Internationalisation: Case studies of two
Australian and United States universities

This thesis is presented for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

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I declare that this thesis is my own account of my research and contains as its main content work which has not previously been submitted for a degree at any tertiary education institution.

Anne-Maree Ruddy
Abstract

Higher education has undergone significant change as universities have sought to respond to government reforms in a period of globalisation. One major reform that globalisation has introduced is the reduction in state funding for higher education. Universities have turned to other resources to provide funding and one of these is the recruitment of international students. The focus of this thesis is on contrasting the internationalisation policies of two nations, Australia and the United States, by analysing published policies, statistics and carrying out interviews on two campuses. Two universities, one in Australia and the other in the United States, served as case studies to examine the strategies used to implement these policies. Approximately 100 participants were interviewed, including administrators and faculty members, international and domestic students.

Each university featured internationalisation as a goal in its mission statement. By integrating intercultural and global dimensions into the teaching, research and service functions of a university, internationalisation encompasses a multitude of activities that provide an educational experience. While administrators generally stated that the implementation of strategic plans to achieve international goals had been successful, many faculty members, domestic and international students were of the view that international goals were yet to be realised. These contrasting discourses revealed that each university was falling short of achieving its internationalisation goals. Faculty members and domestic and international students expressed dissatisfaction about cultural insensitivity, lack of adequate services that offered housing and emotional/social support, and language barriers. At the same time, each university was achieving some of its internationalisation goals. In conclusion, strategies are suggested that might improve the implementation of internationalisation at both universities.
# Table of contents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Title page</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Declaration</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abstract</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table of contents</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>List of figures</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>List of tables</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acknowledgements</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter One - Introduction</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter Two - Literature Review</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter Three - Methods</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter Four - International Overview</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter Five - Australian internationalisation policies</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter Six - Australian case study</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter Seven - United States internationalisation policies</td>
<td>167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter Eight - United States Case Study</td>
<td>189</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter Nine - Discussion: The success of internationalisation at</td>
<td>227</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Riverina and Midwestern</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter Ten - Conclusion: The way forward</td>
<td>263</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendices</td>
<td>283</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix A  Consent letter - US</td>
<td>283</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix B  Consent letter - Australia</td>
<td>287</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix C  Administrator interview protocol</td>
<td>291</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix</td>
<td>Title</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Dean interview protocol</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>Faculty interview protocol</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>International offices interview protocol</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>International student interview protocol</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>Domestic student interview protocol</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>References</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### List of figures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Figure 1</td>
<td>Macro/micro framework</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 2</td>
<td>Q6 Category tree</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 3</td>
<td>Projected global demand for international education</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 4</td>
<td>Increase of tertiary foreign students in OECD countries 1980-1999</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 5</td>
<td>Trends in the number of foreign students enrolled outside their country of origin 2000-2005</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 6</td>
<td>Proportion of international students in tertiary enrolments 2002</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 7</td>
<td>Proportion of international students in tertiary enrolments 2005</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 8</td>
<td>Percentage of foreign tertiary students reported to the OECD who is enrolled in each country of destination 2000</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 9</td>
<td>Percentage of foreign tertiary students reported to the OECD who is enrolled in each country of destination 2005</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 10</td>
<td>Trends in international market shares 2000-2005</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 11</td>
<td>International and domestic enrolments in Australia 1997-2006 Higher Education Sector</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 12</td>
<td>Projected demand for Australian higher education</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 13</td>
<td>General US student data 2006</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 14</td>
<td>Riverina international student enrolment trends 2002-2006</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 15</td>
<td>Midwestern international student enrolment trends 2002-2006</td>
<td>190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 16</td>
<td>Globalisation and Internationalisation cycle</td>
<td>230</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
List of tables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Table 1</td>
<td>Interview participants by category</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 2</td>
<td>Exports of educational services in $US million and as a percentage of total exports in services 1970-2000</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 3</td>
<td>International and domestic enrolments in Australia 1997-2006</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 4</td>
<td>Overseas students in the Australian higher education sector by top 10 source countries</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 5</td>
<td>Top 10 sending places of origin and percentage of total international student enrolments in the United States 05/06</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 6</td>
<td>International and total US domestic enrolments 1997-2006</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 7</td>
<td>Riverina interview participant category and location</td>
<td>129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 8</td>
<td>Midwestern interview participant category and location</td>
<td>192</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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Chapter One

Introduction

This work represents my journey as a citizen and expatriate of one country to becoming a permanent resident of another. My experiences are of two nations, in two cultures and in two higher education systems that seem so similar yet are so different. It was my experience of and recognition of their similarities and differences that led me to inquire into their international education policies. My origins are Australian, of an immigrant Irish father and Australian mother. I have learned the nuances of cultural negotiation being raised in an Anglo-Irish household functioning in an Australian culture. These cultures also appear similar on the surface yet are quite different. I have lived in three Australian states and two states in the US. I have studied at or been associated with three public universities and one private university in Australia and one public and one private university in the US.

According to Erickson (1995) when researching and writing about one’s own country, we study settings that are known to us. Living in the US for some years provided me with an opportunity to vicariously be part of both public and private universities until I was allowed, due to visa status, to obtain gainful employment at a public university. My experiences and interactions with international faculty and students made me curious
about the two systems. The support services provided to us as an international family engaging with a university and the culture shock that we experienced in our new environment encouraged me to gain a better understanding of the policies driving these institutions and their implementation.

**Context of the study**

The overarching concepts guiding this study are globalisation and internationalisation and their intersection with higher education. There have been several images of globalisation presented within the literature in economic, political, and cultural terms (Currie, De Angelis, de Boer, Huisman and Lacotte 2003). Globalisation, although often seen as economically driven by the West, is broader in its terms – it focuses on the impact of the global environment and the consequent changes to the economic, political and social policies of countries. It has created “hybrid world cultures by the mingling of global brand culture and indigenous traditions” (Scott 1998:122). Therefore, internationality is embedded in territorial space and globality transcends that geography (Scholte as cited in Currie et al. 2003:9).

Higher education has developed from the local, to national and international levels and is simultaneously impacted by and responding to the global. Significant changes have occurred in higher education over the last two decades as universities both are subject to and players in the global marketplace (de Wit 2002). This shift “encourages public institutions to behave in market rational ways” (Sassen 2000 as cited in Currie et al. 2003:11) and become “less a part of social policy and more a part of economic policy” (Currie et al. 2003:11).
Internationalisation is an important influence on the practice of higher education. It is a concept which embraces various dimensions: historical, strategic, and societal. In its latest permutation, it is related to globalisation (de Wit 2002). Scott (1998) views that the international aspect of higher education has always been part of the university while De Wit (2002) proposes that the international dimension of higher education was incidental historically while the development of higher education in an organised fashion was a twentieth century phenomenon with its impetus being foreign policy and national security. This international dimension then evolved into a strategic process that de Wit (2002: xvi) identifies as, “the internationalisation of higher education” whereby the traditional forms of international education became strategies that were more directly related to the core functions of the university. This period over the last two decades has been viewed as a shift from providing aid to an economic rationale for the internationalisation of higher education. It is a distinct opportunity to capitalise on the internationalising of universities worldwide. Globalisation provided the impetus for changes in international education policy and for universities to accelerate their internationalisation strategies.

**Aim and significance of the thesis**

This study aims to investigate internationalisation in two universities in Australia and the United States. The macro government policies and micro institutional policies and practices that have led to an increase in the recruitment of international students and the services provided for them will be examined. The narrative of this research describes the local context and considerations within a broader picture with a view to informing internationalisation strategies at the university level, with some limited suggestions for
national polices. This will be achieved by taking into consideration the local in the
global context (Erickson 1992).

