disciplines are driven by their domestic economic motivations and it is unlikely overseas students' affinity to particular disciplines is influenced by universal disciplinary characteristics.

3.1.4 The bureaucratic model of organisation

This model often co-exists with the collegial model. The institution creates rules, regulations and hierarchies to regulate procedures and processes, which might assure accountability for the performance of public purposes. A bureaucratic perspective (Baldridge et al., 1978) focuses upon order, co-ordination, regulation and control through systematic and rational processes. Central features of a bureaucracy include: a

hierarchical structure of formal chains of commands; carefully defined roles and responsibilities; circumscribed functional groupings (for example, departments, units); and systematic rules and procedures based on clear policies and agreed goals.

In terms of internationalisation, international offices may 'audit' under-recruiting departments and help co-ordinate a stronger policy. International committees become arenas for policy with representatives from academic departments and the centre. Institutional managers might adopt a reward or incentive scheme for improved recruitment or develop an admissions charter so that students receive prompt replies and efficiency is enhanced through following standard operating procedures. Internationalisation might thus be one influence, among others, propelling institutions from the collegial to the managerial-bureaucratic model.

3.2 EXTERNALIST APPROACHES TO HIGHER EDUCATION ANALYSIS

3.2.1 Dependent higher education institutions and professionals who respond to exogenous values and policies

Against the traditional normative models of higher education are increasingly placed the models derived from the managerial concepts of dependent higher education institutions, such as the pursuit of social concerns derived from access or lifelong learning policies or policies related to quality, according to Kogan and Hanney, 2000: 31-33. These models have not been typified as such, and have not attracted the same level of academic analysis and critique as have internalist and traditional models of governance.

3.2.2 The Evaluative State and New Public Management Models

Models, such as those described as the Evaluative State (Neave, 1988; Henkel, 1991), can be found in some of the literature on quality assurance, and on the effective management of institutions in constructs such as New Public Management (Jarratt 1985; Pollitt, 1993). New Public Management dimensions that apply to higher education are cost cutting; capping budgets and seeking transparency in resource allocation; the introduction of market and quasi-market types mechanisms; requiring staff to work to performance targets, indicators and outputs objectives; the shifting basis of public employment from permanency and standard national pay and conditions towards fixed term contracts and emphasis on service 'quality', standard setting and 'customer responsiveness' (Kogan and Hanney, 2000: 32; Pollitt, 1993). Although the use of external examiners and peer review has always existed, the development of stronger regulation by the state of higher education has resulted in the public assessment of the quality of teaching and publication of ratings. There is also the assessment of research which affects reputations and the allocation of research monies.

3.2.3 Higher education institutions and the external policy environment

Increasingly higher education institutions have had to respond to changes in the external policy environment so that institutions have become more like corporate bodies and comply with the managerial model of organisation (Braun, 2000; Henkel, 2000; McNay, 2000). For example, managers at the centre of universities have tried to generate more income and enhance the reputation and status of their university because of reduced government funding and the need for accountability. More power has moved from academics at the base to the managers at the centre of the organisation (Henkel, 2000; Kogan, 1999). As

government has arranged for the evaluation of academics, they have to turn to the level of the institution for support (Henkel, 2000). Decision-making structures have changed as academics and administrators find their roles are becoming increasingly inter-related. Academics have to work with institutional management to gain resources and administrators have to help shape the policy and procedural structures for academic work (Kogan, op cit).

Research ratings, and to a lesser extent teaching ratings, have an impact on the international reputation of institutions. Sponsoring overseas governments and parents of prospective international students examine the ratings which are published in some newspapers before making decisions to sponsor their students at particular institutions. Parents also take account of the position of institutions in unofficial newspaper league tables. Institutions which receive less research monies (most notably institutions that recently gained university status) have to increase their income in other ways, and one means is by attracting more full fee paying international students. The UK government has cut back budgets and funding for home students as well so recruiting international students again for financial reasons is important to institutions. Academics are encouraged by management to be responsive to international student applications and develop courses that will attract money from overseas or can be delivered overseas.

The perceived importance of higher education to the success of modern economies, already noted, results in pressures on institutions (Kogan and Hanney, 2000: 28; Salter and Tapper, 1994). Higher education can therefore be seen as contributing to both production and consumption of knowledge as used in the model of corporatism (Kogan and Hanney, 2000: 28; Cawson, 1986). The increasing emphasis on the role of graduates in the economy means higher education can be increasingly seen as part of the supply side of the economy. However the importance of higher education institutions to the economy favours a stronger degree of public policy influence. Arguments derived from the nature of knowledge production work in favour of autonomy, and arguments in favour of the usage of that knowledge produced argue in favour of state intervention (Kogan and Hanney, 2000: 28).

From this section it can be noted that higher education institutions are a particular kind of organisation which have many overlapping models that exist at any one time; the collegial, political, bureaucratic and managerial. In this thesis there will be an examination of how the policies and practices of

internationalisation can be implemented given the different power structures and value positions of different interests that now exist within higher education. These models will be used to determine whether institutions or actors within them generate shifts in values, practices, power relationships and organisational structures or whether it is external policy changes that cause change.

3.3 CLARK'S TRIANGLE OF FORCES OF CO-ORDINATION TO EXPLAIN CHANGE

In addition to his explanation of the discipline-enterprise matrix, R. Burton Clark's triangular model (Clark, 1983: 143) refers to the way in which higher education policy and the systems resulting from it are co-ordinated within a triangle of forces of influence. These forces are institutional academic oligarchy (or collegial-professional); state authority (or governmental-managerial) and the market. Using this triangle it is possible to compare systems or individual higher education institutions and, at any one time, to denote the extent to which one force, for example managerial as against collegial, or civil society as opposed to market criteria, is the driving force behind changes in the system. The recent rhetoric of government according to McNay (1998: 3) has been to push higher education institutions towards the last of these, market interaction. As we have noted, however, in the UK, based on recent empirical evidence, power seems to have shifted from the level of the individual academic to that of the higher education institution, the national authority and the market (Kogan and Hanney, 2000).

At the local level the academic professionals' freedom has been curtailed as the collegial culture of universities decline and the corporate bureaucracy tries to move to a corporate enterprise mix. This implies strong central control of policy and strategy with professionals fitting their work within a tight framework as they interact with students, other clients and the market in general.

3.3.1 Van der Wende's extension of Clark's triangle of co-ordination

Van der Wende (1997) has elaborated Clark's triangle of co-ordination (or forces of influence of the academic oligarchy, state authority and the market) by putting it explicitly in an international context and perspective in order to formulate the questions that are relevant for the study of higher education institutions, systems and policy in an international context (van der Wende, 1997: 32).

By placing the model in an international context a description of the international characteristics of the interactive forces that determine the co-ordination of the higher education system in the UK and the institutions in this study can be provided. Secondly, it is possible to examine the new areas of influence and investigate how the relationships and interaction between these forces are affected by the international context.

3.3.2   Academic oligarchy influence in an international context

Van der Wende places the force of influence of academic oligarchy in an international context and emphasises Clark's discipline-enterprise matrix and 'the invisible college', that is essentially characterised by international mobility, networking and co-operation, joint education and research efforts and programmes, mutual recognition, international peer review, and even strategic co-operation at the administrative and management level (van der Wende, 1997: 33) Academics have always been part of their international disciplines but recently there has been more mobility, networking and mutual recognition of courses as well as co-operation between management over common problems such as massification.

3.3.3   State authority influence (governmental-managerial) in an international context

Van der Wende notes state authority, too, has become increasingly internationalist. It is in general characterised by increasingly intensive discussions and co-operation with other national governments (van der Wende, 1997: 32). Regionalisation, global trade agreements and the role of a supra-national government (such as the European Union) enhance the interdependency of countries including their higher education systems. Although the responsibility of the national authority for education is always fully respected and although the systems still demonstrate persistent differences, there is a growing awareness of the influence that new policy decisions may have on the non domestic market. In the UK which has a strong education export or marketing policy, the international orientation of policy is undeniable and strongly interwoven with other policy areas such as that of economy and trade.

3.3.4   The market influence in an international context

Van der Wende analyses the market in an international context in two ways. First, the market for prospective students, and secondly, the labour market for graduates (van der Wende, 1997: 33). The international character of the labour market and the related requirements for the training profile of graduates and the global education marketplace and the role of international student recruitment are important dimensions. Thus the components of the Clark matrix are elaborated as a result of internationalisation.

3.4 DEFINITIONS OF INTERNATIONALISATION

Different interpretations of the meaning of internationalisation are offered by a variety of researchers and associations involved in the higher education sector. Following are a number of useful definitions outlined by Knight and de Wit, 1995: 15-17, which provide further insight into the internationalisation of higher education.

3.4.1 Harari's definition

Harari suggests that international education must encompass not only the curriculum, international exchanges of scholars/students, cooperative programmes with the community, training and a wide array of administrative services but also 'distinct commitment, attitudes, global awareness, an orientation and dimension which transcends the entire institution and shapes its ethos' (Harari, 1989; Knight and de Wit 15).

3.4.2 Definition of the European Association for International Education's (EAIE)

The European Association for International Education (EAIE), founded in 1989, has stated that international education covers a broad range of activities and can only be defined in a general way as denoting all the activities dealing with the internationalisation of higher education, 'internationalisation being the whole range of processes by which (higher) education becomes less national and more internationally orientated' (EAIE, 1992; Knight and de Wit 15).

3.4.3 Definition of the British Colombia Council on International Education.

One of the recommendations from the British Colombia Council on International Education Task Force addressed the 'need for clarification of the definition of internationalisation, both in the context of the post-secondary system as a whole, and at the individual institutional level'. This was a result of the Task Force finding that 'not only did the meaning attributed to the term vary between individuals, but so too did the comfort level with using the word' (Francis, 1993). The Task Force developed and suggested the following as a working definition for the province of British Columbia: 'internationalisation is a process that prepares the community for successful participation in an increasingly interdependent world (Francis, 1993). Knight and de Wit note this is one of the most comprehensive definitions proposed to date but it has been criticised. The negative reaction to this definition centred on two issues. The first related to the reference to

Canada's multicultural society in the definition and the possible confusion that this could cause. Secondly, there was a sense that the definition was too inward and campus focused and that an outward vision to the world was more important and relevant (Knight and de Wit 15).

3.4.4 Arum and Van de Water's definition

Arum and Van de Water also identified the need for a clearer and more focused definition of international education. They based their search on an analysis of concepts and definitions used in the US during the past 30 years. The definition they favoured was proposed by Harari in 1972, and combined three main elements: i) international content of the curriculum; ii) international movement of scholars and students concerned with training and research; and iii) international technical assistance and co-operation programmes. They have built on this perspective and developed their own tripartite definition which refers to 'the multiple activities, programmes and services that fall within international studies, international educational exchange and technical co-operation' (Arum and Van de Water, 1992; Knight and de Wit 15).

3.4.5 Knight's definition

Knight (1993) adopted a more process view of internationalisation and defined it as 'the process of integrating the international dimension in the teaching, research and service functions of an institution of higher education'. An international dimension is described as 'a perspective, activity or programme which introduces or integrates an international/intercultural/global outlook into the major functions of a university or college' (Knight, 1993; Knight and de Wit, 1995: 17).

3.4.6 De Wit's definition

De Wit analysed the differences in Arum and Van de Water's and Knight's definitions and concluded (de Wit, 1993) that the Arum and Van de Water definition was American oriented and 'too rhetorical' for international educators. He pointed out that Knight's process-oriented definition was 'more global and neutral and.....is a more bottom-up and institution-oriented definition, giving space to a broad range of activities which could lead to internationalisation, excluding none'. He went further and proposed his own definition without distinguishing between the terms internationalisation and international education. He described it, in rather circular terms 'as the process by which education is developed into a more international direction' (de Wit, 1993; Knight and de Wit, 1995: 15-16).

3.4.7 Definition of the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada (AUCC)

The Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada (AUCC) has also entered the debate or search for a definition of internationalisation and concluded that 'there is no simple, unique or all encompassing definition of internationalisation of the university. It is a multitude of activities aimed at providing an educational experience within an environment that truly integrates a global perspective' (AUCC, 1993; Knight and de Wit 16).

3.4.8 Ebuchi's definition

Ebuchi gives the following definition: 'internationalisation is a process by which the teaching, research and service functions of a higher education system become internationally and cross-culturally compatible' (Ebuchi, 1990). Knight and de Wit suggest the problem with that definition is that it implies a greater homogeneity of outcome than is necessarily the case (Knight and de Wit, 1995: 16).

3.4.9 Definition of the OECD/IMHE

For the OECD/IMHE Institutional Strategies for Internationalisation project (OECD,1994), the following definition in general terms of the internationalisation of higher education is used: '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' (OECD, 1994).

From Knight and de Wit's (1995) review of existing definitions of internationalisation it is clear there is no one simple or encompassing view. They note that as the international dimension of higher education gains more attention and recognition, people tend to use it in the way that best suits their purpose. While they accept this is understandable, they point out that it is not helpful for internationalisation to become a 'catch-all' phrase for everything international.

3.4.10 Knight and de Wit's approach

Collectively, four different approaches underpin the various definitions attributed to internationalisation: activity, competency, ethos and process (Knight and de Wit, 1995: 16-17). A brief description of each approach follows:

i) Activity approach: the activity approach describes internationalisation in terms of categories or types of activities. These include academic and extra-curricular activities such as: curricular development and innovation; student and academic 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 most widely used in the description of internationalisation.

ii) Competency approach: this approach looks at internationalisation in terms of developing new skills, attitudes and knowledge in students, academics and academic-related staff. The focus is on the human dimension and the development of the individual rather than academic activities or organisational issues.

iii) Ethos approach: the third approach focuses on developing an ethos or culture in the higher education institution that values and support intercultural and international perspectives and initiatives. This approach is closely linked to the process approach.

iv) Process approach: this 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 (programme strategies), organisational policies and procedures, and strategies are part of this process. Academic-related activities include: education-related activities; research-related activities; technical assistance and educational co-operation; extra-curricular activities and institutional services. Organisational strategies include the formulation of policy; budget planning, existence of an international office, internationalisation in the remit of a pro vice-chancellor or other senior administrator and staff development/incentives. This can be described as the most comprehensive approach to describing internationalisation.

With the process approach internationalisation can be seen as an ongoing and integrative process, and different types of strategies make up this process. Different principles guide the process: Harari (1995) places emphasis on the principles of consensus, integration and centralisation.

Aigner *et al* (1992) focus on service, co-ordination, co-operation and small-scale change, while Rahman and Kopp (1992) identify commitment, centralisation and co-operation as intrinsic values to the process of internationalisation. Knight (1994) acknowledges the significance of collaboration, customisation, co-ordination and innovation to the process of integrating an international dimension into a higher education institution.

3.4.11 van der Wende's definition of internationalisation

In the context of a study on national policies for internationalisation of higher education, a wider definition of internationalisation is adopted by van der Wende and includes any 'systematic, sustained effort aimed at making higher education (more) responsive to the requirements and challenges related to the globalisation of societies, economy and labour markets' (van der Wende, 1997: 19). This is a useful definition because it considers the environment in which higher education institutions have to operate in and considers national policies and markets.

3.5 DEVELOPMENT OF MODELS FOR INTERNATIONALISATION

In recent years several attempts have been made to structure organisational strategies into different models of the internationalisation process. This has been observed by Knight and de Wit who outline four different models (Knight and de Wit, 1995: 22-29). The first model by Neave (1992) presents a paradigmatic model for servicing and administering international co-operation. Davies' model (1992) gives more emphasis to the organisational strategies as a starting point. The third model by Van Dijk and Meijer (1994) is an attempt to refine Davies' model of organisational strategies. The fourth model, developed by Rudzki (1993), has a more programmatic approach to strategies trying to provide a framework for assessing levels of international activity within institutions.

3.5.1 Neave's paradigmatic model

Neave (1992), using case studies at a global level written for UNESCO, developed two paradigmatic models, one 'leadership driven' and the second 'base unit driven'. The first model has as its essential feature leadership coming from the central administration, while the second model sees such central administrative units mainly as service oriented to activities coming from below. Neave also refers to them as 'managerial rational' versus 'academic consensual' models. He sees the two models 'as opposite ends of a species of continuum,' in which 'structures administering international co-operation which mould around one paradigm may, in certain specific conditions, move towards the opposite end of the continuum'. Neave stresses that 'the administrative structures of international co-operation (should be) continually provisional'. He combines the leadership and base unit model for administration in a matrix with 'definitional' and 'elaborative' scopes of institutional strategy (Neave, 1992; Knight and de Wit,1995: 22-23).

In Neave's paradigmatic approach, the generally used simple distinction between 'centralised' and 'decentralised' models of internationalisation is implicit, although he adds the dimension of change to the matrix. The other developmental models move away from this approach and explicitly distinguish between centralisation and decentralisation.

3.5.2 Davies' matrix model

Davies (1992) has developed an organisational model with a strongly prescriptive aspect: ' a university espousing internationalisation should have clear statements of where it stands in this respect, since mission should inform planning processes and agendas, and resource allocation criteria; serve as a rallying standard internally; and indicate to external constituencies a basic and stable set of beliefs and values'.

Davies presents a four square matrix according to which an institution can have:

> *A: a central-systemic strategy*, which means: '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'.

> *B: an ad hoc-central strategy*, where a high level of activity may take place throughout the institution but it is not based on clear concepts and has an ad hoc character.

> *C: a systematic-marginal strategy*, which implies that the activities are limited but well organised and based on clear decisions.

> *D: an ad-hoc-marginal strategy*, where little activity takes place and is not based on clear decisions

Davies' model has been used as the basis for further attempts – see Van Dijk and Meijer's work discussed below - to give structure to the organisational aspects of strategies for the internationalisation of higher education (Knight and de Wit, 1995: 23).

3.5.3 Van Dijk and Meijer's cube model

A third model, developed on the basis of an analysis of internationalisation of Dutch higher education by Van Dijk and Meijer (1994) extends Davies' model by introducing three dimensions of internationalisation: policy (the importance attached to internationalisation aims); support (the type of support for internationalisation activities); and implementation (method of implementation). A policy can in their view be marginal or priority; the support can be one-sided or interactive; and the implementation can be ad hoc or systematic. The model that is formed in this way is a cube with eight cells (Knight and de Wit, 1995; 23-24).

This developmental model in their view is an extension of the Davies model which 'only considers the design (structural/ad hoc) of the organisation dimension and not the way it is managed (at central level/within faculties (peripheral) or interactive'. Their model makes it possible to distinguish different processes of development within an institution. They mention three routes through which it is possible to achieve internationalisation as a real priority area in an institution. Their study concluded that seven out of ten Dutch institutions can be placed in matrix cells 7 or 8, which implies that they give high priority in their policy to internationalisation and that support in the institution is well spread on all levels. In most cases (5.5 out of ten) the implementation is not yet systematic but still ad hoc. It is significant that this conclusion applies to both universities and non-university sector, although the pattern is more homogenous for universities. The non-university sector represents a very heterogenous group, ranging from extremely high-priority to extremely marginal examples of internationalisation.

3.5.4   Rudzki's strategic model

Rudzki (1993) identifies four key dimensions of internationalisation: student mobility, staff development, curriculum innovation and organisational change and points to the activities that cut across these dimensions, usefully adding to Davies' scheme by outlining and contrasting 'reactive' and 'pro-active' modes of internationalisation. These two modes are characterised by stages:

a) Reactive mode

Stage 1: contact – academic staff engage in contacts with colleagues in other countries; curriculum development; limited mobility; links clear formulation of purpose and duration.

Stage 2: formalisation – some links are formalised with institutional agreements; 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 – organisational conflict between staff and management leads to withdrawing of goodwill by staff; possible decline in activity and disenchantment.

Stage 5: maturity or decline – possible move to a more coherent, pro-active approach.

b)Pro-active mode

Stage 1: analysis – strategic analysis of short-, mid- and long-term objectives and rationales; staff training and consultation; internal audits, SWOT analysis, cost-benefit analysis.

Stage 2: choice – strategic plan and policy drawn up on basis of broad consultation and networking, performance measures defined and resources allocated.

Stage 3: implementation

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.

Rudzki (1993) has used his strategic model in a study of the internationalisation of UK business schools and concludes 'the spectrum of activity ranges from those business schools who have positioned themselves on the global stage and are committed to internationalisation, to one institution which has taken a strategic decision not to engage in international activity'. He further concludes that 'internationalisation is clearly being driven by financial imperatives and incentives, in the form of UK and EC funding' (Knight and de Wit, 1995, 24-25).

The approaches by Davies (1992), Van Dijk and Meijer (1994) and Rudzki (1993) to the theoretical modelling of internationalisation by institutions, according to Knight and de Wit, 1995: 25, complement one another well, in their prescriptive and descriptive aspects. Taken together, they offer a means of measuring the formal, policy commitments of institutions against the practice to be found in concrete operating structures. Further, they offer a way of including in the theoretical frame the fact that institutional strategies may be implicit as well as explicit. The four organisational models developed by Neave, Davies, Van Dijk and Meijer, and Rudzki provide useful information and tools for analysis but do not constitute new paradigms for strategies of internationalisation.

3.5.5 Knight's internationalisation cycle

An alternative approach to the development of these organisational models is to consider the internationalisation process as a continuous cycle (from innovation to institutionalisation), not a linear or static process (Knight, 1994; Knight and de Wit, 1995: p. 25)). The model identifies the steps or phases in the process of integrating the international dimension into the higher education institution culture and systems.

The cycle has six phases which an institution will move through at its own pace. There is no sequence to the six phases and there is a two-way process that will occur between the different steps:

Step 1 – awareness – creating as much awareness and inclusivity as possible of the importance and benefit of internationalisation.

Step 2- commitment – building commitment to the process of integrating an international dimension into the teaching/learning, research and service functions of a university. 'While commitment from senior administration will lead the process, the real engine of internationalisation will be academic, staff and students.

Step 3 – planning – developing a comprehensive plan or strategy for the internationalisation of a university and setting realistic priorities and time frames. Planning will be unique to each institution as they do not start with a blank slate and existing expertise much be built on. If not 'turfdom' may set in and then energy will be spent on breaking down barriers rather than on creating communication channels and collaboration modes.

Step 4 – internationalisation – implementing the different aspects of an internationalisation strategy (academic activities, services and organisational factors) and creating a supportive culture. The priority and pacing of these activities will depend on the resources, needs and objectives of each institution and customised accordingly.

Step 5 – review – assessing and continually enhancing the quality and impact of the different aspects of the internationalisation process so that there is integration into the regular administrative and academic systems of the institution.

Step 6 – reinforcement – the reward and recognition of academics and staff participation. This leads to renewed awareness, commitment and planning. This cycle of internationalisation attempts to build in innovation.

The study of internationalisation of higher education, despite the above conceptualisations is still fragmented, primarily based on American experiences and conflated with studies in the areas of comparative education, international education, global education and multicultural education. Much of it is intended to inform managerial action. For Europe, the situation is described clearly by Teichler (1994): 'most of the research available on academic mobility and international education seems to be occasional, coincidental, sporadic or episodic.

3.6 CONCLUSION

The models of higher education governance depicted here offer a spectrum from the academically led to the managerialist and from the operational to the more deeply normative and behavioural. Also identified are the myriad of definitions and models of internationalisation. The extent to which they are applicable to actual cases will be tested in the findings from the empirical study in Chapters 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODS

4.1   OVERVIEW

The research methods for this study consisted of the following approaches:

a) review of the literature on the internationalisation of higher education, on macro policy recommendations and institutional plans for internationalisation, on the findings of organisational and higher education theorists regarding the complexity of higher education institutions, on research about the costs and benefits of internationalising higher education and on research regarding models of internationalisation planning and strategic planning;

b) a pilot interview schedule on internationalisation issues tested at one university;

c) identification of types of universities in which to pursue further interviews. The types of university selected were one technological university (Brunel University), a well established research university (Lancaster University), one traditional college of the University of London (Royal Holloway) and one new university which was former polytechnic (University of the West of England). Although there are other types of university in the UK, only the above four were selected as these were the ones which granted access. However, the range of types was broad and the geographical locations of the institutions were diverse;

d) further development of an interview schedule based on pilot study responses, more reading and comments from people in the field;

e) conducting interviews at the selected universities and collecting resource documents at each university (N = 65);

f) transcribing the tape recorded interviews for analysis in a qualitative data management programme (NUD.IST);

g) synthesis of the interviews and possible recommendations and implications for further study;

This study is a qualitative case study of management, academics and service administrators at four higher education institutions in the UK. It describes and compares the roles of internationalisation as experienced in four universities. Using the case study method has allowed study of internationalisation phenomena in actual institutional contexts.

Using interviews within a case study method has also allowed research of internationalisation in the selected universities in a broad way, and was not a restriction on gathering information. Higher education theory has furthered understanding of the background to internationalisation and the formulation of interview questions. This allowed study of the broad context around the internationalisation phenomenon or process and to understand the assumed problems in internationalisation activities in each institution.

This research study is therefore not a broad survey of the internationalisation of higher education institutions, nor is it a broad-based study of planning and implementation. It pays attention to how internationalisation affects these universities, and what the problems are in the implementation process and everyday operations of the university. The analysis aims to make an attempt at providing some possible answers to the assumed problems.

4.2 LITERATURE REVIEW AND PILOT STUDY

The aim of this study was to follow the internationalisation efforts of four universities studied during the past five years up to 1998. The research began with a review of the literature in August 1996. For data collection many sources of evidence were used which comprised both background information regarding the institutions and information on present internationalisation efforts.

For background information documentary evidence was used from the macro level which included the Department for Education and Employment (DfEE), CVCP, HEQC, HEFCE and the British Council's ECS, and the IDA as well as from the institutional level. Important for data collection were university strategic plans or other plans, task force reports and other possible documents concerning internationalisation.

4.3 PILOT STUDY

A pilot interview schedule based on the literature review was developed and implemented in the autumn of 1996. The pilot interview schedule was tried out on twenty senior managers, academics and service administrators at one university in England. The interview questions related to issues on macro policy, institutional policy, plans, problems areas in co-operation and decision making, costs and benefits, curriculum development and problems with implementation. The answers received from the pilot interviews were analysed and served as a basis for further study at other universities in the UK.

4.4 RESEARCH POPULATION

Special attention was paid to people in the universities, both academic and administrative, who were most responsible for the internationalisation of their institution. It was assumed that they would be most concerned with the complexity of internationalisation, though perhaps not in the same way as each other or with the same aspects of internationalisation. There may be a gap between what the enlarging international visions and widening institutional missions expect international service administrators to accomplish and what they have time or a mandate to do during any given working day. There often seems to be disagreement between the senior managers, academics and service level staff about the priority of internationalisation efforts and how they should be implemented inside the institution. Who should be responsible for this raises an important question.

Table 1: Numbers and types of interviewees at four higher education institutions

	Nos. of academics	Nos. of administrators
Brunel University	10	9
Lancaster University	12	8
Royal Holloway, U. of London	10	11
University of West of England	3	2

The UK universities used for this study are diverse and so are the types and histories of the institutions. Each however are influenced by the same macro-level policy even though the institutional-level plans and recommendations for internationalisation may be different. All four universities have varying histories of organised international activities. The four universities were: Brunel University, Lancaster University, Royal Holloway University of London and the University of the West of England, Bristol. These four universities vary in size and numbers of students, academics and academic-related staff, degree programmes, curricular and calendar structure and geographical settings.

4.5 INTERVIEW SCHEDULE DEVISED

The interview schedule follows the conceptual framework of the study (see Appendix 1), which should form the answers to the research questions. The questions addressed macro policy recommendations, institutional policies and plans, problems and implementation, definitions of internationalisation and possible new approaches to internationalisation:

i) the interview schedule sought to find out as much about the institution as possible from the perspective of the different interviewees

ii) the interview questions asked for views on macro policy and meso-level policy in relation to internationalisation

iii) there were questions about the operational level of internationalisation and these addressed questions of availability of information, the decision making process, coherence, mutual learning, planning and implementation. This part of the interview schedule aimed to find out where the internationalisation problems were at the operational level of internationalisation and of the daily problems between plans and everyday work expectations. This section also aimed to determine whether there were any difference in values and beliefs of academics and administrators

iv) there were questions on the costs and benefits of internationalising and this was aiming to find answers on costs and benefits from the different perspectives of managers, academics and administrators.

Interview respondents were given a form to complete about themselves and their position in the university so attitudes could be compared from the different respondent groups in this study. The participants in this study were chosen to be interviewed because they had a direct connection with the internationalisation process either through practical implementation of internationalisation, admissions, planning, or making budget decisions. Therefore the sample was purposeful and aimed to increase the utility of information that could be received from a small sample. The most typical job titles were: Vice-Principal, Pro-Vice-Chancellor, Director of International Office, Academic Dean, Departmental Head, Professor, Reader, Senior Lecturer/Principal Lecturer, Lecturer and International Office Administrator and Support Staff.

These participants represented the university organisation both vertically (top managers/administrators, academics and international office administrators) and horizontally (different offices and academic disciplines). There was no pre-assumed power structure in the vertical/horizontal representation. Sixty five participants were interviewed in total. The interviews were tape recorded and transcribed for clarity.

4.6   ANALYSIS OF DATA

Data analysis was aimed at addressing the initial propositions of the study. Analysing documentary evidence is especially difficult because the strategies and techniques have not always been well defined in the past. This is why it was important to have a general analytic strategy to begin with. The data analysis relied on theoretical propositions which were based on the conceptual framework. This framework reflected a set of research questions, review of the literature and possible ways forward.

The conceptual framework provided an orientation that helped focus attention on certain data and ignored others. Analysis focused on data about governmental and institutional policy on internationalisation, the impact of internationalisation on working practices and values, the impact on curricular as well as institutional structures and power. The analysis also focused on data about means of implementation and on possibilities towards coherent internationalisation. Analysis was therefore consistent with the conceptual framework used at the beginning to describe the problem and research questions. This frame considered how macro level policies (supranational and national) of internationalisation affect institutional level policies.

Documentation data were collected from administrative and academic publications. The study provided insights into the everyday work of internationalising universities. With no prior knowledge of the internationalisation efforts at each university, a weakness in the methodology was perhaps how participants were chosen. This depended on one key member of staff at each university to provide a list of possible respondents. More observation on each campus prior to interviewing may have improved knowledge of the actual practices. The resulting ranges of interviews, however, seemed appropriate to the objectives of the study.

4.7 CONCLUSION

Chapter Four has a provided a review of research methods. The review of literature focused on three main areas. The first of these was national, supranational and international policy on the internationalisation of higher education which was summarised in Chapter Two. Secondly, a review of organisational literature of higher education institutions and systems was reviewed to provide a conceptual framework for the thesis and to determine whether institutions or actors cause change. Last, literature on internationalisation at the institutional level was reviewed which formed Chapter Three. The primary method for gathering qualitative data was through the use of a semi structured interview. The research findings are presented in Chapters 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9.

CHAPTER FIVE: IMPACT OF GOVERNMENT POLICIES

5.1   OVERVIEW

In Chapter Two, we noted the international policies promoted by international and national bodies as depicted in the literature. In this chapter we consider the policies through the statements of interviewees. We have noted that acceptance of overseas students and collaboration on research have had a long tradition in UK university academic departments. Regulations concerning international education have been few. UK universities are largely free of government control concerning teaching and research, and regulation is mainly mediated through quality assurance requirements (see Chapter on 6 on quality assurance) and grants aimed towards policy goals. Universities have had policies on international education but these have intensified and changed over the last ten years.

5.1.1 Overall impact of policies

The responses of respondents presented a variable picture of knowledge and understanding of international and national policies. In the four universities, the majority were not aware of, or conversant with, the influence of such policies on the missions of their institutions and others only saw tentative connections. The impact of international policies and especially those of the EU were seen to be largely indirect and related to other policy aims rather than promoting international education.

In the minds of thirty-two academic respondents (about a half), internationalisation within UK higher education institutions since the 1980s has been driven explicitly by the goal to generate income additional to government income, by charging overseas students 'full fees'. In addition, however, the availability of European Commission funds through mobility programmes such as Erasmus and Socrates has created a desire by institutions to undertake both university links and student exchanges that did not occur so intensively before.

5.2 EUROPEAN POLICY

5.2.1 Policies of the European Commission

Where there was perceived to be a policy on internationalisation at the higher education level, respondents viewed the agenda as largely being 'driven by Brussels' through the funding of mobility schemes and bilateral and multilateral research projects and the European Credit Transfer Scheme (ECTS) 'so it is a European international agenda' (R.UNI.15SA). This assumption, however, runs counter to findings in a parallel study of the EU on lifelong learning developments in the UK (Henkel, Kogan & Healy, 2000) which showed little responsiveness to or knowledge of EU policies.

5.2.2 Imbalance of numbers on mobility programmes

The imbalance of UK students going to the Continent as part of the Socrates programme was perceived to have been made more serious by the government's introduction of the £1000 tuition fee (R.UNI.13AC). Nevertheless this was acknowledged as a 'preferential' fee for EU students compared with other international students who pay full fees (R.UNI. 04AD). The imbalance in numbers was in the view of most due to UK students' poor foreign language ability rather than the introduction of fees as the imbalance existed prior to their introduction. Also, UK students did not wish to attend overcrowded continental universities. In contrast, in the view of British academics, EU students were keen to come to the UK to study as it improved their English language skills and they perceived UK higher education 'to be better value compared with other English speaking countries' (C.UNI.14AD). UK universities have many strong marketable attributes compared with continental universities that include a high reputation for teaching in relatively small tutor groups and better student support systems such as subsidised on campus accommodation and catering. Teichler's studies of the Erasmus programme confirm these views (Teichler, 1986).

5.2.3 Lack of funding

Several interviewees indicated that UK universities had become increasingly less interested in the EU Socrates student mobility programme. This was due to the massive cuts in funding made by the European Commission since the mobility programmes began. UK universities were taking many EU students for little financial return and did not have enough money to visit partner institutions to check the quality and curriculum of exchange partners participating in the programme (R.UNI.06AD). There was nothing to be gained financially with recruiting EU

students despite much extra work. UK universities were more concerned with prospective students in the market who would have 'full fee status' and these were non-EU students.

One administrator believed that enthusiasm was waning amongst pro-European academics because of reduced funding from the European Commission (R.UNI.06AD). This had significant knock-on effects in terms of motivation compared to when the Erasmus mobility Programme first began in 1987. There was less money for travelling and assessing the suitability and compatibility of programmes, developing collaborative curricula, establishing networks and maintaining them, which made personal visits important.

5.2.4 Bids for EU funds

UK institutions have had to bid for funds from the European Commission to make up for shortfalls in income received from the UK government. This led to the creation of a European Office at Lancaster University and full-time European Officer posts have pursued funds for student mobility programmes, as well as research and development projects. There have been successful partnerships between academics and administrators bidding for European Commission funding. Administrators have assisted with completion of forms, budgetary aspects and information about partner institutions and academics have provided the academic content for the project tender (R.UNI.06AD).

Some administrators were concerned that other EU countries received more funding than the UK, even though UK institutions were often leaders in fields such as English language education and postgraduate teaching. In their view UK universities needed to be more organised so they would be awarded more funds. However, another administrator provided an alternative explanation which was the lack of human and capital resources (R.UNI.06AD).

5.2.5 Academics not keen to take more EU students with less resources

Individual academics varied in their views in regard to exchange students from the EU, with no clear differentiation by discipline or institution. The good aspects of having exchange students were the different cultural perspectives they brought to a course. EU students were usually older, prepared for seminars and highly motivated compared with home students. Academics welcomed Northern Europeans (particularly Dutch, German and Scandinavian students) who were fluent in English and came well prepared from their higher education systems for studying for degrees in England. Students from Southern European (Greeks, Italians and Spaniards)

were less well prepared and this resulted in additional work for academics to bring them up to the prerequisite standard required (R.UNI.15SA).

5.2.6 Overseas students and recruitment to disciplines

While exchange students often filled empty places in departments that had difficulty recruiting in the UK, such as science departments, there was a downside for academics as well. Overseas students often struggled with academic English writing and academics spent much time assisting them with editing. Lecturers had to teach at a slower pace for overseas students who had problems with comprehending, at speed, oral academic English in their chosen discipline. Administrators disliked the burden of having to recruit overseas students in order that recruiting departments might keep afloat and thought rationalising in the form of merging or closing was more appropriate. In contrast, in oversubscribed disciplines overseas students added to already overcrowded lectures at a time when there was no extra funding available. Academics often resented the extra work burdens and teaching with no extra financial or other reward (such as remission from teaching to conduct research) at a time when both the European Commission and UK government were reducing funds.

5.3   NATIONAL POLICIES RELATING TO INTERNIONALISATION

5.3.1 No explicit UK government policy on internationalisation

As mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, it can be concluded from the majority of respondents that there was no explicit UK government policy shaping internationalisation of higher education. A typical reply was: 'it [government policy] is not apparent to me at all' (R.UNI.15SA). UK government policies were not seen as having an impact on institutional policies on internationalisation. One administrator involved with internationalisation was not 'influenced' or 'involved' with anything the UK government was doing (R.UNI. 06AD). One academic was critical of the government's lack of policy and suggested that this was due to 'indifference to internationalisation' (R.UNI. 19SA).

Policies on internationalisation made by higher education institutions were related indirectly to national policies regarding higher education finance. If respondents perceived that there was a government policy on the internationalisation of higher education it was viewed as developing *de facto*. It was seen as being merely reactive to a policy agenda already created by higher education institutions to deal with the financial pressures related to less government funding for all public sector services. Therefore the trend of internationalisation of universities had been 'independent' of government policy and was now viewed as 'cashing in on the situation' (R.UNI.10SA).

5.3.2 Autonomy of higher education institutions

The UK government were not perceived to be steering internationalisation policies; higher education institutions themselves have considerable autonomy over the formation of policies on international matters such as international student recruitment. The government had not set recruitment quotas on overseas students compared with home students (R.UNI. 06AD). Therefore the recruitment of international students was determined more by institutional policies and the market than by any government policies. One academic observed that by their very nature 'traditional British universities have always been international regardless of any government policies' (R.UNI.12SA).

5.3.3   Increase in managerialism in universities

However, with the changes in university funding, academics themselves were not so autonomous and managerialism was more prevalent in recruitment activities than before. One

academic described managerialism as a 'loose concept' because managers did not need 'to pull levers' if tasks were performed well (C.UNI.07AC). The example of meeting recruitment targets was offered. Quotas were being set by the institution which required filling and managers were asking for specific returns on student programmes which were in most cases being met by departments.

Despite this growth in managerialism academics were still the gatekeepers with regard to the admission of students and would often refuse to admit students if they were not of the required standard. Academics did not wish to see students struggle and were keen to make sure that an international student could successfully complete the course and gain an award at the end of it. Responsible recruitment was seen as vital to a university's reputation and could not be sacrificed for short-term institutional financial gain.

5.3.4 Reports on higher education have not established a framework

If a framework for international education was not provided by the government, official reports on higher education issued by national committees or advisory groups such as the Robbins Report (1963), the Grubb Institute Report (1978) and the Dearing Report (1997) did not establish one either.

5.3.5 Dearing's vision regional and parochial

The Dearing Report was often referred to in interviews. This was the first official major study produced on higher education in the UK since the Robbins Report (1963). However, respondents noted that Dearing 'did not focus primarily or very effectively on internationalisation' (C.UNI.17AC) and had little to say about internationalisation which in the view of one administrator was 'a great disappointment' and 'an opportunity missed' (R.UNI.20AD). Instead, the Dearing Report focused on local and regional issues and one respondent described it as being an 'exceptionally parochial future vision' of higher education' (C.UNI.19SA). Dearing had no critical view on international students even though the report focused on teaching and greater collaboration in the use of resources.

5.4   INDIVIDUAL GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENTS AND AGENCIES CONCERNED WITH INTERNATIONALISATION POLICY

5.4.1 Cut-backs by the Treasury

Although there had been no coherence in government policy overall, certain government departments have advanced policies which have had an impact on the internationalisation of higher education. The government department most often referred to in interviews was the Treasury which was behind the introduction of differential fees in 1966 and reduction in expenditure on all public sector services in the late 1970s and early 1980s. These cut backs led to the introduction of full-cost fees for overseas students. However, this government policy had quite unintended consequences in the area of the internationalisation of higher education and one academic observed that it was not designed to 'encourage or discourage internationalisation or be part of a government agenda' (R.UNI.08SA).

The cut backs in public expenditure led to a new regime of government financing for all public sector services which were to be held more accountable to the government including higher education institutions. One administrator had no problems with this requirement for accountability as a British taxpayer. In fact the introduction of full fees made him realise that overseas students had generous fee subsidies (T.UNI.06AD).

5.4.2   Introduction of full cost tuition fees for overseas student

The introduction of full cost tuition fees for overseas students coincided with the changes in the system of university funding and influenced the total costs of the university. The Government then took the total costs of the institution and divided it by the number of students. A 20% cut in funding was made over one year in 1981 and fees for international students were increased by two-three times. As funding has changed over the years from a block grant to funding per student the new funding mechanism has made it more explicit to students that institutions are getting a certain amount of money to teach undergraduates and more importantly now home students are charged fees it makes it harder to justify taking more fees from overseas students. Institutions are conscious of the fact that overseas students could sue universities in the future for discrimination (R.UNI.03AD). As students are now paying more towards the cost of their

education value for money is increasingly expected as universities begin to operate more like businesses (R.UNI.07AD).

Interviewees in higher education institutions saw the recruitment of overseas students as a means to build up their own financial reserves. The UK Council for International Students (UKCOSA) and the former Overseas Students Trust (OST) actively campaigned against the introduction of full cost fees but the Committee of Vice Chancellors and Principals (CVCP) were divided on the issue (T.UNI.07SA). Initially there was a fall in student numbers when full cost fees were introduced.

5.4.3 Initial fall in overseas student numbers after full fees were introduced in 1980

It was clear that the government had not foreseen the consequences of a significant fall in overseas student numbers with the introduction of full cost fees for overseas students. It was noted in Chapter 2 that a scholarship (the Pym Package) fund was subsequently introduced by the government to rectify the situation and attract students back to the UK.

5.4.4 The capping of the number of home and EU students

Higher education institutions have continued to try to recruit overseas students because the Higher Education Funding Council has reduced per capita funding for UK and EU undergraduate students. The numbers of home and EU students have been capped so that university departments cannot exceed the Maximum Aggregate Student Number (MASN). There are no limits on postgraduate and overseas student numbers and income from these sources has become integral to total core costs of many higher education institutions in the UK and 'subsidise UK and EU students and assist with paying staff salaries' (C.UNI.07AC). Higher education funding became more complex and universities became increasingly dependent on overseas student fee income. There were problems with relying on this income because there were many external factors beyond the control of higher education institutions such as the recent economic downturns in Asia. Therefore institutions were aware that they have to diversify their recruitment markets to deal with unexpected developments.

5.4.5 The creation of new universities in 1992

Many overseas governments were questioning the quality of UK universities especially since the re-designation of polytechnics as universities in 1992. The resulting new universities had less research income than the traditional universities as they were primarily teaching

institutions and therefore required other sources of income. New universities had been trying to increase their overseas student fee income but this caused concern. The Committee of Vice Chancellors and Principals (CVCP) issued guidelines on the level of fees as some new universities were offering lower fee incentives and non-conditional offers to attract a larger share of the overseas student market. Some overseas countries were suspicious of the lower fees because they felt that paying less than the average meant getting less than the best education (T.UNI.01AD).

5.4.6 Overseas student fees as a substitute for less government funding

Respondents perceived the Department for Education did not have a strong handle on internationalisation issues and that it was not on its list of high priorities. The Department for Education was viewed as only having an interest in internationalisation because, in the view of one administrator, it was a proxy for other forms of funding (R.UNI.03AD).

We have noted that the Department for Education has not explicated a definite policy on internationalisation and has left such policy definitions as exist to bodies such as the OECD and EU. Other central departments have a concern with some issues and we briefly relate them here.

5.4.7 Department for Employment policy on overseas student employment

The Department for Employment's policy on employment granted permission for some overseas students to work in the UK if they needed to self finance their studies due to the escalating costs. If overseas students were granted permission to work they are limited to 20 hours in term time and 40 hours in vacation time. Those with specialist skills could work in the university for up to six hours without permission. EU students did not have the same restriction if they need to work (R.UNI.02AD).

5.4.8 Immigration and Nationality Directorate policy on student employment

The Department for Employment's policy on overseas student employment was in conflict with the Home Office's Immigration and Nationality Directorate's (IND) policy. The DfEE had a more flexible view of employment than the Home Office which prohibits all employment. For example, the Home Office viewed internships as working but they were often unpaid so the Department for Education considered them more as work shadowing (T.UNI.06AD). Higher

education institutions often assisted overseas students with gaining permission for employment even though they are meant to have independent means.

5.4.9 Department for Trade and Industry and the export of educational services

The UK government, as through the DTI, was perceived to be keen to promote the international market in educational services because of the economic benefits. One academic remarked that the government had come rather late to the notion that 'there is an international market which is a multi-billion earner' (N.UNI.03SA). Another academic held the view that the government were 'capitalising on the fact that English is a world language and the reputation of British universities has been very good' (R.UNI.09SA).

The Department of Trade and Industry (DTI) had become more involved in 'exporting' UK higher education in recent years because in the view of one administrator 'it suddenly dawned on them how much revenue was generated from overseas students and ploughed back into the UK economy' (R.UNI.12AD). The DTI printed export service newsletters which they sent out to higher education institutions. The DTI had increasingly collaborated with the British Council. For example 'the DTI and British Council were running joint seminars (R.UNI.20AD).

5.4.10 Foreign and Commonwealth Office

The Foreign and Commonwealth Office (FCO) sponsored the British Council which was active in promoting internationalisation. British embassies often provided services to promote UK higher education such as hosting trade fairs and university alumni receptions (C.UNI.04AD).

The FCO assisted with internationalisation in terms of providing over 2000 'carrot' scholarships worth approximately £9.5m which helped to publicise UK higher education and bring together students from diverse backgrounds. Concerns were raised by some respondents about the recipients of the scholarship scheme and how some UK universities were favoured over others and received more scholarships (T.UNI.01AD). Scholarships were also often granted to overseas students who were already studying in the UK which one interviewee viewed as an inefficient use of funds. Another criticism was that while scholarships were theoretically given to developing countries, in actuality a number of recipients could afford to pay for themselves (T.UNI.01AD).

5.4.11 The British Council

The British Council was involved with marketing UK higher education

through the Education Counselling Service (ECS). Higher education institutions paid

subscription fees to the ECS each year and 50% was given by the Foreign Office to promote

UK education overseas. But many respondents were unsure whether the British Council was

funded by the government. The British Council promoted academic links and programmes.

Respondents observed that the British Council had recently been publishing much more

information regarding their services and were becoming increasing visible even though it had

existed for decades' (T.UNI.03AC). The British Council was active in searching for new markets

in the former Soviet republics, CEE, China, Thailand and India which cost much money

because the links with the UK were not long established as in Malaysia and Hong Kong

(T.UNI.03AD).

The British Council was however currently perceived as not being as neutral

about promoting higher education institutions as they were in the past. One interviewee

observed that the British Council was offering English language provision in collaboration with

certain universities which could lead them promoting those universities over others

(R.UNI.13AD).

The British Council was perceived by one administrator to be facing a dilemma in that it was

partly funded by universities and was required to maintain that higher education in Britain was a

quality experience and that all universities were essentially the same (R.UNI.20AD). It was

perceived to be becoming increasingly difficult to maintain this view in the face of what was

now well-publicised information concerning the Teaching Quality Assessments (TQA) and the

Research Assessment Exercise (RAE) ratings. Universities were making a great deal out of

good ratings when advertising overseas which the British Council was finding increasingly

difficult to ignore.

Therefore, the British Council had started to use TQA and RAE scores to reassure overseas

governments that UK higher education institutions were quality assured. One interviewee had

observed that the British Council had now noted that the Research Assessment Exercise

(RAE) and the Teaching Quality Assessment (TQA) have become so important that they were

now going to place greater emphasis on staff training and the use of the RAE in terms of

advising overseas students. Universities that had good RAE and TQA ratings were very

pleased with this but others who did less well had to find their own unique selling points (R.UNI.20AD).

5.4.12 The CVCP

The Committee of Vice Chancellor and Principals (CVCP) were taking a more active interest in terms of the European and international role by issuing their own guidelines and Codes of Practice to protect the reputation of UK higher education institutions.