This thesis takes a comparative higher education perspective with insights drawn from
the work of de Wit, Slaughter and Leslie, Sidhu and Fiocco in the United States and
Australia. The impetus for this work was a book by Marginson and Considine in
Australia. My goal is to explore the ways in which internationalisation strategies have
been implemented by focusing on how two universities, one in the US and one in
Australia, have interpreted and responded to the phenomenon of internationalisation.
My interest is in the development and implementation of policies for
internationalisation, and the impact of this on key stakeholders: academics and students:
at these two universities.

**Research context**

De Wit (2002) argues that research in higher education should be comparative and
international because of the growing strategic importance of the internationalisation of
higher education. He also suggests that more research on the internationalisation of
higher education is needed. Some researchers have identified international education as
a specialised interdisciplinary and eclectic field of research (Altbach 1997; Cook, Hite
and Epstein 2004). However, there is no consensus on which disciplines should inform
the study of international education.

With the pressures of technology and globalisation transforming higher education,
institutions are required to become more flexible, entrepreneurial and international in
different forms than in the past (Mazzarol and Soutar 2001). To track this developing
phenomenon Mazzarol and Soutar (2001) state that additional research is required. Teichler (2000) determined that most research on international education seems to be occasional and sporadic with few exceptions. Spaulding, Mauch and Lin (2001) continue this thought stating that more case study and descriptive information is required in terms of how universities manage the internationalisation of their programs. These studies in turn would inform policy makers and administrators in governments and higher education institutions (Spaulding et al. 2001). De Wit (2002) suggests that current studies are not explicit or structured enough and that although there are many discrete studies, a comparative approach is lacking. Altbach (2000) argues further that this form of research is of increasing relevance in a globalised environment.

Increased globalisation will mean continuing change and diversity. Cook, Hite and Epstein (2004) argue that new voices and new ideas will contribute to the field of comparative education. It is necessary, therefore, to see internationalisation in present terms while taking into account past perspectives and actions in the internationalisation of higher education (Scott 1998) and provide a basis upon which comparative study can contribute to the debate about the historical and contemporary roles of higher education (Clayton 2004).

Comparative research in education is concerned with cross-national analyses. In their contemporary setting, twenty first century universities are shaped by and respond to globalisation. Bray (2003) and Peters (2003) contend that cross-national forces of change are reflected in the field and argue that the accumulation of knowledge cannot be separated from the world’s move toward economic globalisation. These forces must be analysed with a focus on how education plays a role in social change. Grouping
countries for analysis based on colonial ties, economic alliances, or epistemic cultures, as Manzon in Bray, Adamson and Mason (2007) suggests, may help us map the dynamics of globalisation and attain more holistic understandings of education-society relations through intranational (within-country) and international (between-country) studies. Comparative research can provide valuable insights.

Comparing internationalisation in Australia and in the United States offers an opportunity to analyse two OECD countries that are Anglo-derivatives with similar economic backgrounds. Boyd and Smart (1987:14) contend that Australia and the United States “inhabit almost adjacent huts in the global village.” Although separated by the equator and vastly different in many ways including, population, size, comparative wealth and international influence, there are similarities between the nations. Both nations have a large land mass and are vast in natural resources. The economies of both nations are technologically sophisticated. Physical and economic influences have developed their national characters. “On average, people in both countries have a higher per capita wealth…they share a common language and similar political, economic and social traditions” (Kirst and Hancock 1983:1). The European cultural origins of both countries in their present state encompass laws, systems of government, customs and patterns of economic and social life (Kirst and Hancock 1983). However, society is still very much bound by national factors. The institutions that are part of this case study are referred to by pseudonyms, Riverina University in Australia and Midwestern University in the United States grew out of a national context and are subject to national legislative and funding frameworks. These universities are embedded in a regional context (Huisman and van der Wende 2005; Beerkens and Derwende 2007).
The intention of this thesis is to consider how two institutions have accelerated their internationalisation strategies particularly over the last decade. Both universities have developed an international centre responsible for marketing and management of internationals at the faculty and student level. Equally, both universities co-ordinate international study programs for overseas students who attend on campus and for study abroad. Additionally, both host international organisations. However, the presence of international students does not necessarily create an international university, for it is possible to have such high enrolments of international students yet not make changes to “programmes, services or ethos” (Marginson and Considine 2000:223).

This thesis draws from a range of different perspectives but is basically qualitative in its approach. I chose this method to suit my research needs (Alexander 2006), which were to seek out multiple constructions of the world and to contribute to the understanding of internationalisation (Lincoln 1995). By integrating the data collection with critical reflection, I wanted to provide proposals for action. Although the study takes place in two communities, it has broader implications for other higher education institutions. It provides data that can inform guidelines and approaches to policy issues in the broader educational arena by contributing to an understanding of the global trends in which these institutions operate (Cibulka 1994).

The growth of global competition over the last two decades influenced and destabilised the economies of industrialised nations, such as Australia and the US. The response of policy makers was to reallocate funds among government functions as discussed in the policy chapters. During the past two decades, policy makers of these two nations promoted a market like approach to higher education, focusing on science and
technology policy, curriculum, access, finance and degree of autonomy. These macro-
political economic policies were geared toward increasing economic competitiveness
(Slaughter and Leslie 1997; Sporn 1999). As an example of these changes, it should not
go unnoticed that the international student market in Australia exceeds wheat in export
earnings (Taylor et al. 1997). Studying such policy changes should provide insight into
why certain policy changes occur in higher education.

Policy analysis describes the group of approaches devoted to the study of policy making
and is about the development and application of a variety of social-scientific insights to
help resolve public issues via policy interventions (Hajer 2003). Analysis is an applied
social science that uses multiple methods of inquiry to produce and transform policy-
relevant information that may be used in different settings (Dunn 1981; Cibulka 1994).
“Policy analysis is a set of integrated concepts for framing a thought and action and for
guiding analysis, interpretation and resolution of any problem” (Clark 2002:4). In doing
so, the aim of policy analysis is to track the elements of change in the policy under
examination in its formulation and implementation alongside responses to change and
the attempts to achieve it (Silver 1990; Cibulka 1994; Taylor, Rizvi, Lingard and Henry
1997; Fowler 2004).

Policy development is a sequence of events that occurs at the political or institutional
level usually in response to an issue and involves considering different approaches and
adopting a process for implementation. This process may involve review or evaluation
but that is not always the case. Every policy is a reflection of the values, structures and
traditions of the government or institution. According to Fowler (2004:54), “The
complex social dimensions of a specific place at a particular time constitute its policy
Policy change generally requires a catalyst. It is a formulated response. For example, in Australia, economic needs and desires for universities to be self-sufficient drove the Dawkins era policies at the federal government level. In the US, the crisis of “9/11” adversely affected the internationalisation of higher education. The changing circumstances have resulted in a need to examine these policies and question the motivation of those changes that have been implemented at a policy level nationally and locally. My thesis examines these changing circumstances and the impact that they have had on policy development in both nations.

Globalisation processes had an impact on policy development and the implementation of internationalisation strategies in Australia and the US at Riverina and Midwestern. My analysis contributes to enhancing our understanding of the origins of the policies and the ways in which they were implemented in two universities. With substantive policy information, my analysis can play a role in shaping policy decisions (Cibulka 1994; Raab 1994).