5.4.13 UKCOSA

The UK Council for International Students (UKCOSA), like the CVCP, had published a pamphlet promoting a policy of responsible recruitment at UK universities which one recruitment officer described as 'good' because new universities were reducing offers and fees to attract students. One administrator considered this wrong because it would tarnish the reputation of all UK higher education if international students are under-qualified (T.UNI.05AD). UKCOSA also provided useful staff training courses for those who worked with overseas students. One student support officer described UKCOSA as a real lifeline as they organised training sessions called 'Stop Press' which dealt with all the major policy changes and their implications (R.UNI.02AD).

5.4.14 Research Councils

UK research councils had a different funding policy for EU students compared with other overseas students. One senior administrator noted deficiencies as UK research councils only pay studentship fees for EU nationals while overseas students had living expenses paid as well (T.UNI.09AD).

Not all academics, as we have noted, favour stronger efforts towards internationalisation. Those who do, expressed a range of ways in which they would like the UK government to influence these activities given in Table 2 below:

Table 2: Views of stakeholders in higher education on possible future government policy on internationalisation

What higher education would like the UK government to do in the future	Government department/agency concerned

Provide a more coherent policy on international students	Department for Education (DfEE)
More scholarships for students from the poorer Commonwealth countries	Foreign and Commonwealth Office (FCO)
Remove differential fee restrictions for international students	Department for Education (DfEE)
Simplify/improve international student visa authorisation process	Immigration and Nationality Directorate (IND) of the Home Office
Rationalise and coordinate international marketing of educational services	British Council, Department for Trade and Industry (DTI) [Inter-departmental co-operation]
Provide international work placements for UK students	Department for Employment [in conflict with the IND of the Home Office]
More support for academic mobility programmes	British Council
More student exchanges	Department for Education
More funding for international scientific and technological co-operation	International Development Agency (IDA)
Encourage inter-university research collaboration	Research Councils
Provide incentive grants to support international content in the curriculum	Department for Education
International student training programmes leading to employment	IDA/FCO
Development and Culture projects	Department of Culture/IDA
Ensure that quality and standards of UK higher education system meet international standards	Quality Assurance Agency (QAA)
Sign international agreements in support of mobility and equivalence of credentials	Department for Education
More involvement in the Commonwealth, EU, OECD, UNESCO	Department for Education
Reinforce foreign language teaching	Department for Education

5.5 THE INFLUENCE OF OTHER STAKEHOLDERS

5.5.1 Employers

Employers' concerns were about the international competences of UK students rather than the treatment of overseas students. Respondents thought that the competencies most required by employers of new UK graduates were a specific knowledge base and a general understanding of international issues as well as intercultural skills. All stakeholders stressed the need to prepare graduates to live and work in a highly globalised and competitive and information-based business environment. Knowledge of a foreign language was consistently seen as relatively minor as English was viewed as the language of business. Employers were also perceived by higher education as not necessarily requiring graduates to have experience of working or studying in another country, as perhaps such experience or training seminars may be provided when graduates were in employment.

At the same time, employers were concerned that the international reputation of UK higher education was maintained and that MBA programmes develop an international focus. Only one institution (Lancaster) was actively working in partnerships with companies overseas. The Management School were working with firms in Malaysia and Thailand to provide training for UK MBA students, and were collaborating with French and German companies to organise joint seminars, conferences and short training courses.

When respondents were asked if employers could assist with the internationalisation of higher education many suggestions were put forward of how they could act in partnership with higher education institutions. Examples included providing work placements for UK students abroad; providing financial support on joint international research projects; fund chairs in international studies; serve on advisory panels for international curriculum development; sponsor awards for the internationalisation of the curriculum; provide scholarships for overseas academics to study in the UK; provide scholarships for UK students to study overseas; provide training of executives from overseas; promote and accredit international business credentials; co-operate rather than compete with the higher education sector in terms of educating and training executives and promote and export UK higher education services abroad.

5.5.2 Policies of overseas governments

Policies of overseas governments had an impact on the internationalisation policies of UK higher education institutions which resulted in the need to diversify recruitment markets due to other competitors for international students. Australia and New Zealand had become more aggressive and professionalised in the global market recruiting international students from the Far East which had been a traditional recruiting area for UK institutions. Australia and New Zealand had placed emphasis on significant pastoral care and were now competitors with the UK and USA.

Other significant policies which had reduced the number of international students were the Malaysian government's policy of offering tax breaks to parents who did not send their children overseas to study at undergraduate level; undergraduate Malay Malaysians not being offered government scholarships to study overseas and the building of more indigenous universities. However, Malaysia still required overseas postgraduate courses to increase the number of lecturers at home.

5.6 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

This section has enumerated the diverse national policies that affect the institutional approach to internationalisation. Although many government departments have a concern with internationalisation, it is not a key issue for them and no overriding policy emerges from them. There is no coherent determination of the desirable number of overseas students and their impact on home students, or the resources allowed to cater for them and even less for the educational and pastoral provision made for them. This can be justified in terms of the classic assumptions about state-university relationships in which institutional values and operations follow an institution's own perceptions of strengths and objectives. However, this perspective must be modified by the fact that governmental interest has increased, if only for economic reasons, even if that interest is not translated into coherent and determinate policies. Institutional leadership, too, is likely to be more prone to promote internationalisation than those at the academic base. Overseas students help ensure the viability of some, otherwise, failing departments but it is general policy to rationalise weak parts of the system.

Respondents from higher education did not feel particularly influenced by a UK government policy on the internationalisation of higher education. In their opinion, much more influence came from supranational government, the European Union (EU), with its policies on mobility programmes, language programmes, development programmes and systems of credit transfer and international agreements such as the Bologna Declaration (1999). However, respondents referred to numerous UK government departments that were involved in internationalisation including the Treasury, the joint ministry of the Department for Education and Employment (DfEE), the Foreign and Commonwealth Office (FCO)/ the British Council, the Department for Trade and Industry (DTI) and the Immigration and Nationality Directorate (IND) of the Home Office. The departmental policies are not co-ordinated and respondents felt that there should be a more coherent government policy overall as no one knew what the government's view on internationalisation was. There was conflict of policy on student employment between the Immigration and Nationality Directorate and the Department for Employment. Many respondents were critical of collaboration between the Department for Trade and Industry and the British Council.

CHAPTER 6: QUALITY ASSURANCE FOR INTERNATIONAL DIMMENSIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

6.1 EVALUATION OF OVERSEAS COLLABORATIVE LINKS OVERSEAS

In Chapter 5 we noted that government policy on internationalisation was not substantial. The most significant general policy development in higher education in the UK in recent times has been the introduction of the Higher Education Quality Council (HEQC) and latterly the Quality Assurance Agency (QAA) which is a joint body of HEFCE and the CVCP and responsible for the Teaching Quality Assessments (TQAs). The affects this had on internationalisation of higher education follow.

6.1.1 Codes of Good Practice and the Country Audit

The QAA has introduced Codes of Good Practice and the quality audit of overseas countries and institutions with which UK higher education institutions have connections in terms of collaborative provision. Higher education institutions have led the agenda on internationalisation and the UK government and its agencies have only latterly developed policy to establish quality controls on some institutional practices which are tarnishing the high reputation of UK higher education institutions in the international market (C.UNI.17AD).

The QAA have a critical policy view on the evaluation of the international dimension (R.UNI.13AD). The Quality Assurance Agency produce annual reports on the activities of institutions of higher education as well as more detailed country reports. The first Code of Practice was published in 1995 by the then Higher Education Quality Council (HEQC), and the second one in 1996. A third edition was produced after the implications of the Dearing Report in 1997.

6.1.2 Need for written documents

The formalisation of institutional policies is illustrated by the forming of the one university committee (at Lancaster) which 'coincided but was actually a coincidence with a much greater effort on the part of the HEQC to do something about quality assurance in terms of internationalisation' (R.UNI.13AD). The Codes of Practice were meant to 'police' activities of universities overseas. The government was insisting on written documents and more quality assurance and 'this immediately meant that the universities would have to start having written

. statements in this area as in many others' (R.UNI.13AD). The committee took on a quality assurance role by examining possible partnerships with other countries and institutions.

The QAA became involved in policy after there were unfavourable press reports regarding some universities and their collaborative provision arrangements of dubious quality with overseas partners. However, despite this, one academic observed that 'the general perception is that UK higher education is expensive but still of undoubted quality. This is a good thing in terms of the maintenance of the quality of degrees and selectivity and is something the QAA were concerned about upholding as the situation was getting out of control' (R.UNI.20AD).

6.1.3 QAA's country audits

Two universities in this study, Lancaster and Brunel, had been evaluated by the QAA on their degree programmes with international dimensions. At the time of interviewing the QAA were in the process of visiting India for the first time as part of their country audits. India was new territory for UK higher education as well as the QAA so both sides had much to learn. An example of this type of country audit follows:

> The QAA went to evaluate Lancaster University's link with an institute in Bangalore, India was a minor link as Lancaster was one of six institutions forming a consortium for a Masters. This demonstrated the seriousness of the business and the rigour surprised people. What the university was doing in India was pioneering and there were teething problems. It was challenging the QAA's Code of Practice because it was making moves the QAA had not thought of, or no one thought of, so it may have to be reviewed' (R.UNI.13AD).

The HEQC and QAA have made other country visits to Singapore, Malaysia and Greece. According to one higher education administrator, the QAA have been so concerned about being seen to establish controls to protect the reputation of UK higher education institutions that misunderstandings about the nature of link had developed. An example of this follows:

> Brunel University 'had a lot of trouble with the QAA on the distance learning MBA in Singapore which was first rate, so the university fought them tooth and nail and forced them to re-write the negative report because they were wrong. It was the first time the QAA group went overseas and they went out being highly sceptical because of bad publicity relating to some other universities. They misunderstood the relationship between the university and the Henley Management College. They were almost too concerned about process rather than substance. They considered the link was a validation agreement

but it was not. It was much more than this - the college was effectively the management school of the university' (T.UNI.08AD).

Greece was also another overseas country audited by the QAA because of concerns about collaborative arrangements with UK higher education institutions. One administrator observed that the QAA had been interested in overseeing what is happening in Greece. This was partly for the sake of Greek students, and partly for the sake of the reputation of UK higher education in Greece, 'to check the UK was not just in for the money' (R.UNI.19AD). However one administrator questioned the impartiality of the audit panel which went to evaluate links in Greece and was surprised because the chairperson was a senior person at X university which he thought was one of the operations that needed investigating in Athens (R.UNI.13AD).

6.1.4 Recommendations of Dearing and concerns over franchising

The Dearing Report examined the quality of provision beyond the UK because of many well publicised disasters damaging the reputation of UK higher education overseas but did not 'distinguish between validation and franchising. Collaborative provision is used as a global term so until it becomes clearer it is hard to know exactly what the implications are' (R.UNI.18AD). A recommendation from Dearing resulted in 'the QAA saying no course may be franchised after 2000 unless the QAA have given prior permission' (R.UNI.03AD). The Dearing Report recommendations on quality assurance fell in line with the QAA and were perceived by one interviewee as being part of the QAA's hefty Code of Practice (R.UNI.13AD).

Lancaster University was trying to move away from franchising completely as it had connotations of being at the lower end of the higher education market as well as being of dubious quality (R.UNI.20AD). Another administrator at a different university agreed that 'in the post-Dearing era we will have to fight even harder to establish ourselves at the quality end of the market at home and overseas. We have not gone down the road of franchising even though we have several offers a week from places like Greece, Korea and Thailand. We have to be sceptical because I have seen the damage it is doing to British higher education in other parts of the world at the moment' (C.UNI.03AD).

6.2: THE USE OF THE RAE AND TQA

6.2.1 Overseas governments use of RAE and TQA to assess quality of provision

Due to the large financial investments one administrator noted that sponsoring governments were keen to find the best place and use the Research Assessment Exercise and the Teacher Quality Assessment to draw up their own lists (N.UNI.04AD). Sponsoring governments were becoming ever more sophisticated 'and will not send scholarship students to any departments below a 5* or 5, so *de facto* the Research Assessment Exercise is becoming a very, important thing' (R.UNI.20AD). Far Eastern countries were particularly concerned with status and rankings. For example, Singapore and Malaysia produced their own lists of what they considered to be good university departments in law and engineering. One academic observed that they were now influenced by the Research Assessment Exercise ratings and that 'law departments with a four or five are doing better on these lists' (T.UNI.16SA). Teaching and research quality ratings therefore placed emphasis on different standards of education while at the same time reassuring overseas governments about high quality of provision.

With the introduction of quality assessments, overseas students were now able to determine what kind of education they would get in return for their fees and the Dearing Report encouraged this. One administrator considered the Dearing recommendations as improving quality, having clearer guidelines and standards which would be beneficial to all international students (N.UNI.04AD).

The Teaching Quality Assessment (TQA) seemed to have less of an impact initially but this is perceived to be changing. The earlier ratings of 'excellent', 'satisfactory' or 'unsatisfactory' were seen as not discriminating enough but there seemed to be more of an impact after the introduction of numerical scores out of a total of 24 (R.UNI.03AC). However the idea behind the TQA was not to provide league tables but a powerful piece of in-house cleaning. Therefore, making ratings public was perceived by one academic as not being helpful to the international market in institutions (N.UNI.05SA).

However one academic questioned whether 'quality' of provision was really being assessed with the TQA because of the distortions it created on such factors as teacher-student contact time were largely ignored. In their view of one academic, the TQA rewarded observables which meant departments over produced on them and under produced on the actual things which

was significant in terms of quality (C.UNI.07SA). The UK higher education system has always been valued for students actually being able to see a lecturer rather than a graduate teaching assistant. An additional criticism was that incentives had changed and all universities now had to carry out research that detracted from the time spent preparing for teaching (C.UNI.07SA).

6.2.2 The TQA and the international dimension

The Teaching Quality Assessment of academic departments examined the experience of all students including those from overseas. One academic suggested that this meant the TQA team examined what the department was doing differently in terms of helping students with improving their language skills and adjusting to a different educational culture. Therefore it was important for departments to be seen to be doing something (R.UNI.03AC).

The TQA also examined how academic departments prepared UK students going abroad which included having the necessary prerequisite courses contained within the curriculum to assist with their studies in abroad. One modern languages department had not included a European Studies dimension in the curriculum due to financial reasons. Therefore the TQA in modern languages noted that while the year abroad was important to reinforce cultural stereotypes it was critical of the department's preparation of UK students going abroad. Areas of overall concern were the curriculum; the composition of learning groups and other pedagogical aspects, and the low numbers of students spending time in other countries (R.UNI.04SA). Institutions were economically driven and this had an impact which had resulted in little change to the curricula between the 1980s and 1992.

Respondents made an important differentiation between the perceptions of individual overseas students and the perceptions of overseas higher education institutions. One institution had considered whether ratings had an impact. It was perceived that at the individual student level ratings did not have an impact, but did where there were institutional agreements with Japan and the USA for JYA programmes (C.UNI.06AC). Another significant differentiation was found between the perceptions of undergraduate and postgraduate students. Undergraduates students did not generally discuss the Teaching Quality Assessment as they did not really know what the assessment involved (C.UNI.17AC). However, overseas postgraduates examined the Research Assessment Exercise ratings closely which meant they were influenced more by the reputation of a department rather than the reputation of an institution as a whole (C.UNI.18AC).

The TQA and RAE ratings were not the only criteria of quality that influenced prospective students. There were other factors such as reputation, expertise and personal recommendations. One academic did not have a clear perspective that overseas students used ratings because they were influenced by reputation. Therefore Oxford and Cambridge were always going to be popular because overseas students were influenced by expertise and specialisms (N.UNI.05SA) research contacts and personal recommendations (C.UNI.02AD). TQA ratings add to the list of useful information about an institution and prospective students and their sponsors will use every piece of information before they make such a considerable financial investment (C.UNI.19AD).

6.2.3 Research Assessment Exercise

The Research Assessment Exercise (RAE) was perceived to have had more of an impact than the TQA because it provided a brief overview or 'snapshot' of quality and was easier for external bodies to assess than teaching (R.UNI.03). One external group for which the RAE was perceived to have had the most impact on was overseas governments (C.UNI.19AD). Some respondents perceived the RAE to have had an significant impact especially on academic departments receiving the highest rating of 5* in the RAE. It made a difference to their reputation, profile and recruitment overseas but it was crucial to maintain it so it could be publicised widely (R.UNI.06AD). The RAE ratings were, however, perceived to have had less of an impact on the elite universities compared with new universities because of their prevailing reputation as 'everyone knew who was top in the field before the RAE' (C.UNI.07SA)

The new universities tended to get lower research ratings than the traditional universities in the RAE because of their history as teaching institutions. The only new university in this study, UWE, therefore, observed that RAE especially in places such as Singapore and Malaysia had perversely influenced international student recruitment more than the TQA which was unfortunate because the TQA scores were good (N.UNI.02SA). However, overseas sponsoring governments were perceived to be becoming more sophisticated in their analysis of quality assessments. They were aware that the new universities had good vocational courses to offer and were managing to get beyond the Research Assessment Exercise (C.UNI.19AD).

6.3 UNOFFICIAL LEAGUE TABLES

6.3.1 Unofficial composite leagues tables in the press

The UK press published influential unofficial league tables of higher education institutions which were read widely overseas. *The Times* and *The Sunday Times* produce composite league tables focusing on certain issues which one academic considered a form of policy making (C.UNI.19AD). Press leagues tables were having an impact because more information was filtering down through composite league tables to parents overseas even the tables often took a narrow angle (C.UNI.19AD).

Due to the rapid expansion in the number of higher education institutions in the UK and 'massification' of student numbers, these unofficial composite league tables of hierarchies of institutions or 'divisions' analogous to football leagues had emerged prominently in the UK and some overseas press. The TQA and RAE ratings were translated into league tables which provided easily readable snapshots of institutions.

Some overseas cultures, particularly in the Far East, are concerned with status and these league tables have become more important in identifying the top universities. Therefore what happened in the Far East with informal lists of top universities has developed in the UK. There are publications mailed such as *The Top Ten UK Universities*, *The Top Ten Teaching Universities* and *The Top Ten Research Universities*. Everyone takes note of these rather than the TQA or RAE documents in full because it is all they can manage to take in. Hierarchies of universities have become more explicit so there is no longer a level playing field but a pecking order. There is now the 'Premier Division' of UK universities equivalent to the U.S. 'Ivy League' or the French 'Grande Ecoles' which matters to some cultures but more in our own now too. 'The way perceptions are hardened into truth from these league tables and become folk law is the most interesting' (C.UNI.17SA).

UK higher education institutions now use advantageous TQA and RAE ratings and press league tables to publicise their institutions and academic departments in their prospectuses for overseas markets. One university in this study, Lancaster, was included in the *Top Ten of Research Universities* and 'we push that for all it is worth overseas' (R.UNI.20AD). One department put in the prospectus that they received a 5* in the RAE and informed people 'it is top marks' to make it easier for them to understand. The TQA scores were also put in the

prospectus because it sounded good and people assumed teachers were being assessed even though most of the time is spent talking to students (C.UNI.03AD).

6.4 OTHER ISSUES AROUND QUALITY

6.4.1 The challenge of providing quality provision with less resources

Hierarchies of UK institutions were emerging in the education market which were directly linked to the uneven distribution of resources by the UK government. One academic observed that 'it is still the official line that there is a standard UK product but even amongst universities there are sub-groups emerging which could lead to a new style binary system emerging from the pecking order' (C.UNI.17SA). Overseas sponsoring governments are becoming more demanding in the market and want value for money now 'because they felt the UK was taking the money and running and not supplying the goods' (T.UNI.06AD).

6.4.2 Quality of education at UK HEIs

Overseas governments increasingly recognised that not all UK universities were of the same quality 'even though the UK government claim old and new universities are the same' and therefore overseas governments were 'essentially drawing up their own league tables' (C.UNI.03AD). Another administrator held the view that the UK government 'can no longer pull the wool over the eyes of foreign governments in a patronising ex-colonial way' (T.UNI.06AD).

The complexities of maintaining standards at a time of harsh financial realities has resulted in a higher education system that is changing and adapting. One academic considered quality of provision a significant issue: 'I think it depends on what you mean by quality but quality is what is at stake. Within the system as a whole there is a change of ethos. The system is actually being transformed, not always particularly consciously and not always for the right reasons' (C.UNI.18AD).

6.4.3 Maintaining high standards for admission

There have been concerns about the standards as more students from overseas have been recruited for financial reasons. However, many respondents compared the changing overseas student population to the changing home student population as more students were recruited to meet government targets for funding. One academic considered what the effects might be on quality if UK universities took more overseas students: 'One can take the view that international students do not come with the same level of knowledge as the traditional UK student. Thus to

incorporate them and respond to their needs standards will drop because you are taken on a bigger field. However, another way of looking at it is saying the terrain is changing everywhere and the kinds of home students being introduced to higher education is different so departments have to respond to the changing population. This is a more positive way of looking at it because you are comparing like with like' (C.UNI.18AD). Another respondent made a similar comment: 'it isn't just the case that universities are recruiting poor quality overseas students but also poor quality home students from access courses to meet certain targets' (C.UNI.20AD).

One academic at a traditional university pointed out it was vital that the university did not lower its admissions standards to meet targets as in the long term in would result in a loss of reputation: 'we have the choice to say no because we have more resources than the new universities who have to keep making people redundant'. So they might do things differently if people can be enrolled on the programme in the short run. However, as the Abraham Lincoln saying goes 'you can fool the people some of the time, but not all the people all the time' so one likes to think that prospective students have good information' (C.UNI.07SA).

6.4.4 Issues of equating quality at overseas institutions

There were many cross-cultural issues concerning quality for outgoing UK students in terms of equating the transfer of course marks and credits which has acted as a constraint to building in an international dimension into the UK student experience. One academic pointed out the problematic implications of credit transfer requiring an underpinning with quality assurance: 'who is going to quality assure a year in France? It will never meet the equity code of practice of the QAA because it is a different system. In German universities you cannot be an external examiner unless you have taught the course so you cannot have your course vetted by somebody outside its delivery and that's just the tip of the iceberg' (C.UNI.16SA).

6.4.5 Cross-cultural quality issues for incoming students

There were also significant cross-cultural quality issues for incoming students from overseas. One academic noted that there is a lack of precise equivalence between qualifications. For example, 'an American BA is measured in grade point averages (GPAs) but a GPA from Harvard is very different than one from X College no one has heard of ' (C.UNI.16SA). Thus there are considerable quality problems for incoming and outgoing students in terms of degree equity.

6.4.6 Quality concerns of the overall student experience

Overseas students were also looking beyond the quality of education to broader quality issues related to student life in general. One academic observed that people's expectations about quality are changing and the demands are changing because of the current funding formulae. They are asking what benefit they will acquire from their degree and students are looking for increasingly sophisticated forms of experience such as societies, clubs and sports facilities but also have vocational concerns such as relevance. 'As there is such a spin the question of quality becomes increasingly muddled' (C.UNI.18SA).

6.5 CONCLUSION

The introduction by the QAA of Codes of Practice and the quality audit of overseas countries and institutions with which UK HEIs have collaborative links is the most significant policy development affecting the area of internationalisation. Initially, the state gave institutions the autonomy to formulate their own policies on internationalisation in the classic state-university relationship but has since introduced policies to ensure the good reputation of UK HE is maintained. Referring to Clark's triangle of the co-ordination of forces, and Van der Wende's extension of it, this has resulted in a shift of power away from academic oligarchy towards the state and market forces.

Overseas governments and sponsors increasingly recognised not all universities are of the same quality and welcomed the quality controls to help determine what kind of education would be provided in return for their fees. They were using TQA and RAE ratings as guides to determine quality, but more often, the unofficial newspaper league tables which simplify the complex reality. Institutions themselves were publicising good ratings in their promotional material.

There was a tension within institutions ensuring quality provision with less funding and resources. Institutional ambitions for internationalisation were not the sole reason for a sharpening of quality assurance procedures (it was also related to accountability). However, internationalisation certainly lent more urgency to it as the quality ratings became increasingly important for overseas marketing purposes because they demonstrated that assessment mechanisms were in place in the UK.

CHAPTER 7: INSTITUTIONAL PLANNING AND STRUCTURES

This chapter reveals that higher education institutions are developing comprehensive strategies to manage the process of internationalisation. This commenced when full-fees for overseas students were first introduced in 1980 (Woodhall, 1989: 142-159) and overseas student numbers initially fell. Since then overseas student numbers have increased substantially beyond pre-1980 full-fee levels which has meant that internationalisation strategies have not only been strengthened but increased.

7.1   THE PLANNING PROCESS

7.1.1 Mission Statements and Strategic Planning for internationalisation

Increasingly in recent years higher education institutions have produced mission statements and these have referred to the importance of the international dimension in teaching and research. Out of the four universities in this study only one did not mention internationalisation as part of their strategic plan for the future (UWE), and only two explicitly used the word 'international' in their mission statements. Most universities contain explicit statements regarding the need to recruit higher numbers of full fee paying international students. Typically, a percentage of international students (usually around 10%) is stated as desirable out of the overall university student population. Increasingly, however, university plans state what they do, or plan to do, to support international students while they are studying at the institution. Woodhall's study in 1989 noted this also. Detailed university statements can be found in Appendix 3.

UWE did not refer to international activities in its mission statement because of other institutional priorities such as serving the needs of the local south-west region of England but there was evidence of international activities at the university proving that 'practice is more important than policy statement'. It was not in financial difficulties and this may account for why the university was not as proactive in recruit full-fee paying students from overseas as the other higher education institutions. Again, even though Brunel University did not refer to international activities in its mission statement which was general in nature, it did refer to them in strategic planning documents. However, in the view of some administrators, although no academics raised the point, written policy statements were becoming more prevalent.

At one university (Brunel) even though strategies were articulated by senior management some administrators and academics felt that there was little communication or guidance provided to administrators to carry out the policy. Therefore the connection between the university and its units and departments may still need strengthening. One administrator was concerned that 'no one in senior management has ever set a target for student recruitment in terms of generating revenue or numbers. This is a failure of university management. It makes it difficult to assess performance in student recruitment because there is no yardstick. As taxpayers we should question this' (T.UNI.06AD). An academic at the same institution had similar concerns about the lack of communication between staff, 'there is a lack of policy on admissions and little guidance from the powers that be and yet we have to be responsible in terms of recruitment and equating overseas qualifications' (T.UNI.15SA). The same academic had difficulty upholding institutional policy, 'sometimes there are problems with policy from the centre as the overseas brochure does not live up to its accommodation guarantees and I have to fight the contents which is difficult' (T.UNI.15SA).

Institutional policy is mainly centred on recruiting as many full fee paying international students as possible to make up for lack of funding from the government. This is often related to an increasing concern with the need to maintain quality while recruiting more students due to quality assurance assessments and codes of practice.

7.1.2 Existence of policy at Faculty and Departmental level

Most policy statements were at the central university level as mentioned above, with fewer at the faculty level and rarely any at the departmental level. Lancaster University's Management School had a written policy document on internationalisation which covered a wide number of issues such as international student recruitment, institutional partnership agreements, developing international networks, development of new academic programmes collaboratively, international research links and encouraging staff development with an international focus. Brunel's Faculty of Technology had written policy documents focusing on recruitment of international students and a specially prepared document for Irish students being admitted with the Irish Leaving Certificate.

7.1.3 Recruitment Targets

The broad aim of three of the universities in this study was to recruit 10-15% of international students out of the overall student population on campus. Lancaster and Royal Holloway had

already achieved this, and exceeded it in some years, but Brunel University was catching up after actively entering the international market later. UWE had no recruitment drives and a population of 3% of international students. No universities in the study had established precise recruitment targets, which some administrators involved in the recruitment process criticised. In their view this demonstrated poor management as they did not know whether their recruitment efforts were successful. However, management insisted setting recruitment targets could lead to inflexibility if there was over-recruitment in some disciplines and under-recruitment in others so it was best in their view not to quote targets to be reached or not exceeded.

7.1.4 Review of policy and budgets

Lancaster University international activities and budgets had been reviewed as part of a systematic review of all universities policies and it was decided that the International Committee be replaced by a less powerful International Steering 'Group' as the university had developed financial problems due to university officers having too much power. At Brunel University a review of the budget allocation for the international officer and office was carried out by the Strategic Planning and Resources Committee and it was decided that the budget allocation was successful in terms of recruiting more students and would continue until the unit was self-financing.

7.1.5 Budgetary provision

Respondents said that central funds had been allocated for international student recruitment and marketing, an international officer and/or international unit. More and more funds are being allocated at a time when there are more financial constraints which was significant. At the faculty and departmental level often funds allocated were short-term and not part of annual budgets or plans.

7.2   IMPLEMENTATION OF POLICY

7.2.1 Steering committees/groups for formulating and discussing policy on internationalisation
The configuration of committees and individual roles concerned with internationalisation reflects on the extent to which internationalisation affects the distribution of power and influence within the universities. This point is elaborated on later (section 7.6.1). All the universities in the study had steering committees or groups to discuss international policy matters but particularly overseas student recruitment issues. Each university managed the policy in varying ways. These were usually chaired by senior academics such as the Pro Vice-Chancellor of Promotion and Marketing (Lancaster) or the Vice-Principal for Academic Development (RHUL) and membership often consisted of Dean of the Graduate School (Lancaster), Dean of Research (RHUL) and the College Secretary (RHUL) or Academic Secretary (Brunel). Often sub-groups were formed by academic and academic-related staff with a special interest in one particular region such as the North American Group:

Lancaster University had the longest history of forming committees or groups
to steer internationalisation issues through the university policy-making system and it was the only institution to include 'international' in the title of their steering groups or committees (see Appendix 2 for chronology of Lancaster's international groups)

Royal Holloway did not have an International Committee to discuss internationalisation issues but did have other fora such as the Overseas Student Recruitment Group (OSRG) (for more details of Royal Holloway's international groups please refer to Appendix 4).

At Brunel University, the Strategic, Planning, Action and Resource Committee (SPARC) chaired by the Vice-Chancellor discussed international matters within its much broader remit, and the Academic Secretary was also a member of this committee. There was no separate international committee so the International Student Recruitment Office was solely responsible for reporting to the SPARC committee. The university did not think it was necessary to have an international committee or group.

The University of the West of England (UWE) also did not have an international group or committee but did have the Faculty Overseas Recruitment Advisory Group. The Advisory Group is a collection of academics with experience in international recruitment. It was designed

to bring all ad hoc faculty activities together in a useful way and recognise the common ground so there was no possibility of colleagues in different faculties turning up to the same exhibitions which was happening before co-ordination. This group put forward a proposal to have an International Office even though university management did not want to have one in the organisational structure. A compromise was reached with a part-time International Officer being placed in Admissions.

From this section it is clear that all the universities had established some type of group to consider internationalisation strategy, particularly recruitment and marketing activity. In the case of Lancaster University the committee had formal standing with representatives from all faculties, while at Royal Holloway it was a much more informal working group of senior academic staff. UWE had an 'advisory' group made up of academic staff members with international experience or an interest in international students.

Similar findings to Woodhall's earlier study were found where views differed in each university as to the value of different types of committee. Woodhall observed also that while some administrators 'favoured small, informal working groups rather than formal committees because they completed tasks rapidly and they allowed for a flexible and speedy response to the changing circumstances, and as membership was voluntary members were highly motivated and achieved many objectives. In contrast universities that had set-up formal committees were also thought valuable as they involved representatives of the entire university in international matters, and in some instances it was thought that committees structured in this way would have greater long-term influence over general policy regarding internationalisation' (Woodhall, 1989: 148-149).

7.3 PROCESSES AND STRUCTURES FOR INTERNATIONALISATION

The following section reveals that institutional attention towards internationalisation has become greater over time. All the universities in this study had made some internal administrative adaptions to co-ordinate internationalisation efforts. This has resulted in more structurated approaches which will be outlined in more detail below.

7.3.1 Major actors leading the process

A variety of individuals have some responsibility for internationalisation. There was a complex pattern of initiators in the internationalisation process because ideas and plans for internationalisation were often generated in a committee or working group, but it was not unusual for one or two individuals to have more influence in the process. At all the universities the key driving figures were consistently seen as the Vice-Chancellor, Pro Vice Chancellor/Vice President (Academic) and Registrars. Although International Office Directors were employed to have major responsibility for internationalisation, and certainly did have some influence on the direction of policy at their institution, none could be described as the main influential figure. This was because their appointment had usually arisen as a result of a conscious internationalisation strategy drawn up by an international committee or working group.

7.3.2 Support from senior management

Support from senior management was considered essential for building support both inside and external to the universities and thereby ensuring resources were available to promote internationalisation. Without support from senior management many felt internationalisation could not be achieved. At Lancaster the International Officer reported to the Academic Secretary and the Vice-President for Marketing was a co-opted member of the International Steering Group. At Royal Holloway two new Vice-Presidents were appointed and the Vice-President Academic chaired the Overseas Recruitment Group and the Vice-President (Research) was responsible for international research issues. The International and Educational Liaison Office reported to the College Academic Secretary. At Brunel the International Officer reported to the Strategic Planning, Action and Resources Committee which was chaired by the Vice-Chancellor. At UWE, senior management had not made international issues an institutional priority and were largely managed at faculty level. There were numerous references to the fact that internationalisation was being addressed in current strategic development plans and committees which gave the overall impression of a high level of interest

. in this area. Three out of four universities in this study were involved in strategic planning that included major internationalisation elements. Lancaster and Royal Holloway focused on integrating international dimensions into the core processes of research and teaching. Brunel University's emphasis was on international student recruitment and the internal structures and resources to support this such as the creation of a new international office and providing a start-up budget. UWE had not incorporated internationalisation into its strategic planning process because it was not considered a high priority and financially the university was doing well pursuing the current strategy of focusing on the local region. Therefore it appeared that internationalisation was not the stimulus for the planning but was part of it. It was a positive sign that internationalisation was being integrated into the core processes of teaching and learning and not being marginalised.

7.3.3   Organisational unit/dedicated officers (International Student Director/ Officer / Co-ordinator

Two universities visited had created an International Office committed to international students which encourages international students to apply for admission and through the support provided once enrolled (Lancaster and Brunel). However, two institutions had different structures (Royal Holloway and UWE); one of these was promoting a 'seamless' approach to home and international students (RHUL), while the faculties were responsibility for international students at the other (UWE). One faculty, a Management School (Lancaster) had its own International Office which co-existed alongside the university's central international office. For details on the creation of offices to manage internationalisation at each university please refer to Appendix 5.

7.3.4 The need for central administration and support

In the two institutions where international office existed, this resulted in more co-ordination and support for internationalisation activities and was welcomed by both administrators and academics. Although one university's management team (UWE) felt no International Office was necessary the Deans wanted more co-ordination to avoid duplication, be more professional, produce economies of scale and resources and said 'they must be the only university without an International Office in the country'. Co-ordination of international activity particularly in terms of exhibitions was needed so that everyone could act together and do a more professional job: 'the university did not have a corporate view of what was going on at all and it was embarrassing overseas because it looked like the university did not know what it was doing –

and of course we didn't' (N.UNI.04SA). The vice-chancellor believed not every university in the UK could expand its overseas market and has remained sceptical and conservative and the Deans have had a battle over this. The senior management team view was that an International Office would not reduce duplication but actually increase it, because the work of an International Office is already subsumed in the Admissions Office. The management believed more focus should come from a clearer explicit statement of internationalisation rather than a change in organisational arrangement. The vice-chancellor has been surprised at the expansion through faculty activity at UWE. This might be explained by UWE starting from a low baseline, but it might also be explained by UWE offering many academic specialisms and carving out their own niche. A compromise situation had been reached where the post of International Officer has been embedded within Admissions. When there was a completely separate review of admissions it was recommended that there be better co-ordination of international student recruitment. Some faculties also complained that support of students could be better because faculties have to provide these services locally as there were none provided centrally to make sure overseas students have a successful outcome to their studies. However the university is recruiting successfully regionally and does not need to go overseas (UWE).

7.3.5   The need for co-ordination in a shared process of admissions

One International Office (Lancaster) saw its role as 'co-ordinating and facilitating recruitment and not taking full responsibility and implementing everything because ultimately the academic departments are the recipients of students'. This non-direct approach was to enable departments to develop their own priorities and sharing of responsibility and accountability. However, one director of an international office thought 'it is necessary for the International Office to clearly articulate a process and to enthuse, inform and convince faculties and departments it is worth following an international path and pressure is also needed from management to make sure departments are doing what is necessary such as producing good quality publicity materials for marketing' (Lancaster). At Lancaster an initiative for the departmental audits to be conducted by the International Office came from the departmental/academic side. Due to financial pressures many departments were looking at their balance sheet and turning to the recruitment of international students as the only route to manoeuvre to generate more income and looking to the International Office to help them. Therefore departments which were not concerned with their international profile were now turning to the International Office and asking them to assist them. The International Office was

hoping to establish a rolling programme to identify departmental aims and aspirations. The Management School already had an International Office of its own and the Social Sciences faculty were forming an international group which has helped the International Office identify more easily who to contact and liaise with inside the faculty. Both sides mesh activities to avoid duplication and provide economy: 'Academics probably think why isn't the International Office doing more for us and the International Office is saying why don't these departments do what we need them to do so we can help them. There is always them and us, administrators and academics, civil servants and politicians' (R.UNI.13AD).

7.3.6 International Office created at faculty level

Only at one institution had a separate International Office been created at faculty level. The Management School has its own International Office at Lancaster University that resulted in easier communication with academics on an informal basis 'but some academics probably wonder why the International Office is here and are not aware of what it is doing, but in general they are positive'. Discussions are frequent with the MBA director about internationalising the curriculum but it was the opinion of the Director of the School's International Office that the Dean could not go to all staff members and ask them to consider doing this. The role of the active international office was described as follows:

a) to establish and maintain a finite network of institutional links, to remain in regular communication with partner institutions and to be responsive to their needs insofar as these are compatible with the strategic aims of the School;

b) to raise awareness of opportunities for co-operation with particular partner institutions and to keep an up to date and widely publicised record of the range of international activities taking place;

c) through contact with sponsors, graduates and the relevant international agencies to increase the number and quality of overseas and non-UK European students in line with agreed targets;

d) to assist academics as required in the preparation of bids for external support for international projects in the field of research and curriculum development where these projects are agreed to be in line with School strategy;

e) to liaise with other sectors of the university in the management of shared curricula particularly when these involve periods of study or work abroad;

f) to provide advice and support to incoming students from partner institutions abroad;

g) to report regularly to the Dean and to PVC on the progress of new initiatives and annually to the Management School on the development and strategic focus of Management School's activities in the international field;

h) to harmonise the School's priorities and activities with those of the University's International Office.

In addition to the management of institutional links, increasing international recruitment and the like, it was suggested that the scope of such an office could be widened to encompass everything external to the institution, including PR and Marketing, the image of the School, brochures and other promotional material, alumni association and the provision of an 'intelligence service' advising on opportunities for funding etc.

7.3.7 Decentralised approach to internationalisation due to different values

Comments varied on the merits of a decentralised approach to internationalisation. Respondents who were in favour of decentralisation tended to be academics who suggested decentralisation builds in commitment of academic staff because they have ownership of their programme and it is not a programme managed by others and, that a decentralised approach was a better reflection of the reality of the university environment of competing political concerns.

Academic staff had different priorities from the institution as a whole. One administrator noted that: 'Teaching is secondary to academics and research comes first. Academic departments generally do not like overseas students because it means more work, but some have also said that some overseas students have been among the best they have had. Some departments have asked us to help recruit and appreciate us being able to interview students overseas and make an assessment in their absence. Some academics have told us they are visiting a country and do we need any help but while they know a lot about courses they do not know a lot about the institution as a whole' (C.UNI.20AD).

At one university (UWE) the faculties have been moving forward on the issue of internationalisation while the centre had been more sceptical and saw all sorts of difficulties. 'But the university has a different set of responsibilities and I am sure some of those views have been entirely appropriate and have stopped some faculties doing inappropriate things at times' (N.UNI.05SA). Thus, the concept of a partnership was referred to by one senior manager: 'Internationalisation cannot solely be responsibility of the centre or departments. It must be a partnership. This university is very devolved and departments have a lot of autonomy in terms of decision-making and with budgets. Therefore even different

departments within the same faculty may see their futures differently. Even if it were possible to co-ordinate policy centrally, money and recruitment would still need to be provided by individual departments' (N.UNI.03AD).

There have been successful partnerships between academics and administrators bidding for European Commission funding. Administrators have assisted with budgetary aspects of bids and information about partner institutions and academics have completed parts related to academic research proposals. 'A combination of expertise was needed to get a significant sum of money' (R.UNI.15AD).

Other respondents indicated that fragmentation can lead to problems in coordination and that in the end, to be effective, decentralised units need to be effectively coordinated and managed from the centre: 'Ideally academics and administrators should share the same goals of promoting good teaching and research but academics will look at attracting students for research reasons, and administrators for resource reasons, because that is their *raison d'être*. So there is a slight difference in attitude' (R.UNI.17SA).

The overall sentiment regarding the decentralised approach to the management of international activities was that implementation at base unit level was acceptable, and even preferable, as long as there was co-ordination and monitoring at university-wide level. If co-ordination was deemed to be important, it was more a matter of the extent of centralisation or decentralisation, rather than an either/or case. This indicated the significance of creating an international office at the centre of a university to co-ordinate an international dimension.

In general academic freedom was considered as a positive factor in the internationalisation process but with some reservations, 'academic freedom is a facilitator allowing academics to pursue international interests but is also a problem in that those who are not interested must be convinced or co-opted and cannot be asked to change their focus of interest'. Administrators had the view that academics perceived they were all powerful but often in reality this was not the case: 'Academics always see themselves as ministers making decisions and administrators as civil servants implementing them but this is naive because politicians come and go and the civil servants remain. Senior administrators tend to stay in positions longer so have more clout to win battles with academics. An academic can be wrapped up in cotton wool by an administrator and find he cannot punch just like Humphrey in *Yes Minister!*' (R.UNI.13AD). An

administrator also had the view that academics considered themselves superior when it came to marketing: 'Academics are not always the best salesmen but in some status conscious countries some institutions will only speak to someone who has the title of Professor or vice-chancellor' (T.UNI.05AD).

7.3.8 Academics and their disciplines

The differences between academics in terms of internationalisation were related to the disciplines they teach. Some subjects such as Linguistics or International Relations attracted many international students and had international themes but subjects such as psychology do not. Therefore the departments that could attract more international students had more leverage with the centre as they could generate much needed additional revenue.

7.3.9   The host university and the powerful faculties

There were tensions between the centre of the university and Management Schools who were called upon to be 'cash cow' to subsidise other activities: 'to remain successful the Management School have to have the autonomy in decision-making to reinvest to stay ahead in the market and 'this is bound to set up tensions, jealousies and political power manoeuvring'. Other deans then want equal treatment to behave the same way so it is 'very messy and complex situation' (R.UNI.04SA). One member of a Management School felt that 'we do have a responsibility to cross-subsidise other departments in the short term' (C.UNI.07AC).

7.4 STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Brown and Atkins (1985) have highlighted the shortage of funding in UK universities for staff development activities (Rudzki, 1998: 208), a situation that has changed with the creation of the Higher Education Staff Developing Agency (HESDA) and the Staff and Educational Development Association (SEDA). Within the field of internationalisation, their findings can be extended to the following categories: the availability of facilities for staff to learn foreign languages; financial support for conference attendance; opportunities for research; the amount of time staff are allowed to work on publications; opportunities for staff exchanges; programmes and facilities to encourage guest speakers and lectures; support for foreign scholars attending a host institution; the secondment of staff to other posts; the availability of training in special skills such as teaching overseas students, setting up links or obtaining external funding; the encouragement of teaching a specialism; the recruitment of staff with overseas teaching and business experience and opportunities for undertaking consultancy and the way in which this adds value to what is taught (Brown and Atkins, 1985; quoted in Rudzki, 1998: 208-209).

According to Rudzki (1998) 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 but this is a situation which is changing given the recognition that the long-term effect on staff mobility has a greater impact on the teaching and research process than the mobility of students. The 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, DAAD and EAIE
- Staff training in the different approaches required for teaching foreign students especially when they are learning in a language other than their first language
- 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 and 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 and workshops

7.4.1 Staff training for academics and administrators

Some senior administrators had been overseas to study other higher education systems and found this useful, as well as attending conferences for senior managers. Departmental admissions tutors were critical of the lack of training provided for interpreting overseas qualifications, and would welcome training courses such as those offered for the variety of new post-16 UK qualifications: 'There are courses for keeping up to date with qualifications but not specifically international ones. The new UCAS handbook is good and I compare this with the NARIC one' (R.UNI.18AD) and 'a Diploma course in International Education is being run by UKCOSA in conjunction with the University of Nottingham' (T.UNI.07AD).

Academic staff would be more willing to enhance the international dimension in their courses and research if they were provided with study leave at periods convenient to them and their families and if they were given a remission from teaching and reimbursed for travel expenses. Some academics did not want to take on the additional responsibilities of teaching international students as they were not currently rewarded through the promotion structure. However, it was noticeable that more academic staff were being employed from overseas but this was for other reasons than internationalisation, and in particular the RAE.

There are groups of staff whose power by virtue of their position and expertise is the key to internationalisation. Rudzki observes that 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 European Association of International Education, which are currently:

a) ACE – Admissions Officers and Credential Evaluators

b) EBS – Economics and Business Studies

c) EDC – Educational Co-operation with Developing Countries

d) EEPC – European Educational Programme Co-ordinators

e) IRM – International Relations Managers

f) LICOM – Languages for Intercultural Communications and Mobility

g) SAFSA – Study Abroad and Foreign Student Advisors

h) SWING – Study, Work Placement and Internship Group

i) DEN – Distance Education Network

j) IAH – Internationalisation at Home

k) INTAL – International Alumni Relations

l) LILO – Lifelong Learning

m) NESS- Network of European Summer Schools

n) SOCRATES – European Action Programme in Education

Such a list of functions indicates the way in which the whole field of internationalisation is gaining in importance and becoming more complex in the implementation of activities (Rudzki, 1998: 201).

7.5   SUPPORT STRUCTURES

All four universities in this study recognised the importance of providing satisfactory support services to international students which included orientation programmes, on-campus accommodation, English language support, study skills classes and advice about such issues as student visas and employment law. In some cases there were social activities arranged for students and their families. For more details of each university's support structures please refer to Appendix 7.

7.5.1 UKCOSA

Many respondents confirmed that international students were happiest when they had received good information from institutions prior to arrival so they could prepare academically, as well as financially, for study abroad. Woodhall's 1989 study also found this. This was in line with UKCOSA's (UK Council for International Education) thinking which stressed the importance of provided detailed and accurate pre-arrival information and providing adequate support services during the whole period of study and not just for pre-arrival and arrival. Increasingly universities were providing a range of welfare and social services regardless of whether they were international or home students to promote equality.

7.5.2 Accommodation

All the universities in this study guaranteed on-campus accommodation for all first years regardless of whether they were from home or overseas. At Brunel University there were problems with the accommodation policy until a more typical seamless policy was promoted. On the initiative of the Vice-Chancellor accommodation was to be offered for all years for all international students. Then there was an abrupt U-turn back to a seamless policy and the university's international students viewed academics in departments as 'liars' because expectations were raised and guarantees written down in old brochures which had been reversed. There was a time lag with departments catching up with the new policy and 'such things are disastrous for our reputation'. The Accommodation Office considered a policy of on-campus accommodation for international students for all years had been impractical even though it was appreciated that the Vice-Chancellor was trying to recruit more overseas students. However they were concerned that such promises had been made as it seriously jeopardised the policy of accommodation for all first years as there was not enough rooms available. Overseas students were complaining that they paid more tuition fees and in return

expected a guarantee of a room on campus. Academic departments also complained to management that if accommodation was not provided to international students they would not be able to successfully recruit them. These students would go to other higher education institutions that provide accommodation for all years and would have adverse financial consequences on departments and the university overall.

Home students at Brunel University were resentful and complained about unequal treatment in terms of accommodation especially the homes students returning from work placements to complete their final year. Accommodation in their view seemed to be afforded more easily to international students. Home students were now more aware that international students are recruited for their money and not always because they are the brightest and this skewed their opinion of them.

Brunel University now advocated a policy of equality so that international students were treated in an equal manner to home students. Departments accepted this and did not try and go against the policy which was in line with the National Union of Students (NUS). The order of priority was that all new undergraduates and postgraduates were given accommodation (which includes overseas and exchange students), second priority was given to year four students while second, third and most final year three students were expected to live off-campus. This included international students which was considered a good policy because it enabled a more rounded experience of British life.