Resource dependence theory helps us understand the nature of specific institutions. The focus of resource dependence theory is “how organisational environments affect and constrain organisations and how organisations respond to external constraints” (Pfeffer and Salancik 1978: xi). Resource dependence theory details responses within organisations as adapters and manipulators of organisational environments in the face of
competing and conflicting demands that need resources from their environment. In essence, there is external constraint of organisations and their actions as they operate in their environment. The dimensions of the environment are not necessarily independent and they become known to the organisation through a process of enactment. There are strategies to cope with these external constraints and efforts to ameliorate external dependence to obtain a degree of organisational autonomy (Donaldson 1995). In higher education the dominant external constraints are the policies and funding mechanisms within which universities operate. As determined by Slaughter and Leslie (1997), this theory can be used to analyse changes in national/federal and local/institutional higher education trends to determine the level of change of universities.

Pfeffer and Salancik’s (1978) work focuses on how organisations enable themselves to survive and how managers go about ensuring the survival of their organisation. Resource dependence is in essence a political struggle with different parties seeking to influence each other to their own advantage (Donaldson 1995). The key to an organisation’s survival is the ability to acquire and maintain resources. Universities have to adapt to external constraints and demands by altering their pattern of dependence by creating interdependence with other organisations. The focus of this research is how universities have adapted to the changing policy environments through their internationalisation strategies. Higher education institutions need to have external income streams and sources. When the organisations no longer have access to the same income stream, they must diversify and seek new resources. The universities have diversified their income stream through growth and explored the establishment of inter-organisational strategies by industry associations and joint ventures such as transnational education (offshore teaching). Institutions have to respond to changing
economic dynamics, creating a dependency on newly developed resources versus the income stream that had previously existed. Strategic choices are made within the institutions that are tied to external pressures and constraints. Institutions can seek to reduce the degree of dependence on external sources by creating their own forms of income (Sporn 1999). Universities therefore are not self contained and are embedded in an environment comprised of other organisations. They in turn depend upon these other organisations for the many resources that they themselves require. Universities are linked to environments by federations, associations and competitive relationships and have become much more consumer driven which has defined and controlled the nature and limits of these relationships and dependencies.

The contribution that this study makes is the analysis of the internationalisation strategies used by the institutions in response to certain external factors. Slaughter and Leslie’s study (1997) forms the basis of understanding some of the external factors that reshaped the conditions of higher education in several countries. The primary focus in my study is how internationalisation strategies were implemented over the last decade in the US and Australia that resulted in an increase in the recruitment of international students. It may be problematic for universities to become reliant on international student enrolments due to market fluctuations and the possibility of a downturn in demand for an overseas education. As environments change, universities may need to change their activities in response to these environmental factors. Using the resources available to them and acquiring alternative resources are issues that face universities. The actions taken by these universities in response to international higher education policy changes at the national level and changes in the global marketplace are examined by looking closely at what happens to the universities, their mission statements and the
implementation of their internationalisation strategies as a consequence of the environment and the constraints of that environment.

Resource dependence theory is used in this research to examine the internationalisation responses of universities to their environments. The effectiveness of the university’s internationalisation strategies and their ability to create acceptable outcomes and actions is determined by the perspectives of internal key informants. The success of the internationalisation strategies is an internal assessment of the usefulness of the resources by the universities. Resource dependence theory is one mechanism I used to unlock the structures and understand the changes in two universities.

The policy chapters discuss Australian and US policies in the national and local contexts and their move toward diversification of their economies to seek new resources. Administrators of the two campuses were quite aware of the responses required by their universities and how government policies were shaping institutional policies and creating conditions for resource dependence (Slaughter and Leslie 1997; Sporn 1999).

The case study approach to my research allowed me to examine the macro and micro issues impacting on these institutions. Macro issues are seen here as those which impact on the national process of policy making. Micro issues referred to throughout the study are those at the university level, and more specifically those that pertain to the impact of policies on individuals who are part of the institution. It is important to bring together macro level analyses of education policies and micro level investigation (Berting, Blockmans and Rosenthal 1987; Ozga 1990). Vidovich (2002) takes this definition further by stating that there is an explicit relationship between the different levels and
contexts of the policy process with a balance between the macro policies and the micro processes.

Case study research can include a variety of data collection methods. This macro/micro study employed several methods – collection and analysis of international, government and university policy documents, international, national and site specific statistics, reports and key stakeholders’ accounts on campuses to contextualise each university within their national setting (Yin 1989; Currie et al. 2003). The framework of the study is represented in the flowchart in Figure 1.

I begin with the international picture and provide background into the changing international education environment in the US and Australia and then turn to the micro practices that shape Riverina and Midwestern. The narratives of key actors are utilised to explain how internationalisation was accelerated at each university and to argue that many responses of administrators to the external constraints can be seen as reactions to globalisation.
Globalisation and internationalisation have been topics of discussion in different academic disciplines over the last two decades. As introduced in the context of this study, the two concepts are interrelated. The complexity of studying these related processes in higher education is in the competing definitions offered by academics. The concepts are utilised in different contexts and are used to identify different dynamics. They may be used to identify, for example, trends in economics, national policies and strategies for internationalising higher education. This chapter examines the rationales for the internationalisation of higher education. Generated from this discussion is greater clarification of the concepts of globalisation and internationalisation and their relationships to higher education.

**Globalisation**

Marginson asks: “Does globalisation simply mean going global, capturing the growing role played by meta-national phenomena and relationships”? (2001:3). There have been several images of globalisation presented within the literature in economic, political, and cultural terms (Currie, De Angelis, de Boer, Huisman and Lacotte 2003; Peters
Rizvi and Lingard (2000:421) agree in that they see “globalisation as an essentially contested term that refers to diverse processes embracing political, social, technological, economic and cultural changes” — a term which “could be described as a set of economic, cultural and political processes that in various ways make supranational connections” (Lingard and Rizvi 1998:258). Porter and Vidovich (2000:449) write of globalisation as a concept to be “considered as both a sought after dream and a dreaded devil, an empirical reality and rhetorical myth, a new phenomenon causing worldwide change….Whatever it actually is, it is clearly the hegemonic discourse of the late twentieth and early twenty-first centuries.” Sadlak (1998) perceives that whatever specific characteristics tend to be associated with globalisation, it is an expression of ‘new geopolitics’ in which control over access to trade is more important than control over territory.

Dudley (1998) argues that it is not economic interdependence alone that equals globalisation but the Western influences into local cultural and economic practices that are necessary to any notion of globalisation. Despite this identification of the cultural and political forms of globalisation, it is the economic dimension that dominates the agenda of governments of Western nation states as they position themselves in global markets (Porter and Vidovich 2000). This is not to say that “globalisation is not bound up with the emergence of the knowledge society that trades in symbolic goods, worldwide brands, images as commodities and scientific know how” (Scott 1998:127). It includes new communications and media, language and symbols as well as finance economics and transportation. Marginson and Considine (2000:47) agree that “it is as much about the cross-global movement of people and ideas as about markets and
Globalisation affects each country in a different way due to a nation’s individual history, traditions, culture and priorities. Sassen (2000 in Currie et al. 2003:6) emphasises that there is “a significant overlap and dynamic interaction between the global and the national. The global and the national are intertwined.” Scott (1998) cites John Urry in arguing that globalisation is the changing configuration of time and space, conceptually as well as technologically. According to Giddens (1994), it is compulsory to combine the global with the local. Globalisation unto itself is not a people exercise and as Gupta (2003) argues, it has originated from a need to integrate world economies under the umbrella of modernisation.