7.5.3 English language courses

Three universities in this study provided provision for extra English language tuition to enable students to successfully complete their studies. The only university which did not provide extra language courses was UWE. The length and structure courses varied. Some courses were short intensive courses taken before the commencement of a degree course and typically lasted 4-6 weeks. Specialist courses were also offered by certain Faculties such as English for Law students or English for Social Science students. Other courses were dealing with a specific language skill such as English for Academic Writing. Some courses were broader than English Language and covered study skills necessary in the UK higher education system or provided an introduction to living in British contemporary society (For more details of each university's provision, please refer to Appendix 7). The feedback that course directors received

from students was positive as many international students considered language problems as their top concern while they were studying in higher education.

7.5.4 Alumni Association

All the universities in the study had an alumni officer who mailed out an annual alumni magazine to students overseas and at home. Some alumni associations were active in countries where there were traditionally large numbers of alumni such as Hong Kong, Malaysia and Singapore. These alumni associations often welcomed and entertained visiting academics. Only at one university was an alumni magazine produced at faculty level (Lancaster Management School's Ambassador magazine). All universities now had alumni web pages that could be assessed overseas. Alumni associations served many functions apart from keeping in touch with former students. They were often used for recruitment purposes are former students offered provided personal recommendations to prospective students and these associations were often important in fund raising activities.

This section has revealed that universities were accommodating on physical provision and services. It can also be noted that this area might have caused tensions with home students. It can be observed that in the post-1980 period universities were conscious of the need to provide better social and welfare facilities especially at a time when other English countries which were in direct competition with the UK in the market. Countries such as the USA, and most especially Australia, were enhancing their support services at that time. Since then UK students have also started to pay partial fees, so more frequently home and international students are sharing the same services so that institutions are seen to promote equality in line with the policies promoted by the National Union of Students (NUS).

7.6   TASKS GENERATED BY INTERNATIONALISATION

In higher education institutions in general new structures have been developed to cope with new policies/practices and resulting shifts in power (Henkel, 2000). The tasks generated by internationalisation are listed in Table 3 below and although these tasks were all originally carried out by academics, there has been an increasing shift to the centre of the institution. As we have seen, there has been a greater institutionalisation of internationalisation policy.

Table 3: Tasks generated by internationalisation in higher education institutions

Marketing; recruitment; admissions	Academic tasks shifting in part to administrators
Educational tasks e.g. curriculum change and flexible delivery	Academic tasks
Institutional co-operation and partnership	Academic and administrative co-operation
Accommodation and welfare	Mainly administrative tasks
Allocation of resources	Academic and administrative co-operation

7.6.1 Power shifts

The centre had more power, particularly over departments that were under-recruiting but there was a relative change in power between different roles. The process of internationalisation relied on a division of labour between academics and administrators. Administrators were more concerned with managing the overall process of recruitment and ensuring that there were arrangements for assuring quality, while academics were concerned with admissions and making sure international students successfully completed their courses as part of their main roles as teachers. The preponderance of these tasks relied on co-operation rather than any 'hard' managerial set of relationships. International Committees usually contained academic members and administrators so that decisions were not made by one group.

7.6.2 Typical organisation of internationalisation

The organisation of internationalisation at institutions of higher education parallels the classic lines of authority. It creates policy related entities such as pro vice-chancellors with

internationalisation in their remit, directors of international offices and international offices. Not all institutions organise internationalisation structures in the same way but most felt it was necessary to now have a PVC, international officer or unit at the centre to liaise with deans, heads of department and other academics and develop and implement institutional policy. This meant that the academic lines were to some extent excluded from having an influence on policy unless the academics were represented on formal committees. Support from senior management was seen as essential for building support both within and outside universities, thereby ensuring resources were available to promote internationalisation. Without support from senior management many felt internationalisation could not be achieved.

7.6.3 Potential range of international office/officer roles

The International Office was there to implement university policy and not create it, as this was seen as the principal task of international committees or steering groups. International Officers were keen to advise and help departments that requested assistance but actually had little direct influence on the direction of international policy. Most International Officers viewed their role as implementing the policy formulated by the university steering committees.

7.7   CONCLUSION

This chapter revealed that universities are developing comprehensive strategies to manage the process of internationalisation. This has resulted in the creation of international groups or committees, international offices and academic and pastoral support structures. This commenced when full-fees for overseas students were introduced in 1980 and overseas student numbers initially fell. Since then overseas student numbers have increased substantially beyond pre-1980 levels which has meant that internationalisation strategies have been strengthened and intensified.

All the universities in this study had a clearly defined policy, which, at the minimum at UWE, declared the desirability of a certain level of intake while all other institutions set down measures for this be achieved. While most declared policies focused significantly on recruitment and market activities (refer to Chapter 8) policy was in transition and the objective was increasingly to integrate academic and social support for overseas students with that of home students.

International Offices did not take power from the academic side but a horizontal shift in influence occurred in respect of internationalisation from the academic lines e.g. Deans and Heads of Department to university steering committees advised by international groups. Internationalisation did not itself cause overall shifts in power but was one of many factors leading to the shift towards central management.

CHAPTER EIGHT: RECRUITMENT AND COLLABORATION

8.1 ESTABLISHING INSTITUTIONAL RECRUITMENT POLICIES

8.1.1 Recruitment as the principal focus of international education activities

Recruitment of international students who paid full fees was perceived by interviewees in all four universities as the principal focus of their international activities even though they all agreed that recruitment should be the outcome of a successful international strategy rather than its guiding principle. An international recruitment strategy should therefore primarily aim to improve the international education activities of an institution, as well as enhance its quality and reputation. In addition to the educational aspects, institutions were keen to emphasise that the cultural and social value of international students should not be underestimated.

8.1.2 Income stream independent of government funding

However, recruitment of international students, because of its income generating function, remained a key implicit objective for all four universities. In an increasingly competitive market universities were acutely aware of the need to position themselves firmly within the top group in the market. Building on the teaching and research ratings universities thought this could be achieved by:

    i)   maintaining entry standards, at both undergraduate and postgraduate levels;

    ii)   maintaining, and even improving, the quality of teaching, facilities and support services;

    iii)   capitalising on alumni goodwill.

Lancaster University widely publicised, for the purposes of recruitment, that it was included the *Top Ten Research Universities* pamphlet. At Royal Holloway full-fee paying overseas students were one of the major sources of non-HEFCE income. For example in 1996-97 £4.2 M from a total of 585 overseas students was raised. This income then became internalised in institutional resource models and fees were top-sliced to finance staff. Some academic departments were more successful at recruitment than others and received more income.

8.1.3 Recruitment and the establishment of a marketing policy

Institutions were strongly encouraged by their management teams to develop a properly costed marketing strategy, with investment in good quality promotional and publicity material. Universities identified that an advertising strategy was a key part of a marketing policy, even though it was costly.

8.1.4 Recruitment and the importance of alumni associations

Empirically personal recommendations, particularly from graduates, was a more powerful marketing strategy than were brochures or advertisements and some sections of the universities argued that university alumni activities therefore deserved a high priority. Alumni associations were therefore viewed as more than just a means of keeping in contact with former students, and were also seen as a way of enhancing international student recruitment and, in a few alumni branches in countries with traditionally high numbers of alumni, fund-raising. This policy was linked to the importance of former students (as well as parents, relatives and friends) who often gave personal recommendations to prospective students. Most recently the development of alumni internet sites and computer alumni directories had been a priority compared with mailing out an annual newsletter as alumni continued to be regarded as key ambassadors for any institution.

8.1.5 Recruitment and enhancement of institutional profiles

At Royal Holloway recruitment strategies were to be tied to corresponding strategies to ensure that quality was maintained. The College had the subsidiary aim of developing their international research profile to enhance the profile of the university. The college was conscious that high quality research led universities must increasingly be international in character, with staff collaborating with colleagues overseas and growing numbers of students spending part of their degrees in another country. Royal Holloway wanted to increase its number of overseas postgraduate students as they contributed to research selectivity and wanted to move away from the college being primarily seen as an undergraduate teaching institution. With a higher research profile the college would then be able to attract the best academics to improve RAE ratings.

8.1.6 Institutions recognised the need to promote 'responsible recruitment' policies

In 1987 the CVCP introduced a Code of Practice for the Responsible Recruitment of Overseas Students (UKCOSA also promoted a Responsible Recruitment policy in 1986 and the Code

had been adopted by all the universities in this study). As part of 'responsible recruitment' institutions accepted they were responsible for the information and services they provided to students, and well as being responsible for any problems students had with provision. UKCOSA also published *Guidelines on Good Practice* which all institutions referred to as well as acknowledging their usefulness. The universities recognised that having a responsible recruitment policy was important for developing a successful reputation because students who were not happy with the information or provision they received could influence future prospective students not to apply to an institution. Woodhall's earlier study in 1989 resulted in similar findings (Woodhall, 1989: 154).

8.1.7 Maintaining high entry standards

All the universities in the study sought to ensure that the overseas students recruited are academically well qualified and had a good command of English Language. Their policies are to admit students of the same standard as home students. This approach was generally followed by most academic departments. As a result, failure and attrition rates were perceived to be low and certainly no worse than for home students.

8.1.8 Need for pastoral care and support services

It was increasingly recognised by all the universities that strong and dedicated support structures were required to provide an appropriate level of care to the growing overseas student communities on universities campuses. Student Support Offices and Overseas Student Advisers provided in organisational structures gave a clear signal to students, the institutions from which they come and to their parents when recruiting that there would be effective pastoral care and support for students.

8.2   RECRUITMENT AND MARKETING STRATEGIES

8.2.1 The importance of the British Council

The British Council was an important source for accessing publicity materials for higher education institutions in the UK. Funding was provided through the Foreign and Commonwealth Office (FCO) to enhance the British Council's capacity to publicise British higher education overseas and to help British institutions with information about recruitment opportunities. British Council offices overseas were often the first source of information for prospective students and institutions regularly posted their prospectuses so that they were available overseas. The British Council gave advice to applicants and sent out their application to the relevant institution/department. It also regularly organised higher education fairs to promote UK higher education. Since 1984 the British Council has played a more active role, with the establishment of the Educational Counselling Service (ECS) and all the institutions in this study paid an annual subscription to the ECS.

8.2.2 Education fairs and the use of agents

In addition to the marketing activities of the British Council universities referred to other types of marketing activities, including organised promotional visits abroad and in one case the use of agents to recruit students internationally (e.g. Lancaster University had an agent based in New York). The lowest level of international marketing activity was found at UWE because it had a policy of marketing more in the region, which was derived from its former polytechnic status.

8.2.3   Increasing use of the internet

Universities were increasingly using the internet to target potential students, along with other forms of marketing and publicity materials such as sending out posters, prospectuses, course brochures and institutions being represented at education fairs.

8.2.4   Concentrating on student recruitment target countries

All the universities in the study except UWE had concentrated recruitment drives in certain regions. At Royal Holloway since 1990 three major regions and one subsidiary region had been targeted. The three main regions were: the Far East (Japan, South Korea and Taiwan), South East Asia (Hong Kong, Malaysia and Singapore) and North America (Canada and the USA). The subsidiary region identified by Royal Holloway was the Middle East (with emphasis on Cyprus and the Gulf States). In 1996-1997 new target countries China, Saudi Arabia and

Thailand were added. Royal Holloway came late to overseas recruitment so did not recruit as well from South East Asia. Where the college began recruiting at the same time as other universities such as the Far East, they were doing exceptionally well and better than other institutions. At Royal Holloway in 1996-97 some 70% of the college's overseas students were from target recruitment countries. Brunel and Lancaster Universities were targeting the same new countries, China and Thailand, but both had added Indonesia. Lancaster University had also started to recruit in India and Latin America.

8.2.5 The need for university staff to service target countries properly

Experience at institutions had shown that regular trips to target countries were important and resulted in the recruitment of more students. Staff were encouraged to complete appropriate arrangements in advance of trips, fulfil the necessary follow-up afterwards and become an identifiable country specialist. It was recognised that good recruitment trips should include more than just visits to education fairs and maintenance of contacts was important at other times. Further visits were also made to universities, colleges, schools, commercial fairs and postgraduate fairs. The British Council also ran specialist missions such as a Computer Science Fair in China and a Management Fair in Taiwan which institutions could participate in. At Royal Holloway a framework had been devised in a brochure, *Guidelines for Members of Staff Undertaking Trip Outside the United Kingdom* (1997).

8.2.6 Providing incentive schemes for academics departments

Royal Holloway was one example of where an incentive scheme for academic departments was able to obtain significant additional resources to support overseas students. In 1995-96 this scheme channelled over £599K to academic departments. Some departments did better than others through this such as the Management. Other departments were critical that this department was actually over-recruiting and the College was concerned about the possible damage to the College's reputation for years to come admitting an enlarged sub-standard cohort. Codes of practice were circulated from the centre of the institution but departments did not refer to them enough. Some departments were seen as becoming virtually autonomous taking over processes and responsibilities which had been more efficiently carried out centrally by the Educational and International Liaison Office and the Graduate School. However, the interface between them saw little communication. In some academic departments the role of Admissions Tutor was seen as a 'punishment' for a non-researcher diminishing the collective effort to admit high quality overseas students.

8.2.7 Offering student scholarships

At Lancaster University the encouragement of institutional links (in targeted countries) by the awarding of scholarships to young academics who were undertaking their doctorates provided a valuable opportunity to achieve recruitment as well as links. Royal Holloway had introduced an entrance scholarship, initially for undergraduates, but which had recently been made available to postgraduates. The original scheme provided each year three full-time awards and up to ten scholarships each worth £1000. In 1995 this was withdrawn in favour of awards of £4000.

8.2.8 Changing patterns of demand and the need to diversify markets

There were a relatively small number of target countries, most of which were concentrated in the Pacific Rim. However, new markets were to be found in Asia such as India, Pakistan, Indonesia and Vietnam. The Middle East such as Turkey, and Latin America such as Brazil and Mexico, were also being considered even though UK universities were often uncertain about the standard of qualifications from these countries as there was not a long history of contact.

8.2.9 Developing criteria to assess the viability of potential new markets

All the universities in this study except UWE have used one or more of the following criteria to assess the viability of potential new markets:

    i)   geographical proximity between a country and existing target countries;

    ii)   subject match between the interests of a country's outgoing students and the university's curricula;

    iii)   current interest in UK universities measured by reference to the number of students from each country in the UK;

    iv)   current interest in western universities measured by reference to the number of students from each country in the UK;

    v)   ease of recruitment in terms of a country's stability, size and infrastructure;

    vi)   existing contacts between a country and the university's academic departments;

vii)   presence of a critical mass of students at the institution from the countries with which formal contact has yet to be established;

viii)   the level of fluency in English in the country.

8.2.10 Strengthening relationships with key contacts

The strengthening of relationships with the chief sponsors was considered vital by all the universities such as with the Malaysian government for Malaysian undergraduate students. The Management School at Lancaster University also had links with Malaysian firms *Renong* and *Petronas*. In the case of *Petronas* this had included the initiation of a scheme to place graduates in local accountancy firms for their traineeships.

8.2.11 Maintaining contact with key sponsors in the UK

The maintaining of regular contact with key sponsors in the UK, chiefly the British Council and the International Development Agency, including with their academic advisers who make placement decisions was also considered a high priority by the universities.

8.2.12 Visits to further education colleges in UK

Visiting further education colleges and schools in the UK where there was a concentration of overseas A level or equivalent students was also thought to be a cost-effective way of attracting full-fee paying students.

8.2.13 Review of marketing strategies and publicity

The on-going review of advertising strategy and publications, within available budgets to ensure that all key institutions and sponsors were kept informed, was considered vital for transmitting universities policies on entrance requirements and accommodation policy. At Brunel University the accommodation policy had not been consistent which resulted in many complaints from overseas students and academics alike.

8.3 RECRUITMENT AND EDUCATIONAL PROVISION

8.3.1 Special Programmes to facilitate entry

Two universities had developed foundation programmes for overseas students whose academic qualifications and/or level of English Language did not enable them to enter directly on to an undergraduate degree programme. For example at Royal Holloway this was run in association with a local further education college and 60 students were enrolled in 1997-98. Most of the students were from Korea, Japan and Taiwan and this course was of value to students in which the secondary school system was based on the American model where qualifications were not the level of English A levels. The foundation programme was a one-year, full-time conversion course.

The Postgraduate bridging diploma at Royal Holloway was similar and helped postgraduates with no knowledge of the British higher education's teaching and learning methods and who had a first language other than English. It began in 1994-95 and administered by the Language Centre and in 1996-97 had 19 students enrolled on the programme. The Language centre also offered a certificate course, which included a substantial English language component, which in particular attracted students from the Far East. In some cases these programmes provided a Junior Year Abroad Scheme for Japanese university students. Summer programmes in English language and culture had also been introduced. All these activities have helped to raise Royal Holloway's profile overseas, particularly in Royal Holloway's student recruitment regions.

8.3.2 Student exchange programmes/short courses

Student exchange programmes such as American Junior Year Abroad (JYA) schemes had been developed to help raise an institution's profile in the student recruitment target countries and to encourage links with particular institutions. There was evidence of one year short courses at all the institutions. Royal Holloway had a JYA programme for Japanese students which was successful. Brunel University offered successful short courses in the area of Continuing Professional Development (CPD). A course in Immunology was well attended by doctors from overseas. There was often anecdotal evidence that some exchange students had returned to postgraduate work at Royal Holloway and Lancaster University.

8.3.3 Recruitment and distance learning

The increased pace of development of distance learning courses (46 MBAs in Singapore) caused recruitment concerns at the Management Schools of Lancaster and Royal Holloway and they were considering whether to enter the distance learning market. Lancaster University had decided to offer a more diverse MBA as part of an international consortium as so many other distance learning and campus based MBAs were similar. Many other campus universities were entering the distance learning market and it was widely recognised that Open University had a excellent reputation in this area. There was also evidence of demand for part-time doctoral programmes and that perhaps re-consideration of the viability of distance part-time doctoral programmes for young overseas academics were required.

8.3.4 The need to recruit across a broader range of academic departments

Overseas students in all four universities studied remain largely concentrated in a small number of departments and courses. All the universities were concerned about the high level of dependency on a relatively limited number of departments for the institutional overseas student targets. The centres of institutions (except at UWE) recognised that they needed to link their work more closely with departmental activities. Some recruitment trips had been partly focused on individual departments and partly aimed at general overseas recruitment. Support had also been given to individual departmental initiatives for the purpose of providing some market intelligence. The centres also encouraged departments to provide up-to-date and high quality publicity literature rather than poor quality in-house produced publicity materials.

8.3.5 Centres of institutions maintaining contact with academic departments

While continuing to offer support to departments already active in overseas recruitment the centres of universities (except at UWE) were keen to monitor admission offers to ensure quality control and check departmental response rates to applications. They also wished to nurture overseas contacts of those departments who had difficulties recruiting overseas students and encouraged the recruiting activities of highly rated departments.

8.3.6 Recruitment and review of university curricula

All the universities considered it important to have attractive degree programmes on offer. Brunel University had increased its number of attractive courses by merging with another institute; Royal Holloway added Management and Economics but did not offer Engineering which is typically a large recruiter of overseas students. 39% of the total overseas students at

. the College were in the two new departments. UWE had some specialisms and centres of excellence which attracted overseas students, particularly postgraduates. We return to more sustained discussion of impacts on the curriculum in Chapter 9 on educational provision.

8.4   RECRUITMENT TASKS IN INSTITUTIONS

8.4.1 Generating additional applicants

The generation of additional applicants at both postgraduate and undergraduate level (and income) continued to provide the main thrust of institutional international activities. The objectives were both to increase the numbers of applicants and to maintain, or if possible, to improve their quality. Given the very competitive environment in which the universities operated the intention was to increase market shares wherever possible. These tasks were made considerably more difficult by the gradual reductions in the International Offices' travel and advertising budgets when universities already had cash flow problems. In the long term International Offices were concerned that these cutbacks will prove to counter-productive and that it will become increasingly difficult for departments to reach their admissions targets. The aim of the International Offices is to attract larger numbers of applicants of good calibre such that these recruitment targets will be met.

8.4.2 Remits for marketing for recruitment purposes

The marketing of international student recruitment was in the remit of the international office at each university, except at the University of the West of England where this was in the remit of the admissions office. At Royal Holloway overseas recruitment formed part of the home recruitment office as the university had decided to keep all admissions 'under one umbrella'. The International Offices were responsible for sending out recruitment posters, producing international student information brochures and web pages and attending British Council education fairs held overseas. International student recruitment was the most often mentioned dimension of the internationalisation of higher education in the UK. The International Offices at both Brunel and Lancaster Universities co-operated with marketing departments to produce high quality publicity and information brochures.

8.4.3 Academics and administrators sharing the task of recruitment

International student recruitment was one area of activity where there was potential for co-operation between academics and the central administration, but it was an area where a range of tensions existed. Tensions existed because the division of labour between academics and administrators was becoming increasingly blurred. Administrators were encroaching on the work of academics and academics had to co-operate with institutional managers.

Administrators thought they had the expertise in the area of marketing and producing quality

publicity materials to 'sell' the institution overseas. However, academics were also keen to recruit students to their departments while visiting other institutions for conferences and research. They also had more status in Asian countries when greeting potential sponsors. Academics were keen to maintain a role in recruitment because it was they who admitted students and ultimately were accountable for getting students successfully through their degree courses. As academics had such a large role to play in providing teaching, assessment and pastoral care once student were recruited they were justified in exercising their power in this area. This derived from their professional qualifications and expertise and was typical of Clark's 'academic oligarchy' force of influence although market forces and state forces had impinged on departments, especially under-recruiting ones, to professional and provide quality in-house publicity materials.

8.4.4 Differing perspectives of academics and administrators

Some academics (Brunel) were critical that central funds were wasted on international student recruitment when academic departments could do recruitment drives themselves while simultaneously attending conferences in university towns. Academics felt they were the most knowledgeable about their department/discipline and the courses on offer, and the most qualified to assess the suitably of prospective students on the spot. However, some academics welcomed the extra help and advice from the central international office and made co-ordinated efforts (Lancaster). Senior management were often critical of low quality departmental publicity materials which were often out of date and often asked the International Office to 'audit' under-performing departments.

8.5   NETWORKS AND COLLABORATION WITH OTHER INSTITUTIONS

8.5.1 Partnerships and networks: raising profiles

An awareness of the importance of developing and maintaining a coherent and a well-publicised network of institutional partnerships was viewed as one of the keys to an effective international strategy for all the universities in this study. Partnerships and networks were a means of raising profiles internationally and generating additional fee-paying students. A ready network of partners was now seen as essential for applying for external sources of research funding and curriculum development activities. An example of this was found at Lancaster University's Management School which was putting more effort into joining elite networks such as the Community of European Management Schools (CEMS) and organisations such as European Institute for Advanced Studies of Management (EIASM) in an attempt to attract more funding. The Management School also visited partners 'to make sure they are prestigious because there had been lots of aggressive marketing by new universities. In Malaysia some new UK universities had taken over shop units in a mall selling education next to travel agents selling holidays and other retail items' (R.UNI.14).

8.5.2 Networks as prerequisites for bidding for funding

Most new partnership agreements were negotiated as a result of student exchange opportunities. All the institutions in this study shared the consensus that a global network should be the framework within which the international activities of an institution take place. Increasingly networks were a prerequisite for applying for external sources of funding, particularly from the European Commission. Their character defined the market positions and principal features of their members within national contexts. Partnerships were usually strengthened by visits led by senior staff from both institutions in the partnership. Collaboration was often extended with joint initiatives such as jointly organised seminars. During the period of fieldwork for this study further links were trying to be established with institutions in central and eastern Europe in particular. The British Council provided funding in one instance to promote collaboration in the form of full fee support for one student from the University of Rio Grande do Sol, Brazil to attend Lancaster University.

Lancaster University's Management School application to join the elite Programme International de Management (PIM)/Community of European Management Schools (CEMS) group was unsuccessful thus excluding the School from a ready-made network of top business schools in

Europe and North America. However the selection of the same Management School, which was the only UK university in the field of Business Administration to participate in the pilot European Credit Transfer System (ECTS) resulted in the extension of the range of its contacts and reputation within Europe.

8.5.3 Achieving optimal networks

Institutions realised that an optimal network should not be so restricted or fixed in size as to limit the scope for individual initiatives and specialist interests of academics. Yet it should be finite and the selection of appropriate partner institutions should follow a pre-determined set of criteria which could be applied in different countries. These criteria variously included country or region, reputation, compatibility of objectives and research interests, potential for development across a range of activities, overlap of partnerships and shared interests with partnerships in existing networks.

8.5.4 Networks utilised for multi-activities

All universities were aware of the importance of existing international links being well known throughout an institution so that economies of scale could be realised. In this way the same institutions could be utilised for a range of different types of activity so that closer inter-institutional working relationships evolved. An example of these typical types of evolving relationships were Lancaster University's multi-activity relationships with ESC Lyon and Wirtschaftsuniversitat Wien which included student and staff exchange as well as joint curriculum development.

8.5.5 Cataloguing all partnerships for shared information purposes

All four universities documented the range of activities being undertaken in co-operation with different partner institutions for important information purposes. The necessity of monitoring the development of individual initiatives of establishing partnerships with the full support of individual academics who were engaged in such activities was acknowledged. This was largely to endeavour to steer proposals for new international projects towards the existing partners. One university considered that the maintenance of a successful global network 'should be flexible, responsive to the individual needs of academics, developmental and transparent' (Lancaster University). Only in this way could a balance be maintained between the 'bottom up' character of individual projects and an institution's interest in ensuring coherence, direction and cost-effectiveness. There was also the view that partnerships should to be reviewed

periodically to ensure that the formal ones were operating effectively and to identify other appropriate institutions with which relationships, both formal and informal could be established.

Apart from links involving student exchanges and curriculum development, other partnerships were with institutes and companies to develop staff training strategies. A typical example of this was found at Lancaster University whose staff were assisting the *Mindware* company in Bangalore, India in collaboration with the Institute of Management, Bangalore.

8.6 STUDENT EXCHANGES

8.6.1 Exchanges as core activity of partnerships

Exchanges were the core activity of most institutional partnerships, whatever their focus. They were essential to an institution's international policy and provided the main opportunity for home students to spend time at other universities. Exchange programmes with high quality partner institutions enhanced the international profile of universities. Outgoing exchange students acted as ambassadors for the institutions and the two-way movement of students resulted in an enhanced profile both in partner institutions and more widely in the overseas countries concerned. Courses were also enhanced and a mix of students was created which contributed to the international culture of universities. Exchanges offered opportunities for inter-cultural and pluri-lingual group work and provided openings for 'home' students to gain experience of study and work overseas, thus benefiting programmes of study and increasing their potential 'saleability'. Undergraduate exchange programmes enhanced postgraduate recruitment as some incoming students have themselves returned as postgraduate students. The Vice-Principal for Academic Development at Royal Holloway was keen to promote more exchanges because exchange students often come back for postgraduate study. He wanted an emphasis on exchange with the elite Ivy League universities in the United States rather than with the large state universities 'but we are not Oxbridge and they do not need to recruit overseas students' was the view of one administrator.

Exchange increased the possibility of attracting additional fee-paying visiting students who were not part of the reciprocal exchange programme. Exchanges further provided a useful recruitment tool for home students as they are often impressed by the existence of the exchange programmes, even if they do not intend to take advantage of the opportunities themselves.

8.6.2 Exchanges and the ECTS

There was little doubt that the participation of the Lancaster University's Management School in the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS) had enhanced its reputation in Europe. The scheme represented a relatively economic form of promotion for the Management School. This and other exchanges raised consciousness of areas of the curriculum which could be further developed and sharpened comparisons between the qualities of Lancaster University students and those of some of the university's continental partners.

A number of respondents at the universities frequently referred to the imbalance of European exchanges due to more continental Europeans coming to the UK, than there were UK students going to continental Europe. In their view this made internationalisation more of a one way process even though they strongly believed that it should be a two way process. There was also significant imbalance between disciplines with Modern Languages, Management and Economics being ahead of the sciences.

8.6.3 Strategy of exchange to be a catalyst for other forms of co-operation

From a strategic standpoint the universities in this study were aware of the importance of not regarding student exchange as an end in itself but rather as a catalyst for other forms of co-operation, most notably curriculum development, recruitment and research. It was important for the centre of universities to ensure that balance of numbers were maintained where possible to avoid excessive pressure being exerted on individual courses/departments within disciplines that were not as successful in attracting overseas students such as business schools. However, opportunities for curriculum development were welcomed and exploited and linked, where possible, to academic co-operation between members of staff, particularly on postgraduate programmes.

8.6.4 Staff recruitment from partner institutions

The recruitment of non-national academic staff and the involvement of faculty from partner institutions in home courses were considered by institutions to be among the indicators of internationalisation but they were often confused with staff exchange. However, one to one equivalence between academic fields had been notoriously difficult to arrange and it was generally recognised that the limited availability of most academics made it hard for them to spend more than brief periods teaching at partner institutions. It was felt that more concerted efforts needed to be made to establish a basis for co-operation between university staff and colleagues from partner institutions on specific modules of certain courses. Such an initiative was under discussion at Lancaster University for the MBA in collaboration with ESC Lyon. However, some respondents thought that this should be extended as a feature of broader Management School policy even if just for short courses and that permanent appointments were preferable to short-term exchange appointments.

. In contrast, the Dean of the Management School at Lancaster University considered the main objective was to appoint the best academics even if this produced a list that was principally British, but that the possibility of joint appointments was worth exploring. This was largely due to the successful experience of the Human Capital Mobility programme which had confirmed for the staff involved the value of inter-institutional research collaboration.

Exchange arrangements worked well only in the context of firm institutional links which had been formed as part of overall international strategy. Policy on exchanges was the result of discussion and consultation with Heads of Departments, Admissions Tutors and Departmental Visiting Student Advisers as any new exchange agreements were likely to originate and be administered at departmental level. Some exchanges remained at departmental level as some relate to a specific centre of excellence within a partner institution. The value of student exchange was universally acknowledged by all four universities in this study as a valuable international dimension to study and should be continued and expanded. However, it was recognised that the quality of exchange arrangements must continually be addressed and that exchanges should only operate with institutions of high academic standing and any problematic agreements should be reviewed and if necessary terminated. The range of student exchanges, at least in non-English speaking countries, was limited by UK students' lack of language skills at undergraduate level. For example, Lancaster University had signed an agreement with the National University of Singapore and two students spent a term in Lancaster. It did prove very difficult to find reciprocal Lancaster University exchange students to fulfil the university's side of the reciprocal exchange. Therefore despite approaches from institutions in Hong Kong, Thailand and Malaysia, Lancaster University had decided not to enter into any further agreements for the time being as Masters students might have to fill these reciprocal exchanges. Royal Holloway was another university in the study which thought that in the future there might be some merit in developing a broader range of postgraduate exchange schemes. Royal Holloway however was successfully running exchange programmes in Japan for Japanese Studies students at International Christian University and Sophia University in Tokyo and Kyoto University of Foreign Studies

Most UK students on exchange were spending a compulsory year abroad in Europe as part of a degree course combining their discipline with a modern European language and participating in the Socrates programme. Fewer were undertaking an optional study abroad period because most students had insufficient skills to understand lectures delivered in a second language.

. Significantly more interest was recorded for an exchange period in North America than Europe. At Lancaster disciplines that were having trouble recruiting home students had successfully added a year in North America as a 'carrot' so courses such as Chemistry USA, Physics USA and Mathematics USA were recruiting three times the number of high quality students for the few places available to study abroad. Exchanges in North America were greatly enhanced by the successful use of an agent in New York to provide contact and efficiency. At Royal Holloway new exchanges in other English speaking countries such as Australia and New Zealand were under discussion as there was perceived to be a demand from students.

8.7 CONCLUSION

All the institutions in the study reported that they undertook some form of co-ordinated recruitment and marketing activity internationally. The three older universities in the study tended to have more co-ordinated policies which covered both external marketing activity in international student recruitment and other aspects of internal academic, financial and administrative policy. In contrast, the only new university in the study, UWE, had a much less co-ordinated recruitment and marketing strategy which resulted in random activity, probably due to its history as a former polytechnic.

All the universities used a multi-modal approach to promote their institutional name and specific courses internationally. The three older universities were more active across a broader range of marketing activities than the new university which was probably due to historical reasons. All the universities used advertising and took advantage of academics' visits abroad to distribute publicity literature.

The majority of respondents did not seem to have any strong views about the effectiveness of chosen marketing methods and there was no systematic evaluation of the many approaches adopted to generate successful applicants. Staff seemed to rely on general knowledge about the best marketing strategy for recruiting applicants and tended to intensify that in subsequent years. Overall, institutions gave the impression that marketing had increased significantly since 1980 to record levels at present because in all cases funds had been allocated from the central budget as well as human resources and protected staff time. The development of advisory groups, working groups and committees was further evidence that attempts had been made to enhance co-ordination of recruitment activities.

Three of the universities in this study had developed links with local further education colleges. These links were focused on improving access for international students, many of whom would be unqualified for advanced level or higher education without a period of intensive English language training or general education.

Many financial measures had to be taken to attract international students. Some institutions had introduced scholarships or fee waivers for international students. All universities had

. increased allocated central funds and human resources to increase recruitment and enhance marketing. One institution (Royal Holloway) had introduced an internal financial incentive scheme to encourage departments to recruit international students and reward those who were the most successful. In no cases were departments allowed to keep a proportion of the full-cost fees as they all went directly to the centre. Departments only received additional funding if they recruited additional students, above a pre-established quota. This additional funding was used in a number of ways. Some academic departments used it to provide additional academic staff or a part-time advisor for international students to improve the support services available.

Recruitment policies and practices involved institutions and their departments in activities taking them beyond their traditional objectives and tasks. Two consequences might follow: a shift in function between entities such as International Offices and academic departments; and some tensions between academics responsible for admissions and their administrative counterparts at the centre of institutions. Boundaries shifted and needed to be crossed. As the basis of the institution shifted so did its operational modes of activity.

All the institutions in this study had established links and this was often with a view to increasing recruitment or organising reciprocal exchanges. Links may involve many types of co-operation or academic contacts, which are concerned with encouraging potential overseas students and academics to become informed about and identify with a particular higher education institution in the UK. In the case of exchange programmes, several involved the exchange of a relatively small number of postgraduate research students and a large number of international students at the undergraduate level.

Collaboration between institutions and the building of networks is consistent with Clark's discipline-enterprise matrix. Academics consider connections in their discipline or 'invisible college' as more, or equally, important as links with the institution they are affiliated too. Therefore establishing networks, especially with institutions that have an excellent reputation in certain disciplines, for example may enhance a department's research profile as well as the profile of the institution as a whole. Developing exchange programmes for students and scholars often leads to other types of collaboration in research and teaching modules so investing time in one area results in multi-pronged connections. Having a ready established network of institutional partners is becoming increasingly important when applying for research

grants from institutions such as the European Commission who are keen to fund partnerships from all across Europe.

CHAPTER NINE: EDUCATIONAL PROVISION

9.1   OVERVIEW

Referring back to the question raised in Chapter One, this chapter will consider to what extent, if any, internationalisation has resulted in a shift in curriculum content and delivery styles. When examining how the curricula in higher education could be given a more international focus, many academic departments were considering how, and to what extent, should aspects of the curricula be modified in response to changes in demand from the international student market, and how they could make their offerings more attractive. This can be considered at several levels: the extent to which preparatory courses are available; the extent of provision of preliminary instruction in English language; the extent to which curricula and modes of transmission are affected by international recruitment.

9.2   PREPARATORY COURSES TO FACILATATE ACCESS

9.2.1 Foundation programmes to facilitate entry for international undergraduate students

As noted earlier in para. 8.3.1, two universities in this study had developed foundation courses for international students whose academic qualifications and level of English did not enable them to enter directly on to an undergraduate degree programme. The lack of places within the higher education systems of some countries meant that government policy within Portugal and Greece in southern Europe actively encouraged students to study abroad. Internationalisation in these countries was not just an option but an essential element in their educational policy. However an academic department at one of the institutions in this study did not admit Greek students even though they were interested because they were too poorly qualified to cope with the demanding course.

9.2.2 Development of English language provision

Some foundation and English language courses were provided collaboratively with local further education courses. Attendance on such courses did not guarantee entry to the associated higher education institution but the institution did look more favourably on the applicant. For example, Royal Holloway's Foundation course was organised in association with a local further education college and 60 students were enrolled in 1997-98. Most of the

students were from Korea, Japan and Taiwan where secondary school systems were based on the American model and school leaving qualifications were not the same as A levels. The foundation programme was a one-year, full-time conversion course. There were no foundation courses at Brunel University although there had been discussions about a pre-sessional study skills course but there were practical obstacles because no accommodation was made available before the start of the academic year due to summer conferences attendance at the institution.

9.2.3 English Language certificate courses

Some institutions had developed English Language Certificate courses for international students. For example, the Language Centre at Royal Holloway offered a certificate course, which included a substantial English language component, which in particular attracted students from the Far East. In some cases these programmes provided a Junior Year Abroad Scheme for Japanese university students. This course ran from September to June and was for prospective postgraduate students who had qualifications from their home countries but needed help with English and adapting to British educational system. It did, however, have disappointingly low conversion rates and grades. Summer programmes in English language and culture had also been introduced. All these activities have helped to raise Royal Holloway's profile overseas, particularly in Royal Holloway's student recruitment regions.

9.2.4 Bridging diploma for international postgraduate students

The Postgraduate bridging diploma course was similar to the foundation course for undergraduates and assisted postgraduates with no knowledge of the British higher education's teaching and learning methods and who had a first language other than English. Royal Holloway was the only institution in this study to offer a bridging diploma. It began in 1994-95 and was administered by the Language Centre. By 1996-97 19 students had enrolled on the programme and it was hoped that all these students would go on to postgraduate courses at the college.

9.2.5 Development of split site courses

Some departments had developed split site courses in collaboration with approved foundation colleges overseas. This was often an attractive option for international students as it meant paying fees for only two years instead of three and it was less time away from family and friends at home. One example of split site provision was found in the Law department at

. Brunel University. In this example, Malaysian students came straight into second year after attending a franchised foundation course in Malaysia. The department viewed quality assurance as vital and had learned from experience that money had to be invested in sending examiners to the foundation college for quality control reasons. The Engineering Faculty at Lancaster University also took applicants from non-UK foundation colleges in Greece and Malaysia and they entered straight into the second year. These links with Greece were established to fill gaps in courses with shortages in home recruitment such as engineering and sciences. UWE's Business School recognised a Malaysian foundation college and accepted students straight into the third year. 40% of overseas recruitment for the Business School at UWE was from Malaysia on the 2+1 degree in which students were awarded a UWE degree. This indicated that strong links had been built up with the college in Malaysia. UWE provided Malaysian academics with the modules the university accepted, as well as the teaching materials, and the institution annually sent out external examiners to check the quality of provision.

9.3   MODES OF DELIVERY OF THE CURRICULUM

9.3.1 Flexible and multifaceted delivery of the curricula

There had been much innovation in modes of study and delivery rather than in curriculum content which largely remained the same. Modes of delivery such as franchised courses and distance learning had extended access to international students who for financial reasons could not take the opportunity to reside in the UK for a campus-based, course even though they may have had sufficient educational qualifications. Although some of these changes were already in train, they were reinforced by internationalisation. There were, however, recent indications of drawing back from these innovations for reasons related to quality assurance.

9.3.2   Development of distance learning and e-learning

The increased pace of development of distance learning was causing concern at the institutions in this study because too many courses were on offer and the market was becoming saturated with similar course offerings. The Management School at Lancaster University had a Working Group on Open and Distance Learning (ODL) that was co-ordinated through the International Office. The group formed to develop a strategy which would determine future decisions on involvement in Open Learning provision both in the UK and especially overseas, particularly in the Far East. This group had made a successful application under the ODL strand of the European Commission's Socrates education programme. The application proposed the establishment of a network of institutions, co-ordinated by Lancaster University including ESC Lyon, Aarhus Business School, Athens Business School, Athens School of Economics and Business Administration, the University of Porto and LUISS, Rome and these were to design six postgraduate modules to be offered to students abroad via computer conferencing.

The Management School at Lancaster University had decided not to enter into distance learning MBAs, as many other universities had already entered this market in the UK and the Far East. For example, Brunel University already had an established and reputable distance learning MBA, offered in collaboration with Henley Management College and Lancaster's Management School also noted that there were a further 46 distance learning MBAs offered in Singapore alone. Lancaster University was not interested in promoting a distance learning or virtual learning MBA as they considered that other universities in the UK market were already leaders in this area such as the OU and Warwick University.

The Bristol Business School at UWE had decided not to move further into distance learning/virtual learning because the IT structures were not ready for it and students did not have the hardware to access courses. The Built Environment Faculty at UWE had an open and distance learning Town Planning degree which was a venture with several universities (and was unique nationally) and had a European wide recruitment profile because of the strong UK professional set-up in this field. Clearly, offering specialisms in distance education or something diverse meant an advantage in the competitive market of open and distance learning.

9.3.3 Classroom based courses still a reality

The above examples demonstrate, that, despite the rhetoric, classroom based courses with face-to-face interaction between teachers and students were the norm and distance education was the exception. For distance education courses to be viable they must enrol large numbers of students over a long period of time. This did not allow for flexibility of content to include up-to-date materials. The only feedback students received on distance education courses were comments after the marking of assignments which many students did not consider as satisfactory interaction. Students also complained to course directors about missing out on the social aspects of campus-based learning and study with peer groups. In contrast, classroom based students taking the same course as distance education students wished they could receive such high quality classroom materials as the distance education students received.

9.3.4 Short courses for visiting students

There were a high number of short courses designed specifically for international students. At the undergraduate level typical examples of these were students from the USA on Junior Year Abroad (JYA) programmes or for students from the European Union. At the postgraduate level there was also a shift to short courses with the introduction of one-year postgraduate diploma courses for students who did not qualify for the more advanced Master's degree. All the universities in this study confirmed that the market in short courses at postgraduate level or continuing professional development (CPD) courses was buoyant. Specialist research institutes often ran tailor-made courses which are sponsored so universities have actively promoted these short courses in their publicity materials and posters.

9.3.5 Development of consortia to deliver courses overseas

Rather than enter the distance learning market in MBAs for example, Lancaster University had opted to promote an MBA with an international variant. The link with Bangalore, India had been quality assessed via the country audit of India by the Quality Assurance Agency (QAA). This aimed to attract a sub-set of full-time MBA students who were interested in the international aspects of a business and management career. Students were required to take the MBA that was part of an international consortium that included the prestigious French INSEAD. Being part of this consortium had enhanced the profile of Lancaster University internationally. The Bristol Business School at UWE had also recently set-up a European MBA in which students studied in three locations but students received a UWE MBA.

9.3.6 Development of collaborative degree programmes

Apart from collaborative provision of foundation courses some universities offered postgraduate degree in collaboration with another institution overseas. The UWE Business School had a limited number of collaborations in Europe such as the joint delivery of a Masters Programme in International Human Resource Management delivered in conjunction with a Dutch institution.

9.3.7 Franchising

All the institutions in this study had adopted policies where they would not franchise. Lancaster University's view was typical on franchising and the reasons why institutions had not opted for it: 'it [franchising] is too fraught, too expensive and too many institutions have already done it and got their fingers burnt'. The issue of quality assurance was the main reason why institutions had not franchised their courses. UWE was aware that it would have been required to assure quality by visiting the institutions and few institutions overseas had offered the money to gain a franchise of UWE and this had been the main restriction. The Bristol Business School at UWE held the view that there was not enough profit in franchising because the money had to be spent checking quality properly and fees could only be charged in relation to the overseas marketplace. However, the overseas institutions needed to keep most of the money for teaching and running its university. This left only a small amount of money and unless there were many students it did not yield the margin needed to operate quality assurance mechanisms properly.

9.4 PREPARING STUDENTS FOR EMPLOYMENT

9.4.1 Preparing international students for careers in their home countries

Most international education was directed at providing career opportunities for international students so that they could participate in their economy when they returned home. The majority of overseas students applied for vocational/professional courses such as applied sciences, computing, engineering, and health studies. This was found to be the case at all the higher institutions in this study. Overseas governments often sponsored their students to take particular courses and upon their return home, students were expected to work a number of years in industry as repayment.

9.4.2 Preparation for careers in the global marketplace/participation in the economy

For home students preparation for graduate employment overseas often required foreign language competency and the participating in education or work abroad to enable students to move in and out of different cultures to fit changing career needs. The experience of living, studying and working in a foreign environment were often seen as opportunities for personal growth. Students frequently mentioned to their tutors the educational, social and personal value of having experienced another culture.

9.5 CONTENT OF THE CURRICULUM

9.5.1 Developing subject range of courses offered

As referred to previously in para. 8.3.6 Institutions regularly reviewed, for recruitment purposes, the courses they offered. For example, enlarging Brunel University through mergers with other institutions had resulted in the broadening the subject range to include new disciplines such as Business Studies, Health Studies, Occupational Therapy and Sport Sciences which were good recruiters of international students. These departments also took the pressure off low recruiting departments such as Physics and Chemistry which could not recruit enough home students and were looking to international markets to make the departments viable. Royal Holloway did not offer engineering subjects which traditionally attracted many international students, but had recently started to offer Economics which was proving to be popular with overseas markets. The College also offered courses where there was a lack of provision overseas such as Media Studies. However, it is important to note that the Media Studies curriculum was not adapted to meet the needs of overseas students. For instance, no courses on Indian film were offered for Indian students.

9.5.2 Development of courses with an international dimension

International curriculum development applied to course content within home institutions, regardless of links with partner institutions overseas. Alternatively, it was described as courses designed with the curriculum of a partner institution in mind or in collaboration with members of staff from that institution. It also involved variants of existing home courses that allowed students to spend periods of time studying or working abroad.

9.5.3 International/comparative content in the curriculum

International content of curricula was classroom as well as experience-based. Classroom learning included providing comparative or international case study material, employing international staff, and links with other institutions via such means as communications technology were factors in internationalising the curriculum. The Government Department at Brunel University offered comparative politics courses and a group Directing Democratic Societies looking at the democratisation of Western Europe, North America and Australia. A BA course in European Politics was also offered, but there were problems with learning languages

. as Brunel did not have a Modern Languages Department and students had to be bussed to a local university college which was not convenient for them.

9.5.4 Use of international case studies and international students in the classroom

Project work focusing on specific countries and making use of international student's knowledge to relate to the curriculum was also significant. However there was a limited range of opportunities for problem-solving by culturally mixed groups. Departments thought this could be developed on courses where there were large numbers of overseas students. The MBA degree at Lancaster University had the principle of balancing the cultural mix of students but this was not generalised across the whole Management School even though there was a strong drive to internationalise recruitment. Experience-based learning occurred through academic study exchanges and work placements abroad. This broadened the horizons of students and was acknowledged as boosting confidence more than classroom-based learning.

9.5.5 Low numbers of UK students studying international curriculum abroad

Although many international students wished to study in the UK, not many home students took up places on academic exchanges abroad because of inability to study in a second language, and the non-award of academic credit which resulted in an additional year of study. UK students also had concerns regarding overcrowded universities overseas which often had no subsidised campus accommodation. This observation was also confirmed by Teichler's studies of the Erasmus programme. For those home students not taking foreign language degrees it was difficult to learn a foreign language in their spare time outside of their degree. There were few incentives on offer to study abroad, although Lancaster had started providing incentives. These incentives included the piloting of the European Credit Transfer Scheme (ECTS) in some academic departments; the offering of dual degrees and full academic credit for a year abroad. For courses that had difficulty with the recruitment of home students, such as Chemistry, Physics and Mathematics, these students had the option of one year in the USA through Chemistry USA, Physics USA and Mathematics USA degrees which were proving successful and attracting good students.

9.5.6 Provision of special courses in demand

Academics in the UK retain control over the structure and content of their courses but with some courses there was evidence of demand led provision in areas such as Management

Studies. Some academics did not like this shift because it was related to financial reasons rather than changes in pedagogy. Some examples of special courses follow:

i)   a postgraduate diploma in Development Studies offered by Lancaster University was in demand especially in Japan;

ii)   a Masters degree in Business Management at Lancaster University was identified as being in demand in China, but the draft proposals did not meet the approval of the Chinese government. The university was intending to re-submit since it was thought to offer significant potential for recruitment and income generation;

iii)   the MSc in Immunology at Brunel University attracted senior people from overseas including experienced doctors;

iv)   the MSc in Manufacturing Building and MSc in Building Services at Brunel University was successful with Nigerian students and other students from Africa. However qualifications and finances were checked carefully to reduce the non-completion rates of the course. Two scholarships were offered while many others found work as laboratory demonstrators.

9.5.7 The importance of offering pre-requisites

Many departments offering vocational degrees recognised the necessity of offering pre-requisites which would be useful for students on the return to their home country. One example of this was observed in the Law Department at Brunel University which had to make sure options were offered regularly so that Malaysians and Israelis could fulfil requirements for the bar in their home countries. Some Israelis wanted more choice of courses so more would be accepted on the conversion course at Hebrew University and reduce the amount of time they were required to study.