Whichever view is adopted, it can be argued that globalisation is causing substantial time-space compression in a shrinking world (Robertson 1992). It is therefore, as Marginson and Considine (2000) elaborate, a global environment where national institutions co-exist with global ones. It is a process enhanced by migration, travel, media and forms of communication. This is not to say that the national boundaries have disappeared; they have become meshed in many forms where “economic, social and cultural arenas…have transcended national borders to reach regional or global levels” (Law 2004:255). Taylor and Henry cite globalisation theorists in arguing that “globalisation exerts simultaneous impulses for convergence and fragmentation, for universalism and localism” (2000:502).
Marginson (2001) states that the finance sectors have propagated the idea of
globalisation as a world market and Porter and Vidovich (2000) develop this
perspective suggesting that economic globalisation refers to the international integration
of economies and systems of communication. It includes markets, capital, labour and
the production and distribution of goods and services. Jones (1998:143) also develops
his view of globalisation in economic terms as economic integration, achieved “through
the establishment of a global marketplace marked by free trade and a minimum of
regulation.” Sklair (1999) believes that while all globalisation researchers may not
accept the existence of a truly global economy most do recognise the impact on local,
national and regional economies as a result of the processes of globalisation. Scott
(1998) concludes that global empires may be inescapable if globalisation is seen merely
as an intensification of the global-brand and high technology culture of the West.

If viewed as a feature of capitalism, globalisation can be seen as the increasingly
unimpeded flow of information, capital and labour accelerating interconnections and
interdependencies (Stanley 2000; Welch 2002; Sidhu 2006). Bloland (1999:111) in a
review essay of Slaughter and Leslie’s and Greider’s work sees globalisation as, “the
speeded-up, hugely enlarged, and extreme version of an environment dominated by the
business values of competition for market shares, cost reduction, efficiency, and
bottom-line profit.” It is a widening and deepening of world wide interconnectedness
(Held, McGrew, Goldblatt and Perraton 1999).

Ultimately, globalisation has become a series of flows where an instantaneous exchange
of information, capital and cultural communication now enhance the global economy
(Fitzsimmons 2000). This phenomenon is evident in the development of global and
financial markets with the emergence of organisations such as the General Agreement
on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) and the World Trade Organisation (WTO) as well as
geographic dispersal of factories, offices, service outlets and markets (Fitzsimmons
2000). By influencing expectations in this way, commercialisation (globalisation)
embodies its own dynamic (Hirsch 1976; Held et. al.1999).

The obvious negative of globalisation is that it brings with it, as Jones (1998) explains,
an economic dynamic that is associated with a shift in how we view statehood. The
development of supranational bodies implies a relinquishing of national powers (Dudley
1998). These organisations become major players in national agendas (Dale 2000;
Taylor and Henry 2000), which include the rise to global dominance of transnational
corporations (Brantlinger and Sorenson 2004). This means a freedom from state
supervision and regulation both domestically and internationally. One also has to
consider the issue of democracy and how it is central to the forces of globalisation.
There are minimum conditions required for consumer based market capitalism (Sklair
1998). These conditions are not present worldwide and create imbalances among
nations. Brantlinger and Sorenson (2004) also allude to other negative consequences of
globalisation: undermining organised labour, commodification of global culture and
environmental degradation which paint globalisation as a destructive rather than a
positive force.

However, a purely economic view of globalisation is a limited one. An economic view
then only considers the influence of the ‘West’ or a movement that originates in the
developed world. Scott (1998) suggests that globalisation should be seen in a wider
context, one that encompasses global environmental changes, political and social
conflicts and the growth of hybrid world cultures. There is without question a link between the economic and the political nature of globalisation where economies influenced by global markets are inextricably linked to the politics of a nation. National issues are discussed in the context of a global perspective, where powerful organisations are predominant over national organisations and where there are fluid and multi-centric relations (Jones 1998). Cultural globalisation refers to the increase in cultural connections (Porter and Vidovich 2000). Global implies social and economic forces operating supranationally and transnationally to override national boundaries (Dale 2000). Jones (1998) describes the outcome of these forces as a de-territorialised religious, cosmopolitan diversity where there is global transmission of images and information, a world where there is universal tourism. Fitzsimmons (2000) stipulates that globalisation is not just another transcendent ideal but a “set of identifiable practices that also produce dialectics and difference: the more intensive the forces of globalisation, the more intense are the surges of dialectic and difference” (520).

According to Blackmore (2000), globalisation should be viewed as:

- a partial, erratic, and non-unitary process – a series of flows that move in nonisomorphic overlapping and contradictory paths, flows that are relatively self-generating and independent across a range of levels, and which have differential effects on nations, communities, and individuals (468).

Fowler argues (in Taylor and Henry 2000:499) that while nation states may be influenced by globalisation, these are “filtered through a prism of national characteristics such as economic resources, policymaking processes and national values.” Globalisation offers the opportunity to examine the character of the nation
state where nationhood and statehood are still important in a globalising world (Lingard and Rizvi 1998; Law 2004).

Globalisation theorists argue that by necessity the nation state is becoming more porous given the expanded polity now involved in the process of government (Taylor and Henry 2000) whereby the forces of globalisation have stimulated transformation in the public sphere at national and sub-national levels (Law 2004). Yang (2002) describes globalisation as an extension of historical imbalances linked to Western colonisation and dominance. Lapyese (2003:493) extrapolates this by stating that globalisation is a “ubiquitous force” that erodes the nation state. It is a complex and multidimensional phenomenon socially constructed to exacerbate tensions between local and global dynamics. Bloland (1999) states that like Slaughter and Leslie, Greider sees a global transformation taking place to a free running world economic system. It is a system which is overpowering politics and the nation state. However, Sidhu (2006) argues, the nation state does not have to be eroded or eradicated but inevitably change occurs with this global transformation.

There is seen to be an overall globalisation of our societies described by Leyton-Brown (1996) as a “wide variety of technological, economic, cultural, social and political trends, all pushing the boundaries of our social systems wider than the borders of our nation states” (in de Wit 2003:142). Sklair (as cited in Clayton 2004) argues that contemporary problems cannot be studied at the level of nation states but must be examined in terms of global processes. Globalisation should be viewed as a multi-dimensional process which unfolds in economy, politics and communication (Lee 1999). This process is not one which is limited to or as Pieterse (in Lee 1999) asserts
located in the West. There is a plurality of national responses to global forces. It is a process of hybridisation which encourages different responses from different nations (Sidhu 2006).

The overriding concern here is the perceived origin and impetus from the West, particularly the United States, “colonizing the periphery in a unilateral flow outwards” (Blackmore 2000:47). Interestingly, Readings (1996) defines globalisation as ‘Americanisation’. Marginson and Considine (2000) further question as to whether the world has been integrated into one American world by globalisation or united in certain ways but with gaps, dislocations and differences. Is globalisation as Peters (2003) argues simply a monolithic and homogenizing model?

Yet, globalisation does not have to be seen as a negative development. While it is true that local and national sovereignty can be reduced as a consequence of globalisation (Sadlak 1998), there can be positive consequences — namely, the development of communication processes that have enhanced possibilities for connectedness in the rapid exchange of information and the development of global networks (Marginson and Considine 2000). The greatest contributor here, Sadlak (1998) states, is the internet, providing a globalised circulation of information which has become a powerful cultural instrument. Equally, the increased mobility of individuals can only enhance international knowledge exchange toward the greater good with a radical decentralisation of scientific capacity (Scott 1998). Finally, there are opportunities for the development of a tolerance of a more pluralistic world (Currie et al. 2003).
Fitzsimmons (2000) argues that the world in another sense has always been global after centuries of exploration, exploitation and colonisation and also in an ecological sense. Globalisation, Porter and Vidovich (2000) argue, “Is about international networks, integration of economies, and connection of cultures. It is the global in the local and the local in the global” (459). Marginson and Rhoades (2002) propose a glonacal analytical heuristic for understanding the mutually global, national and local elements that are now present in higher education.