9.5.8 Mobility dimensions in the curriculum: study abroad, work abroad and field trips

International variants were most popular in specialist Masters degrees such as the MBA. These were linked for the most part to existing exchange agreements. A current development at

Lancaster University was a proposal to co-operate with ESC Lyon/CESMA in reviewing the university's full-time MBA degree. However, the number of courses having a European or international focus was limited and co-operation with overseas institutions more widely seemed doubtful. UK students on Business courses, however, were keen to have more international case study material while MBA students expected more international placements than were actually in existence.

9.5.9 Work placements

Work placements overseas were particularly important at UWE as a former polytechnic which had a strong vocational focus, and Brunel University which was a former college of advanced technology offering sandwich courses. There were work placements for small numbers of science students in North America as there were no language problems and European students come on work placements to the UK. Works placements overseas were mainly in the EU because of visa problems with other areas. The cost of a degree at Brunel University for overseas students had been reduced by moving from a four-year thick sandwich degree to a three-year thin sandwich degree. However, overseas students on work placements were charged half fees so £8100 became £4050, while home students paid no fees at the time of this study. One academic was concerned that the university administration had imposed this rule on departments without an explanation and overseas students received nothing from the university in return. Brunel University remained attractive because of the emphasis it placed on application and professional accreditation which meant less time away from home for overseas students who often arranged work placements in their home country to assist with their employment after graduation.

International work placements were also considered important for c.v. building in a UK graduate employment context in which 'extras' provided advantage over competitors and was consistent with Dearing's emphasis on integrating higher education and the work place. Royal Holloway considered that it needed more work opportunities on the lines of the Imperial College, London and University of East Anglia (UEA) models.

9.5.10 Technical Training

Many universities had become involved with technical training courses. Many West Africans had come to the UWE for technical training in technology but this had been downgraded due to political instability in the region causing students many financial problems. UWE has since

diversified and targeted South East Asia so they were not so susceptible to downturns in one market. At Lancaster University technical training was provided to CIS countries which was funded through EU aid programmes. These types of initiatives were not perceived as cost-beneficial in the short term but academic departments had multi-objectives. They hoped to use such opportunities to enhance departmental reputations in parts of the world judged to be strategically important for recruitment. At the same time they also provided a means of broadening understanding of new developments in the countries concerned, not only as the outcome of academic staff visiting the places concerned, but also through research seminars or course modules in which doctoral or post-doctoral students could make a substantive contribution.

9.5.11 Continuing professional development courses

Development of the curriculum to an international perspective can be extended to the internationalisation of executive training programmes. International elements of degrees were often dependent on such links and vice versa. At Lancaster University the European Management Teacher Development Programme established jointly with ESC Lyon added to the scope of collaboration with that Business School. This collaboration already included curriculum development within the undergraduate MBA, joint research in marketing and human resource management with the Institut de Recherche de l'Enterprise (IRE), a 'Lecteur' exchange involving Modern Languages and Management and plan for a collaborative recruitment policy and staff exchange. There was also a teacher development programme in Poland. The European MBA at UWE was developmental for faculty teaching exchanges and overseas institutions. UWE were enabling French and German academics to learn about teaching postgraduate courses at Masters level.

9.6 ACCREDITATION AND CERTIFICATION

9.6.1 Dual/joint qualification, credit transfer and harmonisation of awards

Courses with international variants which were linked for the most part to exchange agreements led in some instances to a dual degree and have had much success. For example the BBA in European Management (French) degree at Lancaster University worked well with ESC Lyon. Five students usually graduated each year with both a BBA and a Diplôme Supérieur de Commerce. ESC Grenoble and ESC Nantes were also keen to offer Lancaster University students the same opportunity but the university was only going to take up their offers if the BBA/French had substantially more applications in the future.

A dual BBA in European Management (German) was also offered at Lancaster University in conjunction with WHU, Germany although no student had yet completed the degree. There were teething problems with this dual degree as UK students going to Germany found they had not taken the right prerequisites and struggled with a lack of background in subjects such as Mathematical Economics. This feedback led to better advice in subsequent years for potential candidates.

New proposals were underway at Lancaster University with Fachochschule Reutlingen and ICADE, Madrid to establish a new dual degree. If agreed it would enable BBA German and Spanish students to opt for a 2+2 degree leading to a BBA in European Management and a Diplom Betriebswirt (German) or a Graduado Superior en Ciencias Empresariales Eurpeas (Spanish). The scheme was planned to operate on an exchange basis so that the Management School at Lancaster University would benefit from larger numbers of German and Spanish students participating in undergraduate courses. All students (British/German/Spanish) were to be registered at Lancaster for a four year BBA degree and therefore attract full HEFCE funding.

9.7   CONCLUSION

In answer to the question, to what extent has internationalisation resulted in a shift in curricula content, it was found that the curricula provided for international students were of the same content as that provided for home students. Academics continued to teach the core curriculum that was relevant to their discipline and developments in research in what Clark (1983) has termed the 'invisible college' of their field, rather than making courses relevant to international student demands.

However, the curriculum was sometimes broadened or adapted to meet the needs/special interests of international students through project work, seminar reading with comparative content or studying the curriculum offered at partner institutions overseas. Academics had not developed courses with special dimensions such as a European dimension which the European Memorandum (1991) recommended. One Teaching Quality Assessment (TQA) team suggested more should be made of a European dimension in one European Studies Department, but this had not been taken further as no extra resources had been made available. In regard to encouraging the incorporation of an international dimension into the curriculum academics wanted the Department of Education to provide incentive grants or competitions, and the Research Councils to encourage more inter-university collaboration. Academics were critical of the significant amount of time put in to international activities which were not rewarded in terms of resources or promotion.

While no significant shifts in curriculum content due to internationalisation could be detected, there were some noticeable shifts in curriculum delivery. There were some distance learning degrees on offer but it was mainly at postgraduate level, such as MBAs and MAs in Engineering. Courses such as these which had a clearly defined professional aspect were more in demand by overseas students. So while distance learning courses were not offered across a broad range of disciplines, the scale of take up was important because only large numbers of students make distance learning courses viable and cost effective. The same finding was reported in a recent study on lifelong learning. Campus based universities could only compete with specialist providers in the distance learning market, such as the Open University, if they were offering a specialism (Kogan, Henkel and Healy, 2000). Some senior managers were critical that distance learning courses were not more successful and blamed academics for being too slow in returning assignments with very few helpful comments for the

. students, and this in their view resulted in a decline in take up and collapse of programmes. While there was little evidence of franchising due to concerns with quality assurance, there was evidence of many short courses on offer for visiting students lasting from as little as one semester to as long as one academic year.

There was little convergence of cultures taking place in the classroom as the opportunity for group work was limited. More exchanges of cultures took place through university societies, social activities and sharing halls of residence. For home students, an international dimension to the curriculum was often introduced through comparative reading and area studies through the completion of project work. Although many international students wished to study in the UK, not many home students wanted to take up academic exchanges abroad because of the inability to study in a second language and the lack of academic credit which led to an additional year of study, in often overcrowded universities with no subsidised accommodation. For home students who were not studying for foreign language degrees, it was difficult to learn a foreign language in their spare time as the structure of the system did not allow this. There were few incentives for home students study abroad, although Lancaster had started to provide incentives.

CHAPTER TEN: SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

10.1   SUMMARY

The first part of this chapter summarises the preceding nine chapters of the thesis. The second part provides answers to the research questions raised in Chapter 1 of this thesis.

10.1.1 Summary of Chapter One: Internationalisation as a salient issue in higher education

The purpose of the study was to examine internationalisation as a development in higher education which was assumed to be the result of exogenous new public policy concerns and one which may be shifting those working in higher education away from traditional academic values and norms.

The thesis was primarily concerned with themes relating to the internationalisation of education and teaching and *not* the internationalisation of research.

The main research question with which this thesis was concerned was: given the nature of higher education, to what extent, if any, has internationalisation made an impact on the working practices, values and norms of professionals working in higher education?

The secondary research questions were concerned with the extent to which internationalisation had resulted in a shift from academic values to public policy concerns; a shift of power within universities and curriculum content and delivery styles.

Internationalisation was perceived to be a salient issue for bodies such as the European Commission which has as its aim the convergence of higher education systems in Europe which is stipulated in Bologna Declaration (1999). However, the study shows there is not agreement about the increased importance of internationalisation in higher education and academics are often sceptical about its relevance because the present interest in internationalisation in the UK is often related to financial matters.

10.1.2   Summary of Chapter Two: Policy History of the internationalisation of higher education

.	Chapter Two enumerated the diverse national policies that have affected the internationalisation of higher education from the 1960s to the present and which reflect the changing relationships between government, higher education and the market.

The first attempts at policy making in the early 1960s were narrowly focused on calculating the costs of receiving overseas students at UK higher education institutions. By the end of the 1960s the UK government ended its *laissez-faire* approach to overseas students and introduced differential fees for overseas students amid opposition from higher education institutions.

The focus shifted later towards a broader approach, at least among commentators, which began to make an assessment of the whole educational experience for overseas students and not just costs. In 1979/80 the government implemented a national policy of full cost fees for overseas students which was actually not prompted by the overseas student 'problem' but to find savings in public policy across the board.

The 1990s resulted in further cuts in government funding for universities that resulted in the search for non-governmental income, such as fees from overseas students. Higher education services were perceived as a tradable commodity for export for the first time by the Department of Trade and Industry and led to new developments in franchising and validation agreements between UK universities and overseas institutions. However, negative publicity led to a policy on the quality of provision of international education, to monitoring and new forms of quality assurance.

European policy moved towards shaping the future of developments in internationalisation. The main influence has been through student mobility programmes and funding for research programmes and co-operation between institutions. The European Credit Transfer Scheme (ECTS) developed recognition of study abroad in Europe and the Bologna Declaration (1999) aims to extend the ECTS and establish a common framework for degree qualifications in the future. This impact on institutional policies and academic practice is as yet uncertain.

Current UK educational policy can be summarised as the mobilisation of the skilled human resources needed to make the UK a more internationally competitive trading nation. To the extent that higher education has a distinct international purpose within that wider aim it is to

. maximise export earnings by selling education services to paying customers.

Government policy on Internationalisation is not seen as providing coherent policies for higher education institutions such as specifying the desirable number of overseas students. This allows institutions to be free to act on their own recruiting strengths which was consistent with the classic state-university-market relationship.

10.1.3 Summary of Chapter Three: Review of literature for analysis and conceptualisation
Chapter Three reviewed literature for analysis and conceptualisation purposes to determine whether the internationalisation of higher education institutions is a response to shifting academic values and practices or to the demand of public policy.

A spectrum of models of higher education governance is depicted. These include the independent and academically led institutions such as Clark's discipline-enterprise matrix (1983) and Becher and Kogan's synoptic model (1992). The managerialist models in contrast focus on dependent institutions and the effective management of them such as New Public Management and the Evaluative State focusing on quality assurance.

A number of normative and operational definitions of internationalisation are provided to assist with the analysis of the findings. Operational models of internationalisation are reviewed and include Neave's paradigmatic model (1992); Davies' matrix model (1992); Van Dijk and Meijer's cube model (1994); Rudzki's strategic model (1993) and Knight cycle model (1994). Despite the conceptualisation models, internationalisation is still in a 'pre-paradigmatic' phase and research on it is not yet comprehensive (Teichler, 1994; 1996).

10.1.4 Summary of Chapter Four: Research methods
Research methods consisted of a review of policy literature related internationalisation and literature on models of higher education governance and organisational models of internationalisation.

A semi-structured interview questionnaire was devised which raised questions on macro policies and institutional policies and practices. This was piloted at one university.

Four diverse universities in England were selected for case studies and ranged

. from a new university; a well established research university; a technological university and one traditional college of the University of London. Sixty-five interviews were conducted with academics and academic-related staff at every level of the university.

The interviews were all transcribed and imported in a qualitative data management programme (QSR Nud.ist) so analysis of empirical findings were systematic and could be slotted into a framework.

10.1.5 Summary of Chapter Five: Impact of government policies

In this empirical chapter perceptions of government policies on internationalisation are confirmed as not adding up to an overarching set of policies. Although many government departments have a concern with internationalisation, it is not a key issue for them.

However, this perspective must be modified by the fact that governmental interest has increased, if only for economic reasons, even if that interest is not translated into coherent and determinate policies. Overseas students help ensure the viability of some, otherwise, failing departments but it is general policy to rationalise weak parts of the system.

10.1.6 Summary of Chapter Six: Quality assurance for international dimensions of higher education

The introduction by the QAA of Codes of Practice and the quality audit of overseas countries and institutions with which UK higher education institutions have collaborative links is the most significant policy development affecting the area of internationalisation to ensure the good reputation of UK higher education is maintained. This has contributed towards a shift of power from academic towards state, as represented by institutions, and market forces.

There is a tension within institutions ensuring quality provision at a time of increasingly less funding and resources. Institutional ambitions for internationalisation are not the sole reason for a sharpening of quality assurance procedures (it was also related to accountability). However, internationalisation lends more urgency to it as the quality ratings have become increasingly important for overseas marketing purposes because they have demonstrated that assessment mechanisms are in place in the UK.

10.1.7 Summary of Chapter Seven: Institutional planning and structures

Higher education institutions are developing comprehensive strategies to manage the process of internationalisation. This management of the process began with the introduction of full fees for international students so that recruitment could be increased after the initial fall in student numbers. Since then the planning of internationalisation strategies and the development of structures has not only been enhanced, but also increased.

Higher education institutions have mission statements which refer increasingly to the importance of the international dimension in teaching and research. Only two of the four universities in this study, however, referred to the word 'international' in their mission statements while one university had a more general statement. One university did not refer to international activities in its mission statement due to its other institutional priorities such as serving the needs of the local region, but there was evidence of international activities at the university.

There were numerous references to the fact that internationalisation was being addressed in current strategic development plans and committees giving the overall impression of a growing level of interest in this area. The policy statements were most evident at the university level, less so at faculty level, and none at all at departmental level. Three out of the four universities in this study were involved in strategic planning that included major internationalisation developments. Two universities focused on integrating international dimensions into the core processes of the university, research and teaching, while another referred more to a dimension of internationalisation, international student recruitment and internal structures and resources to support this, such as creating a new international office and providing a start-up budget. One university had not incorporated internationalisation into its strategic planning process because it was not a high priority and financially the university was doing well pursuing it current strategy of focusing on the local region.

It appears that internationalisation was not the stimulus for the planning, but was part of it. Internationalisation, however, was being integrated into the core processes of teaching and learning and not being marginalised.

. All the universities in this study had a clearly defined policy, which at the very least declared the desirability of a percentage of intake from overseas (such as UWE). No universities in this study had set recruitment targets but the general aim seemed to be to encourage a 10-15% population of international students in the overall student numbers. Two universities in the study had already achieved this, while another was rapidly catching up. One university had no specific international recruitment drives but still had a 3% population of international students.

Only one university's international activities and budgets had been reviewed as part of a systematic review of all university policies. At another university, a review of the budget allocation for the international officer and office was carried out by the Strategic Planning and Resources Committee after the completion of the probationary period. It was decided that the budget allocation was successful as more international students had been recruited and funding would continue until the unit was self-financing. Central funds had been allocated for international student recruitment and marketing, an international officer and/or international unit at all the universities in the study except one. Significantly, funds were being allocated at a time when there are more financial constraints. At the faculty and departmental level, funds allocated were often short-term and not part of annual budgets or plans.

Only one institution had a committee or group with the term 'international' in its title, two others had more specifically 'overseas recruitment' in their titles, which reflected the predominant concern of international student recruitment in international matters. One university had no separate international committee or sub-group at all. Some committees had been delegated to the status of 'groups' or 'sub-groups' and were not full powerful university committees but 'working' or 'advisory' groups made up of staff members with international experience or an interest in internationalisation. This was perhaps surprising given the strong commitment to internationalisation, or at least, international student recruitment in mission statements and strategic plans. Views varied in each institution as to the value of different types of committee structure. Some administrators favoured small, informal working groups rather than formal committees because they completed tasks rapidly and allowed for a flexible and speedy response to the changing circumstances, and as membership was voluntary, members were highly motivated and achieved many objectives. Formal committees were also of value as they involved representatives from the whole of the university in international issues, and in some cases committees formed in this way were perceived to have greater long-term influence over policy making and implementation.

Internationalisation policy raised issues about how it should be formulated by universities, and there were divided opinions on whether it was the most appropriate in a committee setting or through small expert groups.

The organisation of internationalisation at institutions of higher education parallels the classic lines of authority with policy related entities such as pro vice-chancellors with internationalisation in their remit, directors of international offices and international offices. Not all institutions organised internationalisation structures in the same way but most felt it was necessary to have a Pro Vice Chancellor (PVC), international officer or unit at the centre to liaise with deans, heads of department and other academics.

Support from senior management was seen as essential for building support both within and outside universities, thereby ensuring resources were available to promote internationalisation. In doing so, there was no evidence that the models of organisation of internationalisation discussed in Chapter Four were being used or adopted. The centre of the university gave institutional funds to international offices to co-ordinate, rather than manage, the process of internationalisation. Deans and Heads of Departments had a significant role to play in internationalisation, especially the faculties and departments that admitted large numbers of international students such as Management Schools. The centre had more power over departments that were under-recruiting but there was a sharing of power due to different roles and not a shift of power towards the centre or vice versa.

The whole process of internationalisation required co-operation and a division of labour between academics and administrators. Administrators were more concerned with managing the overall process of recruitment and implementing quality assurance, while academics were concerned with admissions and as part of their main roles as teachers and researchers, making sure international students successfully completed their courses.

Most International officers reported to the Registrar or Academic Secretary who was usually a full member of the university steering committee that discussed international matters. Increasingly pro vice-chancellors or vice-presidents were responsible for internationalisation and reported directly to vice-chancellors.

10.1.8 Summary of Chapter Eight: Recruitment and Collaboration

All institutions had developed a marketing strategy for recruitment purposes. Some policies covered external marketing, while others were broader and included internal academic, financial and administrative issues. The British Council was important for marketing institutions overseas. Marketing had noticeably increased at universities to reach it current highest levels ever.

All institutions adopted a multi-modal approach to promoting their institutional name and specific courses internationally, but did not have strong views about the best marketing approach so they randomly repeated 'whatever works'.

Some institutions had foundation courses organised in collaboration with local further education colleges to facilitate entry to their institutions. Incentives in the form of financial scholarships or fee waivers were also available to some international students.

International student recruitment was an area with potential for co-operation between academics and the central administration. Tensions existed because the division of labour between academics and administrators was becoming increasingly blurred. Administrators were believed to encroach on the work of academics. Administrators thought they had the expertise in the area of marketing and producing quality publicity materials to 'sell' the institution overseas. Academics were keen to maintain a role in recruitment. However market forces and state forces had impinged on departments, especially under-recruiting ones, to be more professional and provide quality in-house publicity materials.

Collaboration between institutions and the building of networks is consistent with Clark's discipline-enterprise matrix. Academics consider connections in their discipline or 'invisible college' as more important than links with the institution they are affiliated too. Establishing networks, especially with institutions that have an excellent reputation in certain disciplines was considered essential. Exchange programmes for students and scholars lead to other types of collaboration in research and teaching modules; having a ready established network of institutional partners is becoming increasingly important when applying for research grants from institutions such as the European Commission.

Many of the types of special provision, such as support offices and accommodation policies, were made for international students, but increasingly these were available to home students as institutions felt legally compelled to adopt a 'seamless' approach to all students. Fee-paying international students and home students were now clients and institutional management had to ensure equality of treatment. UKCOSA was consistently recognised as an important source of information and training for support staff.

Internationalisation is a significant increasing trend in UK university life, but this study shows that systematic approaches are not in operation, and that in as much as universities are engaged in it, it is a product negotiated between internationalisation professionals, faculties and departments. It has not proved possible to show the outcomes of this negotiated process as they are not definable in terms of the universities studied.

10.1.9 Summary of Chapter Nine: Educational provision

The curricula provided for international students had the same content as those provided for home students. However, the curriculum was sometimes adapted to meet the needs/special interests of international students through project work, seminar reading with comparative content or studying the curriculum offered at partner institutions overseas. Academics had not developed courses with special dimensions. Academics were critical of the significant amount of time put in to international activities which went un-rewarded in terms of resources or promotion.

Although no significant shifts in curriculum content could be detected there were some noticeable shifts in curriculum delivery, such as distance learning provision (but mainly at postgraduate level). Despite the rhetoric regarding distance learning and e-learning, provision was still mainly classroom based with face-to-face interaction between students and teachers. There was also little evidence of franchised courses because of concerns with quality assurance issues. Courses with clearly defined professional aspects were more in demand by overseas students.

International students, especially at undergraduate level, in the view of academics were pleased with the quality of education they received in the UK. Asian students were impressed by non-rote learning and students from continental Europe enjoyed closer contact with their

lecturers and less overcrowding. This finding agrees with Teichler's studies of the Erasmus and Socrates programmes and why many continental Europeans wish to study in the UK and Ireland. They also appreciated subsidised housing and catering on-campus. UK students were less keen to study overseas because of overcrowding, lack of contact with lecturers and often no subsidised on-campus housing.

At postgraduate level, international students, especially those registered for research degrees often found the large periods of unsupervised study difficult to adjust to and lonely.

10.2   DISCUSSION OF THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The main research problem stated in Chapter One was: given the nature of higher education, to what extent, if any, has internationalisation made an impact on the working practices, values and norms of professionals working in higher education?

The secondary research questions were:

i)   To what extent, if any, has internationalisation resulted in a shift from academic values to public policy concerns?

ii)   To what extent, if any, has internationalisation resulted in a shift of power within universities?

iii)   To what extent, if any, has internationalisation resulted in a shift in curriculum content and delivery styles?

10.2.1 Change in work practices and shift to public policy concerns

There has been some shift in working practices, rather than in academic values, in higher education institutions due to the increasing influence of public policy. This shift, however, has been caused more by reductions in government funding of institutions than by internationalisation itself. Higher education institutions themselves value overseas student fees because they are a major source of non-governmental income. The state allowed institutions the freedom to act in the market on their own recruiting strengths.

This did not mean, however, that the relationship between institutions and the state did not change at all. Institutions were now held more accountable to the state, which led to dependent institutions and the promotion of effective management. The state was concerned with the need to promote the export of education services abroad and to protect the reputation of UK higher education; a number of quality assurance assessments and codes of best practice were introduced. Again, internationalisation was not the only reason for quality assurance but was extended to include it and has caused (in Clark's terms) movements away from academic hegemony towards market and professional-managerial power. Academic values may not have

shifted due to internationalisation, but the shifts have probably been reinforced due to associated quality assurance and the danger of litigation from overseas students. However, academic working practices, norms and even identities are changing as policy changes have made institutions more corporate-like and academics have had to respond to win resources and maintain or improve the quality ratings of their department.

10.2.2 Powers shifts in institutions

In universities in general new structures have been developed to cope with new policies/practices and resulting shifts in power. Almost all of the tasks generated by internationalisation were originally carried out by academics but there has been an increasing shift of power to the centre of the institution. This can been exemplified by International Offices being the most active in marketing and recruiting. Even though departments still control the admission of students, the centre of the higher education institution is concerned that standards are maintained for the sake of an institution's reputation in the market. In some cases the centre is critical of over-recruitment because it can damage reputations in the long-term, even if it results in extra institutional income in the short-term.

Academic teaching values include the altruistic regard for students; the application of due and fair process in admissions; response to critique and quality assurance monitoring for the purposes of professional and public accountability and an openness to curriculum development and change. Academics holding to these values remain the primary agents in curriculum change and policy shifts in internationalisation may be inconsistent with academic values.

In Chapter One it was hypothesised that internationalisation may be one of many forces compelling a whole institutional approach. Administrators concerned with internationalisation have taken some power away from the academic basic units. At the same time, academics have increasingly taken on managerial roles at university level including those responsible for internationalisation.

As seen in Chapter Five, the shift towards central institutional power has been enhanced by the need to produce mission statements and strategy documents some of which refer to internationalisation. Changes in management structures have resulted with the creation of pro-vice-chancellor roles with internationalisation in their remit who are responsible for the development and implementation of policies university-wide.