The many alternative viewpoints presented above are considered for the purpose of this thesis and research, but it is Knight's definition of globalisation which is ultimately adopted here. Knight defines globalisation as “the flow of technology, economy, knowledge, people, values and ideas…across borders” (1997 as cited in deWit 2002:143).

Internationalisation

Unlike globalisation, Yang (2002) suggests that internationalisation is more closely tied to the specific history, culture, resources and priorities of a location. Different interpretations of internationalisation are put forward by researchers. This in itself argues, Welch and Denman (1997), reflects that internationalisation has mostly occurred in an ad hoc and incremental fashion. Developments of regionalisation, where groups of states have associated themselves in order to facilitate various forms of integration — economic, cultural and scientific (Sadlak 1998) — can be viewed as the stepping stone for internationalisation. Scholte (2003) views global relations as conceptually different from international relations, “Whereas international relations are
interterritorial relations, global relations are super territorial relations. International relations are cross-border exchanges over distance, while global relations are trans-border exchanges without distance...Internationality is embedded in territorial space; globality transcends that geography” (as cited in Currie et al. 2003:9).

Internationalisation requires agreements between or among nations to further cultural and diplomatic exchanges. Ideally, Currie et al. (2003:9) write, “internationalisation should lead to a world where neither one culture nor economic system dominates, rather where a plurality of cultures and ethnic diversity is recognised and valued.” Unlike globalisation, which is fostered in a democratic, capitalist system, internationalisation does not rely on a democratic system of government. However, it is perceived by Goldmann (1994) that democracy in the tradition of internationalist thinking is more likely to lead to peace and security if states are democratic rather than authoritarian.

Throughout recent history, world organisations have been established that promote internationalisation in an effort to contribute to a more tolerant world, particularly the United Nations (Currie et al. 2003). Threatening this view of internationalisation, the OECD in 1996 encouraged views of internationalisation as a preparation for a global economy. Currie et al. (2003) suggest that this shift in itself denotes a move from tolerance to cosmopolitanism, to thinking of internationalisation as globalisation. The way forward, writes Jones (1998), is to consider which elements of international structures are seen as aligned with the democratic ideal and which others can be seen as the vanguards of globalisation. Internationalisation relies on relationships between nations and therefore is a different starting point than that of globalisation, where
globalisation ignores the existence of nations and their diversity seeking out more differences than similarities (de Wit 2002).

**Globalisation of education**

Porter and Vidovich (2000) argue that universities cannot ignore the issues of globalisation. While there may be dangers involved, there may also be new opportunities. Rundle (1992 as cited in Bigum et al. 1993) notes that there are new possibilities in the role that education can play in the global exchange system. As Yang (2002) comments, universities are by nature international institutions, ones which are according to Taylor et al. (1997) subject to a particular “political climate, a social and economic context which together influence the shape and timing of educational policies as well as their outcomes” (as cited in Lee 1999:2). These policies need to be understood in their national and cultural contexts (Lee 1999).

Higher education is subject to continuous change as it responds to globalisation processes (Cunningham 1998; Fiocco 2005); yet Newson (1998) cites several authors in concluding that there are links between universities and globalisation that may be two-way rather than one way, where universities could exert more influence over these globalisation forces due to their unique position in society. On the one hand, Teichler (2004) observes that there are opportunities for higher education with communication, co-operation and mobility in other areas around the world; on the other hand, Scott (1999) notes that universities are challenged by globalisation because of their close alliance to national cultures. Marginson (2004a:25) states that, “it would be a mistake to view the worldwide environment as a network of institutions that bypasses nation states. Education continues to be regulated nationally.” Universities belong to nation states and
must continue to function within their own legislative frameworks being ever mindful of globalisation.

Going global, according to Jones (1998), means the emergence of new patterns of economic organisation – new structures, new systems and new modalities. There are pressures upon countries with the globalisation of the economy and each country’s position in that economy (Rhoades and Smart 1996). Wirt (1987) suggests that a useful framework for analysis of such responses is the ‘global village’ concept of a highly interdependent world, an interconnectedness of many of the social, cultural and economic resources of the nation states of the world (Bigum, Fitzclarence, Kenway, Collier and Croker 1993). Scott’s (1999) view is that higher education is likely to be affected by this development.

The implications are seen to be varied across campuses depending on previous institutional history and mission as well as contextual factors (Porter and Vidovich 2000) for not all universities are international yet all are subject to the same processes of globalisation (Scott 1998). Education has been central to national responses to globalisation as Blackmore (2000) states. It is both the source of labour where globalisation has required an increasing requirement for trained citizens which realistically only higher education institutions can provide (Sadlak 1998) and for many nations it is a source of export income. Smart (1997) suggests that the globally dominant ideologies have led governments to seek increased steerage of their higher education institutions in order to harness them more directly to economic goals. Porter and Vidovich (2000) agree, stating that many analysts have argued the implications of
globalisation for higher education particularly in terms of its relation to national
development and to work within the universities themselves.

This process is seen to have begun with transnational education where national
boundaries have been crossed (de Wit 2002; Marginson 2004b). Globalisation heightens
the historically transnational nature of universities (Porter and Vidovich 2000). Porter
and Vidovich (2000:461) also argue that, “the academy has always been a borderless
place” by, ”the convergence in the structures and policies of systems of higher
education around the world” (Kerr 1994b in de Wit 2002:145). Mason shows that there
is an “increasing differentiation of the education market around the world, and hence
the scrambling for position in that global market by existing as well as new education
that a revolution as significant as the changes that took place in the late 19th century has
already taken place in higher education. There is no question that, “Globalisation is
perhaps the most fundamental challenge faced by the university in its long history”

Globalisation is affecting the higher education sector but according to Gibbons (1998)
“is doing so by absorbing universities into a distributed knowledge production system”
(73). The pace of knowledge development is skyrocketing as a consequence of the
availability of new technologies and universities are adapting as a response (de Wit
2002). Globalisation is calling into question the traditional role of universities where the
triple helix of university, industry and government relations is an expression of the new
global economy (Etzkowitz and Leydesdorff 1997). As a result, new paradigms of
knowledge production are developing, with much more emphasis placed upon
knowledge transfer and applied research (Scott 1999). Globalisation of the economy has put pressures on universities to dissolve boundaries between nations and institutions, providing the opportunity for a distributed knowledge production system (Gibbons 1998; Sidhu 2006).

As a consequence of globalisation there has been a steady increase in the numbers of higher education students traversing the globe (Gibbons 1998; Scott 1998) or flows of students moving from one country to another in pursuit of higher education qualifications as is described in Chapter Four. Gibbons (1998) asks as to whether these flows are an indicator of globalisation while Rizvi (2000) suggests that these cross-national flows need to be analysed within the context of a new world order. As Sadlak (1998) points out, the pattern of student flows has hardly become more globally balanced with more than three quarters of all foreign study taking place in just ten nations.