Not all institutions organised internationalisation structures in the same way but most felt it was necessary to now have a PVC, international officer or unit at the centre to liaise with deans, heads of department and other academics and develop and implement institutional policy. Most international officers reported to the Vice-Chancellor via the Registrar. Support from senior management was seen as essential for building support both within and outside universities, thereby ensuring resources were available to promote internationalisation (linking the operational and normative modes of Becher and Kogan's synoptic model, 1992). Without support from senior management many felt internationalisation could not be achieved.

International offices did not take power from the academic side but a horizontal shift occurred in respect of internationalisation from the academic lines e.g. Deans and Heads of Department to university steering committees advised by international groups. Internationalisation did not itself cause overall shifts in power but was one of many factors leading to the vertical shift upwards towards management. The preponderance of these international tasks relied on cooperation and coordination rather than any 'hard' managerial set of relationships. International Committees usually contained academic members and administrators so that decisions were not made by one group.

Tendencies towards the professionalisation of those concerned with internationalisation can be noted with the number of sub-groups that have been developed by such bodies as the European Association of International Education.

10.2.3 Shift in curriculum content and delivery styles

The curricula provided for international students were of the same content as that provided for home students. Academics continued to teach the core curriculum that was relevant to their discipline and developments in research in what Clark (1983) has termed the 'invisible college' of their field, rather than making courses relevant to international student demands. However, the curriculum was sometimes broadened or adapted to meet the needs/special interests of international students through project work, seminar reading with comparative content or studying the curriculum offered at partner institutions overseas.

10.3 CONCLUSION

Returning to the main research question with which this thesis raised, given the nature of higher education, to what extent, if any, has internationalisation made an impact on the working practices, values and norms of professionals working in higher education, we can note that internationalisation has some impact on them. But it is part of a large number of exogenously induced policies and practices that have caused movement in the life and power relationships of academics and administrators. It is probably not the most important of the influences, but its influence may grow.

This exercise raises issues about the extent to which a diffuse public policy area such as internationalisation can yield to theory and concepts. Analysis has helped to structure somewhat disparate data. Some conceptualisation with a range of models of higher education policy making has been possible. We follow Teichler (1996) in concluding that for the most part, however, deeper theory has not emerged or been applicable to this area of concern to date. However, Teichler in 1996 stated that internationalisation is essential and increasingly important in the conception and steering of higher education and may be emerging from its pre-paradigmatic phase to become the most important issue next on the higher education agenda: 'the trans-national activities in higher education, for example staff and student mobility, graduate mobility, international knowledge transfer, curricular co-ordination through international networks, matters of recognition, etc. might spread so much that they overshadow the remaining national system characterisitics' (Teichler, 1996: 450).

APPENDIX 1: SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR THE
INTERNATIONALISATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION (refer to p. 61 in main text)

EXISTENCE OF INTERNATIONALISATION POLICIES

1) How do you see your role in/related to the internationalisation of higher education?

2) Has international/supra-national/national government policy had an impact on the internationalisation of higher education?

If so, which government departments are involved?
- i)   European Commission
- ii)   Treasury
- iii)   Foreign and Commonwealth Office/The British Council
- iv)   Home Office (Immigration and Nationality Directorate)
- v)   Department for Education
- vi)   Department for Employment
- vii)   Department for Trade and Industry
- viii) Others e.g. HEQC/QAA; HEFCE; research councils etc.

3) Have policies on quality assurance had an impact on internationalisation e.g. franchising or validation agreements; TQA etc.

4) Have the policies of any other stakeholders had an impact on the internationalisation of higher education in the UK?

- i)   Employers
- ii)   Overseas governments
- iii)   Others

5) Does your higher education institution/department have a policy on internationalisation?

If so, where is it referred to in the institutional literature?

- i)   mission statement
- ii)   strategic plan
- iii)   prospectus
- iv)   others

FORMULATION AND IMPLEMENTATION OF INSTITUTIONAL POLICIES ON INTERNATIONALISATION

6) If an institutional policy does exist, how is it formulated and implemented?

    i)   are there committees or advisory groups and who are members?

    ii)   are there any dedicated roles or units? (i.e. Directors of International Office; Director of European Office; Exchange Co-ordinator; Student Support Officer)

7) Who leads internationalisation at your institution? Do you think this is the best management structure? Have any new roles been created specifically with internationalisation in their remit?

8) Where does funding and other resources come from to support the internationalisation of higher education? Does your institution allocate any part of its budget for this purpose? If so, is it short-term or long-term funding?

INTERNATIONALISATION'S COMPATIBILITY WITH CORE FUNCTIONS OF THE INSTITUTION

9) Are you active in promoting any dimension of the internationalisation of higher education at your institution? If so, is this compatible with your existing everyday work or have changes resulted?

If so, does it include:

    i)   marketing
    ii)   recruitment
    iii)   exchange programmes/networks
    iv)   English language provision
    v)   Pastoral care
    vi)   accommodation
    vii)   alumni
    viii)   others

10) Do you think you should receive incentives/rewards/protected time to promote the internationalisation of higher education?

EDUCATIONAL PROVISION

11) Are you involved in curriculum development? Has the curriculum been adapted specifically for international students?

STAFF DEVELOPMENT FOR THE PURPOSES OF INTERNATIONALISATION

12) Have you received any staff training related to the internationalisation of higher education? If not, what areas what you like training in?

13) Do you think your higher education should be promoting internationalisation? Should there been targets for international student numbers etc?

14) Have you any other final points related to internationalisation that you wish to mention?

.   **APPENDIX 2: EXAMPLE OF EXTRACT FROM NUD.IST QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS PROGRAM (refer to pp. 81-84 in main text)**

CODE 3: Quality Assurance and internationalisation

3 1 Quality Assurance and Codes of best practice

R.UNI.13AD

'An important recent policy development was the introduction of the Higher Education Quality Council (HEQC) and latterly the Quality Assurance Agency (QAA) which is a joint body of the HEFC and the CVCP. Codes of best practice and the quality audit of overseas countries and institutions with whom UK higher education institutions are involved in collaborative provision have been introduced. The QAA produce annual reports on HEI activities and also more detailed country reports. The first Code of Practice was published in 1995 and the second one in 1996. A third edition was produced after the implications of Dearing in 1997'.

R.UNI.17AD

'Higher education institutions have led the agenda on internationalisation and the UK government have only latterly developed policy to establish quality controls on some institutional policies which are tarnishing the reputation of UK higher education institutions in the international market. There has been a sort of free for all amongst universities in getting overseas students which has resulted in some institutions overplaying their hand a bit because they are trying so hard. This suggests to me that the government has not taken a great deal of control'.

R.UNI.13AD

'The QAA have a critical policy view on the evaluation of the international dimension'.

R.UNI.13AD

'The QAA (formerly the HEQC) have definitely got views on things international because they have produced a Code of Practice and I think politicians and civil

servants would say 'that is it, that is our policy view' when asked does the government have a view'.

R.UNI.20AD

'The QAA became involved in policy after there were bad press reports regarding some universities and their collaborative provision arrangements with overseas partners. One nameless institution is franchising at over fifty locations in India. The general perception is that UK higher education is expensive but of undoubted quality at a high level so this is not a good thing in terms of the maintenance of the quality of degrees and selectivity. This is something the QAA is very concerned about'.

R.UNI.13AD

'The QAA therefore started to 'police' in this area'.

R.UNI.20AD

'The Quality Assurance Agency (QAA) probably didn't say our Code of Practice 'would be a great idea - rather we need something like this because the situation is getting out of control''.

3 2 The QAA's country audits

R.UNI.13AD

'The QAA went to India to check our [Lancaster University's] link with an institute in Bangalore, India which was a minor link as Lancaster was one of six institutions forming a consortium for a Masters. This demonstrated the seriousness of the business and the rigour surprised people. What the university was doing in India was pioneering and there were teething problems. It was challenging the QAA's Code of Practice because it was making moves the QAA had not thought of, or no one thought of, so it may have to be reviewed'.

T.UNI.08AD

'We had a lot of trouble with the QAA on the distance learning MBA in Singapore which was first rate, so the university fought them tooth and nail and forced them to re-write the report because they were wrong. It was the first time the QAA group went

overseas and they went out being highly sceptical because of bad publicity relating to some other universities. They misunderstood the relationship between the university and the Henley Management college. They were almost too concerned about process rather than substance. They considered the link was a validation agreement but it was not. It was much more than this - the college was effectively the management school of the university'.

(R.UNI.19AD).

'The QAA have been interested in overseeing what is happening in Greece partly for the sake of Greek students and partly for the sake of the reputation of UK higher education in Greece to check the UK is not just in for the money'.

(R.UNI.13AD).

'I was part of the team that went out to audit Greece and I was surprised the Chair was a very senior person at X (I think the vice-chancellor) because I thought one of the operations that need investigating out there was Hull's in Athens'.

(R.UNI.18AD).

'Dearing does not distinguish become validation and franchising. Collaborative provision is used as a global term so until it becomes clearer it is hard to know exactly what the implications are'.

(R.UNI.13AD).

'Dearing has things to about the quality assurance side and quality of franchising beyond the UK and these are very much part of the QAA's hefty Code of Practice'
'The QAA says no course may be franchised after 2000 unless the QAA have given permission. That was a recommendation from Dearing' (R.UNI.03AD).

(C.UNI.03AD)

'In the post-Dearing era we will have to fight even harder to establish ourselves at the quality end of the market at home and overseas. But we have not gone down the road of franchising even though we have several offers a week from places like Greece, Korea and Thailand. But we have to be sceptical because I have seen the damage it is doing to British higher education in other parts of the world at the moment'.

(R.UNI.20AD).

'We will never, ever franchise - that is our policy'.

APPENDIX 3: MISSION STATEMENTS (refer to p. 91 in main text)

- Royal Holloway's mission 'is dedicated to achieving the highest international standards in teaching and research'. Further, internationalisation is a major objective for the next five-ten years and 'part of the plan is to internationalise the student population'. The 1995 College Plan set a policy objective that 10% of the College's students should come from outside the EU by 1998-99 (i.e. 615 overseas students out of a total population of 6000) and the College was likely to exceed this by 1-2%. There are also other aspects which is to provide a service to international students to meet the academic requirements to successfully study here, such as the provision of the Language Centre'.

- Brunel University's Strategic Plan for 1996-2001 states 'growth in student numbers will come from postgraduate and overseas students' while at the same time 'the university will consolidate its home and EU undergraduate student numbers at around 1995-96 levels, with the intention that this will help ensure the maintenance of quality' (p 3). The Vice-Chancellor's statement to the University Council in 1995 also mentions the growth in student numbers as important.

- Lancaster University explicitly uses the word 'international' in its mission statement. It states that the university 'is committed to achieving high quality teaching and learning programmes to serve the needs of the international communities in which it works'.

- at the University of the West England (UWE): 'International aspects have not been a high priority at Vice-Chancellorial level because national and regional interests are put first and then international, which is different from most traditional universities. The management model is also one of devolvement so faculty can set their own agendas'. However, the Strategy Plan does state that the proportion of 10% of international students is desirable in the overall student population and the policy is to increase student numbers. The Pro Vice-Chancellor stated this was desirable 'for educational reasons as well as social mixing but also because of financial considerations'.

APPENDIX 4: INTERNATIONAL GROUPS (refer to p. 94 in main text)

Lancaster University's International Groups

i)   *in the late 1980s country/region groups*

There were initiatives from the bottom-up when interested academics set up embryonic 'country/region groups' such as the Japan Group or the Europe Group. However, within the country/region groupings a need for a university-wide internationalisation strategy to be developed emerged.

ii)   *an International Committee formed in 1987*

The aim of the committee was to bring more coherence to an ad hoc process. However 'it was typical university talking shop' which was not delivering what was required because 'there was not enough expertise as some members were only representatives'... 'so it was training but in a committee setting' (McGovern). Some of the active members then set out to accomplish the original tasks such as producing written documents setting out internationalisation policy and strategy and not just to discuss issues such as the latest country visits. In 1996 the committee was dissolved.

iii)   *International Steering Group (ISG) formed in 1996*

The group was not a replication of the Committee in terms of representation 'and went for power in the form of making sure senior management were represented and officers were not servicing, but rather full members. The ISG also aimed at providing expertise so that work would take place between meetings and only had eight members and met monthly so 'a small but active group was the idea'. Matters discussed vary from policy, strategy, establishing links, marketing for additional recruitment, data collection and enhancing research profiles. The ISG was significant in revealing there was no adequate information system to do anything in a systematic way and everything was based on anecdotes so the first task was to set up a database. Of more recent concern to the ISG have been the HEQC/QAA Codes of Practice (1995, 1996) and it has now taken on an important quality assurance role.

iv)   all university committees were restructured in 1997

This restructuring included the ISG because the university was in financial crisis. It decided that officers could no longer be full members of committees. This was to make sure power in the institution was on the side of academics again and not the officers. 'There had to be more team building and networking resulting in a more formalised kind of structure'. The original ISG had accomplished good work and were disappointed when there was a revision of membership and the group became larger again. The membership now includes a lay member of the University Council chosen by the Group, Dean of Postgraduate Studies, Dean of Research, two appointments elected by the Senate. Officers in only attendance include the Director of the International Office, the Director of External Relations and the Director of the Exchange and Study Abroad Office. A newly created Pro Vice-Chancellor for Promotion and Marketing also requested membership of the Group which was welcomed and he became chairman. 'He is not a member for his expertise but is there to communicate to senior management and university administration about what is happening with international matters at the university' (McGovern). All the restructuring emphasised the need for a growth in efficiency and accountability that the government also demanded of universities.

v)   European and North American Steering Groups

Lancaster also has the European Steering Group which covered European policy towards student mobility and incoming exchange students. Meetings consist of academics who co-ordinate European exchanges from their own departments as the European Commission first started European mobility off as a departmental matter rather than an institutional one. 'Policy is driven by interested academics rather than the university, so there is usually a bottom-up approach. This is important because it is difficult to keep up out going numbers except in the Management School where reciprocity was maintained'. In comparison to the European exchanges the North American Group is based on university-wide exchange rather than departmental exchanges which is easier to maintain.

Royal Holloway's international groups

i) *Overseas Student Recruitment Group (OSRG)*

This group was chaired by only one member of the senior management team, who is the Vice-Principal for Academic Development. It was a sub-group of the Student Recruitment Committee (SRC) and has international student recruitment in its remit but also includes student and staff exchanges and the development of international research. There were eleven members which include the College Secretary, Dean of the Graduate School, Director of the Language Centre, Officer of the Educational and Schools Liaison Office. The former sub-Dean for overseas students no longer remained as a full member of the Overseas Student Group and is now a co-opted member because a 'seamless approach' to overseas and home students had been adopted. Similarly to Lancaster University, the Vice-Principal tried to end faculty representation because members lacked expertise and the group meetings were weighted down with lengthy agendas: 'although the Group has been effective in terms of recruitment it has not achieved much in terms of wider policy creation'. To solve the problem a business group was formed which reports back to the OSRG.

ii) *European Education Committee (EEC)*

This Committee had responsibility for the Socrates Programme contracts, including admission of visiting students from the EU and CEE countries. It reported to the Academic Planning Committee rather than Student Recruitment Committee (SRC).

iii) *College Admissions Committee being discussed*

To implement a more collective policy it was being proposed by the Vice Principal for Academic Development that all present recruitment committees (SRC, EEC) and their sub-groups (PRG, OSRG) should be dissolved and replaced by a single expert and high powered College

Admissions Committee reflecting the importance of its activities to the develop of the college. The committee would be chaired by the Vice Principal for Academic Development with the Director of Admissions as its Secretary. It would report to the Academic Board receiving recommendations from departments through their faculties. Members would be delegated various tasks and this would replace the myriad of representative sub-committees.

APPENDIX 5: THE CREATION OF INTERNATIONAL OFFICES TO MANAGE INTERNATIONALISATION (refer to p. 97 in main text)

- Lancaster University had the longest policy history of internationalisation as the most traditional university in the study. The International Office was created in 1988 to take advantage of the benefits received from overseas student fees because 'things became so competitive amongst other universities at education fairs'. Previously no organisational structure had existed to take advantage of this and recruit more overseas students. This was initially run by the Postgraduate Admissions Officer on a part-time basis, but this officer later transferred to the International Office of the Management School. A full-time officer was appointed to take over the university's international office with 1.5 clerical support staff. Prior to re-structuring for rationalisation purposes, the International Office was part of the Department for External Relations but had been replaced with a new line manager which was the Registrar. The new structure is now designed for more networking and team building: 'as head of administration the Registrar has more clout and that means the International Office has more leverage and a bigger profile than before, *rather than reporting to the Vice-chancellor or Pro Vice-chancellor*'.

ii)   There was also a European Office and North American Office but restructuring has resulted in a merger in 1997 of the two to become the Study Abroad and Exchange Office. This office deals with approximately 100 reciprocal exchange programmes with Europe and America as well as study abroad and North American Junior Year Abroad (JYA) programmes. The office was managed by the officer who used to run the European Office of the Management School before it became the International Office and this officer created 21 exchange programmes with leading European business schools and a dual degree in European Management as part of a consortium with France, Germany and Spain. This was due to the European Commission's Student Mobility Programme (Erasmus) was structured

so that networks of university departments applied for funding. With
the introduction of Socrates institutions had to apply for funding
instead of departments. The officer was seconded to produce a large
institutional grant because there was no one else to do it so the
impetus did not come from the university but out of need. The North
American Office was run by an academic in the Chemistry Department
since 1980 until retirement. The university also use successfully an
agent in New York. The agent looks after exchange students but also
about 100 JYA students who pay full fees:

- Brunel University had a Director for their new International Student
  Recruitment Office (ISRO). Prior to 1995, the Student Recruitment Office
  had the responsibility for both home and international student recruitment
  but the shift in policy priorities had resulted in the creation of a separate
  office. This was part of the Department for Marketing and Promotions
  when the university merged with the West London Institute in 1995. The
  former Principal of the Institute was put in charge of internationalisation
  which was seen as a demotion because internationalisation was not high
  on the list of university priorities at the time. In 1996 a new Director was
  appointed and given a budget of £80,000 in grants and repayable loans.
  The profits were marginal in the first year because there was expenditure
  on 'meet and greet' schemes and orientation. University resources were
  committed to this so that the policy of recruiting more students could be
  carried out. The Registrar said this policy was not proactive but reactive to
  the cuts in state funding to higher education in the UK. The International
  Office reports to the Academic Secretary and the Strategic Planning,
  Action and Resources Committee (SPARC) which is chaired by the Vice-
  Chancellor. Resources committed to the international office will be issued
  annually depending on the income-generating revenue being provided to
  the university. The ISRO is likely to continue after the two-year
  probationary period because the Vice-chancellor is behind this policy and
  the recruitment drive was a success.

- Royal Holloway (RHUL) had two new senior people with internationalisation as part of their broader remit. The Vice-Principal for Academic Development and the Vice-Principal for Research and Enterprise. The Vice-Principal for Planning and Resources has the responsibility for recruitment intake targets. The College did not have a separate International Office for 'due to a seamless approach adopted' and all student applications were processed through the Education and International Liaison Office (EILO). The main focus of internationalisation is on recruitment and the work is conducted by the EILO which reports to the College Secretary. According to the one administrator 'it works well like this'. However the Vice-Principal proposed a new international office was necessary if internationalisation was to mean more than 'securing lots of fees with cosmopolitan benefits'. If accepted this would be an adjunct of Research and Enterprise and within the remit of the Vice-Principal concerned, with a devolved budget separate to recruitment funds but complementary to them. The Management Board were exploring this possible re-organisation more fully.

The University of the West of England (UWE) had a Pro Vice-Chancellor with internationalisation as part of his/her remit. As a former polytechnic this institution had a higher regional than international profile than the other three institutions. There was no International Office or Officer and there was felt no need to create such an office or role in the future. Power is devolved to faculties and it is up to them to decide if they wish to promote a policy of internationalisation through recruitment, exchange, partnerships or curriculum.

APPENDIX 6: SUPPORT STRUCTURES FOR STUDENTS (refer to p. 106 in main text)

- At Royal Holloway a new seamless approach to support services was provided. This approach meant that international students and home students were provided with exactly the same level of support. This was the result of the Students' Union demanding equality for all students especially since partial tuition fees were introduced for home students as well. However, international students do not pay equal fees but considerably more than home students and the university was conscious of the possible ramifications of this in the future. International students felt they should receive more services as they pay more. The roles of Dean and Sub-Dean of Overseas Students were abolished when the new policy was introduced and the Dean of Students took on the new role. The former Dean and Sub-Dean of Overseas Students were not consulted by management about this re-organisation and were concerned about this but they understood why changes had to be made. The former roles were not policy-making ones but they were concerned with overseas student support needs. In their view, no one in the new Student Support Office had the time to develop expertise which could result in international students receiving less than the best support. Management considered a full-time administrator would be more efficient in this role than two part-time academics. Student support services at the college also included a meet and greet service from Heathrow Airport, a peer-pairing programme and seminars to acquaint new international students with the services available at the college.

- At Lancaster University there was also no segregation of support services or needs for international students. Some of the international PhD students had made complaints because they paid higher fees and some did not have adequate study facilities on campus. Academics who had argued their student's case did not get far with senior management as they were looking from a different 'balance sheet' perspective. Making the university viable and meeting student needs at the same time was a challenge. The university thought that there could be potential knock-on effects when students returned home. Despite this the Student Support Officer agreed that international

students should not be treated differently from home students in terms of the provision of facilities. Both groups of students demanded to be treated as equally as each other.

- At Brunel University the International Student Recruitment Office (ISRO) provided support and information to international students, as well as academic departments. International students complained that it was difficult to find the location of the temporary base of the ISRO but the office was hoping to locate to a more suitable place for pedestrian traffic. Monthly surgeries were held at the other campuses in Osterley, Runnymede and Twickenham but it was difficult to provide a quality service across four campuses. Together with the Student Union the ISRO also mails out a pre-arrival information handbook, arranges a meet and greet scheme at Heathrow Airport, an orientation programme as well as a social reception hosted by the Vice-Chancellor. Prior to the creation of the International Office the university had an Overseas Student Advisor (1976-1996) who was a trained counsellor as well as a part-time academic in the Chemistry Department. In 1996 the ISRO took over the pastoral support role. Brunel University used to also be part of the Hillingdon Overseas Students Association (HOSA) which also included Uxbridge College of Further Education, the London Bible College and nursing students at the nearby Hillingdon Hospital. This faded away when financial support was withdrawn in 1980/81 due to government cut-backs.

- At UWE no central unit had been created for international student support. The Deans wanted management to give special attention to student support because international students and their sponsors were becoming more demanding in terms of the quality of services provided.

APPENDIX 7: ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROVISION

- Lancaster University provided English language support through the Institute of English Language Education (IELE). The institute was based in the Social Sciences faculty and provided academic support to international students at university, departmental and individual levels. The IELE held pre-sessional courses which were paid for by international students themselves while the courses in-session were once financed from the central funds of the university. However due to a financial review in 1997 the Institute was now funded by top-slicing international student fees.

- Brunel University had a Language Centre which ran pre-sessional courses in EFL and ESL for prospective international students. The Centre liaised with agents in Taiwan, Hong Kong and Peiking and used to organise winter study courses but the overseas agents thought these were too expensive. The Centre now just concentrated on pre-sessional summer courses. 70% of these courses were for incoming Brunel University students but more students applied to the university after they had completed the course. Departments had to arrange 'home stay' accommodation as pre-sessional students did not have full access to university facilities such as on-campus accommodation, use of the library, sports centre and student union even though they most were soon to be full-time Brunel University students. However, discussions were taking place about the need to create associate student status so these students could use university services for a reduced fee. One individual academic department, the Law Department, had used their own resources to provide English language courses for Israeli students when they were coming in to the department in large numbers. However, the numbers had fallen as there were now more law course providers in Israel.

    Royal Holloway also provided English language pre-sessional and sessional courses at the Language Centre which was shortly to be moved to the new International Building. The Language Centre admitted students to the Foundation Programme and was involved (in addition to departments) in the admission to the Postgraduate Bridging Diploma programme. The Centre also has responsibility for all exchanges and admissions from Japanese universities.

KEY TO INTERVIEW CODES

C.UNI.XX : Interviewees from College/Federal University (Royal Holloway)

N.UNI.XX: Interviewees from New University (University from the West England)

R.UNI.XX: Interviewees from Research University (Lancaster)

T.UNI.XX: Interviewees from Technological University (Brunel)

AC - Academic

SA – Senior Academic

AD - Administrator

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