With the establishment of markets of diverse competing institutions, the key terms of the global economy in relation to higher education became choice and diversity (Porter and Vidovich 2000). Smyth (as cited in Porter and Vidovich 2000:455), Fiocco (2005) and Sidhu (2006) argue that globalisation has had an impact on higher education policy and produced changes in the sector. Marginson looks to the overall view where higher education in a global context can be seen in layers of practices: “a site of teaching and learning and intellectual and cultural production; a site where social status is produced and regulated; a site of economic exchange; and a site where economic profits are made and capital accumulated” (2004a:6). Slaughter (1998) details numerous reactions in higher education policy to globalisation: significant per capita government budget
reductions, a push to diversify income, increased commodification of knowledge as intellectual property, reorganisation of higher education by national governments, increased power of politicians, pressures on new forms of accountability, quality movements, pervasive discourses on managerialism, different levels of commitment to social justice and equity issues in higher education, a preoccupation with higher education finance issues and an intensified public and political debate about the role of universities in contemporary society.

Globalisation has managed to shape perspectives on educational reform (Rizvi and Lingard 2000) with the emergence of global perspectives influencing policy making processes in education. Education policy, argue Rizvi and Lingard (2000:423-424), “is now often conceptualised as a central plank of national economic planning.” Wirt (1987) wrote that national leaders are “caught up in international forces about which they can do little but play around the margins” for “each nation seems a hut, feeling separate but actually responsive to outside forces sharing common ideas and strategies in their separate responses” (136). McNeely and Cha propose that these responses may be driven by “international organisations which influence the incorporation and diffusion of educational ideologies and practices within and among nation states” (in Taylor and Henry 2000:489) allowing for policy borrowing or adaptation across boundaries (Taylor and Henry 2000:500). Universities are shaped by local agency, national policies and global flows (Marginson 2004b).

**Internationalisation of higher education**

According to Husen (1994), global interdependence and global education demanded internationalising of education. The Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada
(AUCC) concluded in 1993 that “there is no simple, unique or encompassing definition of internationalising the university. It is a multitude of activities aimed at providing an educational experience within an environment that truly integrates global perspective” (as cited in de Wit 2002:109). Similarly, the European Association for International Education (1992) determined that the internationalisation of higher education covers a broad range of activities.

Jane Knight (1993) adopts a process view of internationalisation: higher education is the process of integrating an international/intercultural dimension into the teaching, research and service functions of the institution. As Welch (2002) illustrates and this thesis elaborates, Knight’s taxonomy of political, economic, academic and cultural rationales is the most effective for internationalisation. Ebuchi (1990) agrees that the internationalisation of higher education is a process whereby the “functions of the higher education system become internationally and cross-culturally compatible” (as cited in Yang 2002:83). While this definition of the internationalisation of higher education, states de Wit (2002), has been widely accepted as the working definition in education, it does not sufficiently emphasise the historical dimension of the internationalisation of higher education (de Wit 2002).

**Historical internationalisation of education**

The university is the one institution that has always been global and international (Currie 1998; Altbach 1998; Teichler 2004). It is the institution historically that provided a pilgrimage of learning in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries and later in the fifteenth century short-term study abroad and migration (de Wit 2002) with Latin as the common language. The curriculum was consistent across European nations until the
development of the nation state where European nations became differentiated, yet there were still periods of a flow of ideas and a common language in French across cultural boundaries. Unfortunately, this domain of international cultural relations and exchange was altered in the second half of the nineteenth century by the strong emergence of political and cultural nationalism (de Wit 2002). The development of nation states in this way then determined that universities would become national before they were again to become international (Scott 1998).

Throughout this period, de Wit (2002) notes, there was an exportation of systems of higher education. There was a substantial impact of colonial powers on their colonies that influenced when colonies became independent states. In addition to the systems themselves, there was also research and scholarly exchange on an international level and at various levels, student and scholar mobility, but the focus was on the development of national identity rather than universal knowledge (de Wit 2002). These influences continued with the arrival of the twentieth century. There was a move toward more international co-operation and exchange in higher education with the creation of the Institute of International Education (IIE) in 1919 in the United States, the Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst (DAAD) in 1925 and the British Council in 1934 (de Wit 2002). The focus at this point in history was predominantly on scholars. A shift in emphasis post World War I moved international academia toward political rationales of peace and understanding with the creation of the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, created in 1921 under the auspices of the League of Nations (de Wit 2002). Yet, up until the twentieth century, most of the student movement had been from the United States, Canada and Australia to Europe rather than the reverse (de Wit 2002).
After World War II, international education became dispersed from Europe with many academics moving to other nations. This acceleration of divergence as Kerr (1990) refers to it, was a consequence of intensification of international, military and economic competition and can be seen as a period in which the international dimension of higher education moved from the incidental and individual to organised activities and projects, based mainly on political rationales and driven by national governments rather than by higher education itself. Student movement, academic flows and collaboration between institutions in different countries are aspects of the internationalisation of higher education (Scott 1998). As an example, area studies programs became popular because their impetus was military. American higher education received a boost post World War II with Cold War competition, a prosperous US economy and an expanding student population that was influential in shaping models of higher education abroad (Marginson and Considine 2000).

The development of the contemporary university is a product of the nation state, influenced by colonial factors and guided by the interests of nation states where there is an increase of border crossing activities: physical mobility, academic co-operation and academic knowledge transfer amidst a persistence of national systems (Teichler 2004). Marginson (2001) argues that international education grew substantially through both individual (student-university) and public (government to government) initiatives. He determines that there has been an accelerating growth in educational traffic. Major universities, proposes Marginson (2001), have become shapers of the meta-national and the students as agents of the global society whereby international education facilitates the formation of a global elite.
Kerr (1994) judges that it has been a century of transformation from nation state toward a more universal convergence where universities best serve their nations by serving the world of learning. Scott (1998) sees universities as national institutions created to fulfil national purposes and proposes that internationalisation reflects the world order dominated by nation states. As a result, Scott views internationalisation as influenced by the persistence of neo-colonial patterns and as Rhee and Sagaria (2004) in their review of articles appearing in the *Chronicle of Higher Education* refer to the impact of imperialism on the internationalisation of higher education.

**Rationales for internationalisation of higher education**

There are many participants in the internationalisation of higher education. They include policy makers and administrators of governments and institutions, faculty members, students, business and industry, parents of students and the public at large. In addition to the localised participants, there are sponsoring and funding agencies and international and various specialised agencies (Spaulding, Mauch and Lin 2001).

Teichler (1999) asks why internationalisation is such a rising phenomenon. Knight (1994) suggests that there is no single motivation for internationalisation of higher education but there are different imperatives. Rationales, according to de Wit (1998, 1999), are “motivations for integrating an international dimension into higher education” (as cited in de Wit 2002:84). They address the ‘why’ of internationalisation, for different rationales correspond to different means and ends to internationalisation.

Knight (1997) defines four rationales for the internationalisation of higher education: political, economic, social-cultural and academic and other writers follow this division.
The political rationale is first linked to the internationalisation of higher education in terms of foreign policy where education is a form of diplomatic investment (de Wit 2002). Closely related to foreign policy is the need for national security, for example, in the United States in the period of the 1960s to 1980s (de Wit 2002). A third aspect of the political rationale is technical assistance and development co-operation whereby institutional projects, sending experts, providing training programs and scholarships by national governments and international organisations were known as the “aid” of international education. In the political arena the humanitarian motivation for internationalisation can often be overshadowed by political motivations but there are examples of internationalisation of higher education that have occurred for humanitarian reasons, sometimes termed as a peace making force (de Wit 2002). The cultural and political motivations for the internationalisation of higher education can at times be intertwined, for the emphasis can be on the exportation of cultural and moral values of the host nation (de Wit 2002). This motivation is sometimes called into question, for is it the promotion of one nation’s ideology to another? This is certainly a question also posed regarding the United States’ aims (Marginson 2004b). Allen (1999) points out that it is often seen to be in the United States’ advantage to “Americanise foreign students…which helps us when these students become leaders in their homelands” (as cited in Rhee and Sagaria 2004:90).

Underlying the political motivations, national and regional identity may be called into question when students study abroad. There are examples of students who have completed their studies abroad and returned to their home country with an enhancement of national identity. Alternatively, a large scale study conducted in Australia for the
Australian Bureau of Immigration concluded that there was a strong link between a student’s experience while studying and their desire to immigrate to their host country (Mazzarol and Soutar 2001). This tendency was identified in a study conducted by the OECD where sixty percent of doctoral students from particular sending counties had ‘firm plans’ to stay in the United States upon completion of their degree (Tremblay 2002). Rhee and Sagaria (2004) suggest that some international students willingly reconstitute their identities across national borders. The establishment of regional blocs are evident in Europe with the development of European Union programs as well as Asia, including Australia. This signals a definite link between the socio-cultural rationale and the political one in terms of preservation of cultural identity (de Wit 2002).

On a different level, internationalisation of higher education is more often than not focused on the student, providing experiences for students either from their own study abroad experiences or from the presence of international students in their domain. This social aspect of the internationalisation of higher education focuses on the opportunities and benefits provided to students to expand their perspectives (de Wit 2002; Mazzarol and Soutar 2001; Teichler 2004; Dolby 2004). Scott (1998) agrees that “higher education fulfils important social functions. As agents of cultural mobility, universities are distributors of life-chances as well as, in partnership with the rest of the educational system, enhancing the life chances of everyone” (111). In the international arena higher education provides the opportunity to become a significant area of social and cultural development (Barnett 1990) where study abroad experiences are but one small sector of global movement (Dolby 2004). It is here that Lambert (1989), in his evaluation of study abroad experiences of American undergraduate students, concluded that students
were not focussed on the academic benefits but on the social benefits of their time abroad.

Internationalisation can either be integral and embedded into the function of an institution or peripheral to it. The most successful models of internationalisation are those that have internationalisation as integral to their function in all areas of their operations. The principles for internationalising an institution depend upon the goals and objectives established whether it be general studies, language programs, area studies or to make global education pervasive throughout the curriculum (Scott 2001). An international approach to teaching, learning, research and service is crucial for an understanding of the complexities of issues that are truly international (de Wit 2002). Internationalisation strategies, such as curriculum focus, study abroad programs, faculty and student exchanges, area studies and centres, foreign language courses and joint and cross-cultural research initiatives (de Wit 2002), are approaches which enable students, faculty and staff to participate and function in an international context. Academic rationales can exist alongside social rationales for the internationalisation of higher education. This is a critical benefit of higher education to society whereby students are provided with capacities and skills that enrich the society (Ramphele 2000).

The points of leverage found in every institution are: the mission statement; the strategic plan; annual academic program and administrative unit reviews; annual goals and objectives for senior officers; annual budget requests and allocations; staffing decisions; funds for faculty and curriculum development, annual awards, rewards and other forms of recognition; the Trustees’ agenda and fund raising, both public and private (Scott 2001:163) With internationalisation as a clear goal, international
education is to “help ensure that students have the ability to understand themselves in relation to those from different backgrounds and understanding others in relation to themselves” (Scott 2001:165).

Green (2002:16) outlined the common ingredients that are vital to success of the internationalisation of a campus:

- An intentional, integrative, and comprehensive approach
- Strong leadership from the top
- Leadership throughout the institution
- Widespread faculty engagement
- A commitment to meeting student needs
- An ethos of internationalization and
- Supporting structures and resources.

Trubek (2001:312) added that there is a need to be innovative and to refocus on new needs of students and “restructure the alliances on which interdisciplinary enterprise is built.” These initiatives include the development of global studies programs that deal with comparative cultures, global topics and cross-regional issues.

In developing strategies for internationalisation, institutions must consider the variables of cultural and geographical locations to determine how they may relate to the international context. Knowledge is disciplinary based but how can it be constructed and implemented in the global context? (O’Regan 2001) de Wit (2002) argues that the disciplinary differences are underrepresented in research on internationalisation as there
are big differences between approaches, rationales and strategies of institutions and disciplines themselves.

Van der Wende’s (1996a) research on internationalising the curriculum in higher education defines the international curriculum as one which has “an international orientation in content aimed at preparing students for performing in an international and multicultural context and designed for domestic and/or foreign students” (53). It is a curriculum which is relevant to science, law, technology, politics and business. It is not a curriculum purely about content but also about process (Leask 1999). The concern expressed by Gupta (2003) is that in response to internationalisation the curriculum may become driven by economic market forces rather than knowledge for knowledge sake.

There may be strategic reasons for a move towards an internationalised curriculum and there are certainly geographical foci for regional blocs (van der Wende 1996a). Not only are the internal structures within the institution and its position in the national context relevant to the development of an international curriculum but also, the degree of autonomy of faculty members influences the process of internationalisation of the curriculum (van der Wende 1996a). For internationalisation of the curriculum to be successful, van der Wende (1996a) argues that strongly motivated individuals and significant institutional support are necessary for, as Leask (1999) suggests, “internationalising university curricula is a powerful and practical way of bridging the gap between rhetoric and practice to including and valuing the contribution of international students” (1).
There are also academic benefits of studying abroad where students can locate particular programs of interest in another country. This in turn encourages international co-operation between universities and the development of academic networks to facilitate and embellish further learning. An underlying factor here is the need for quality assurance not only in the programs themselves but comparatively across institutions internationally in order to receive recognition in the international arena (de Wit 2002).

There has been a change in rationales from political, socio-cultural and academic to economic rationales (de Wit 2002). A strategic goal of the internationalisation of higher education is the expansion of educational markets across national boundaries (O’Regan 2001). That is not to say that the rationales for the internationalisation of higher education are purely economic but they are certainly dominant. A study of national policies of Europe showed that there was an increase in the concern for international competence and competitiveness (van der Wende 1997) and for the United States, observed that the internationalising of education was observed to be a way to help restore economic competitiveness (Lyman 1995).

Part of the impetus for this development is the perceived need by governments of individuals who need to be able to work in an international environment and compete in an international labour market (de Wit 2002). The need for such an international educational outlook has propelled students and faculty to look beyond their own borders for provision of sufficient higher education programs where their own countries do not have adequate higher education infrastructure to accommodate the needs of all of their own country’s students (de Wit 2002).
Australia is one example of how higher education has become big business with education becoming the country’s number one export product (Smart and Ang 1993; Pratt and Poole 1998, de Wit 2002). The United States ranked international education as their fifth largest export industry (Rhee and Sagaria 2004). Marginson and Considine (2000:48) develop this proposition, stating, “universities are the site of one of the growing global markets, a market that is people centred and culturally based, and itself one of the causes and carriers of global change: the market of international students.”

Academic capitalism as coined by Slaughter and Leslie (1997) is a driving force to internationalise higher education. A number of macro studies referred to by Spaulding, Mauch and Lin (2001) suggest that international students are a new resource, contributing to the country in tuition fees and living expenses. The introduction and development of such corporate practice has given higher education an entrepreneurial management style leading to changing institutional missions and structures (Marginson and Considine 2000). Reece (The Australian 28/5/1997) argues that the effects of such a policy are destructive (as cited in Smart 1997:38). International students are portrayed as important sources of capital, with the currently enrolled international students seen as commodities – a resource to be marketed and expanded to the alumni – and as important sources of capital gifts. In addition to this view of income, Rhee and Sagaria (2004) also detail views of international students as cheap labour.

Higher education institutions sponsored by their governments have engaged in marketing activities where education has become a service industry (Mazzarol and Soutar 2001). “Politicians believe that investment in higher education can be translated into comparative economic advantage” (Scott 1998:110). Since education is people-based, there is a relationship established between the student and the delivery of the
service, the service provider determines the extent to which they will meet the needs of
the individual, in this case, the student. This ability to service students can fluctuate
with demand (Mazzarol and Soutar 2001).

There is no doubt that the internationalisation of higher education has become a service
industry, a marketable product where business practices have been adapted to
universities (Currie 1998; Rizvi 2004; Sidhu 2006). Universities are now subject to the
market forces of international education. Students are knowledgeable about
international educational providers and how students will pay a high price for their
international education experience but value for money is still an important
consideration (Mazzarol and Soutar (2001). The questions for universities include will
they price their product and if so how will they choose to do so? Different policies
operate in different countries as well as differentiation between private and public
institutions. In Australia in the 1990s broad guidelines were used to provide a degree of
uniformity across higher education institutions (Mazzarol and Soutar 2001). These
guidelines attempted to ensure that there was some equality in the type of programs
offered and the services provided by the higher education sector. Given the small
number of Australian universities, this was not such a daunting task compared with the
diverse and large system that operates in the US.

While international education has focused on bringing students to host countries, there
have also been many examples of offshore programs through strategic alliances
(Mazzarol and Soutar 2001). These ‘twinning’ arrangements involve alliances with
overseas governments or organisations where students may undertake study from their
home country but spend some time abroad at a host nation. There may also be offshore
teaching programs (Mazzarol and Soutar 2001).

Overall, the benefits for the student of international education can be difficult to
measure for “there is a mix of economic, social and cultural issues” (Mazzarol and
Soutar 2001:86). Yet, Collins and Davidson argue that internationalisation “sits at the
margins rather than at the centre of campus concerns and activity” (2002:52). Teichler
(2004) disagrees stating that international activities in higher education are no longer
marginal and that international education touches all areas of study and research to a
certain extent but that the move forward is not complete. While this may be the case,
where international activities become embedded in university operations, there is a
difference as to how this construct is implemented.

**Internationalisation of higher education as a response to globalisation**

In a world where no nation can live independently of others, where there is a clear
interdependence of people, media, national security and economic interests, universities
must be prepared to internationalise in an effort to produce globally competent citizens
(Spaulding, Mauch and Lin 2001). Internationalisation will take place in the context of
globalisation processes where it is prudent to speak of an integrated internationalisation
of higher education that is a response to globalisation (de Wit 2002).

Internationalisation of higher education, “encompasses various forms of intellectual,
cultural and educational exchanges between two or more nations of the world”
(Spaulding, Mauch and Lin 2001:191). There are clear indications that promoting
global citizenship has stimulated reforms in preparation for economic, political and
cultural challenges (Law 2004) and in doing so Muller (1995) states that we have entered the information age where we, “seem to be on the road toward a single global marketplace of ideas, data and communication” (as cited in de Wit 2002:3).

Ramphele observes that the “overall well-being of nations is vitally dependent on the contribution of higher education to the social, cultural, political and economic development of its citizens” (2000:13). Spaulding, Mauch and Lin (2001) referring to Altbach, Kelly and Lulat (1985) concur, stating that the, international movement of scholars has brought a wealth of knowledge, practice and policies to home institutions. The internationalisation of higher education means, according to Spaulding, Mauch and Lin (2001), student and faculty exchange, teaching and service, and research forums encompassing various forms of cultural and educational exchanges.

For nations there have been shifts in rationale from political to economic from aid to trade. These rationales and hence policy changes in higher education need to be examined in the light of a changing environment in the universities themselves as well as the political contexts in which they exist. Blackmore states that, “any critique of globalisation discourses should focus not just upon the individual state but more upon the changing relations between states” (2000:485). Lee agrees, stating that, “one should not assume that there is total convergence of educational policies in all educational systems…the impact of globalisation on policies as well as content and process of education should take into account the socio-political and economic context of each nation” (1999:23).
“Globalisation of our societies and markets and its impact on higher education and the new knowledge society based on information technology will change higher education profoundly but will also change the nature of internationalisation of higher education” (de Wit 2002:216). Internationalisation of higher education and globalisation of society will increasingly become linked phenomena with the growing importance of knowledge and human capital and the development of information and communication technology making the link between internationalisation of higher education and globalisation stronger than before (de Wit 2002; Rizvi 2004). As Huisman and Currie (2004) detail, national borders were previously pronounced but with globalisation of the economy that includes goods, services and people, these boundaries have now become blurred. Globalisation provides the means for international higher education institutions to cross national borders which can only result in changes to the higher education sector. Fowler (2004) argues that systems will converge, as no one can escape the world’s economic globalisation, education included.

By responding to globalisation, nations have expanded internationalisation and their universities have become primary sites to implement this policy. Knight’s (1997) definition of globalisation and her 1993 definition of internationalisation were adopted for the purposes of this research and are the premise of this thesis. Through case studies, two universities, their policies and their internationalisation implementation strategies are examined in the context of their nation’s policies. The following chapters detail the accelerated internationalisation strategies of two higher education institutions by referring to the ingredients for successful internationalisation implementation outlined by Green’s 2002 article.
Chapter Three

Methods

Utilising a case study approach, this macro and micro level research analyses what underlies particular changes at two universities in different countries. Any understanding of change in internationalisation strategies requires more than an examination of the policies themselves. It also needs an analysis of institutions within the sector.

Research Questions

To achieve the aim of the thesis it was necessary to focus on the macro government policies and micro institutional polices and practices in the context of globalisation and its intersection with internationalisation by asking the following research questions:

1. How and over what time period have internationalisation policies in higher education evolved in Australia and the United States at a federal, state and institutional level?

2. How have the chosen individual institutions internationalised their universities?

3. How do the key stakeholders at these universities perceive the success of the implementation of the internationalisation strategies?
**Research Strategy**

A comparative case study approach was deemed to be the most appropriate form of research for this study (Clark 2004). Yin (1989) states that as a research strategy the case study is used in many settings including policy, political science and public administration research, sociology, and organisational and management studies. It is an appropriate method for when ‘how’ or ‘why’ questions are being asked when the investigator has little control over events and when the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon within some real-life context (Yin 1989). By utilising this approach, replication of the study is possible in different contexts using case study structure with similar selection procedures in different higher education institutions.

Case study research is a comprehensive approach to data collection and analysis. Ragin (1987 as cited in Huberman and Miles 1994:436) illustrates that a case study approach examines each entity and then “teases out configurations within each case and subjects them to comparative analysis…In these comparisons underlying similarities and systematic associations are sought out with regard to the main outcome variable.” A case study is a part of a larger phenomenon, where linkages are made between specific research questions to the larger policy issues. This approach enables a comparison across nations and institutions evoking an explanation and assessing the relative importance of each factor (Marshall and Rossman 1989).

The research focused on variables that had an impact on the internationalising objectives of the universities, for example, the policies, the social and economic environments, and the strategic objectives of the universities. Public universities were the sites of these case studies, predominantly as they are the norm rather than the
exception in the Australian university landscape. In the US context, the public university chosen for a comparative study had similar origins and a not dissimilar proportion of international students at the time of the commencement of the study to that of the Australian university selected. Pseudonyms for these universities are used throughout this thesis.

Universities are not the same but they can be clustered into recognisable groups. The two universities chosen can be identified in a similar group: research intensive universities. Even within a similar group, it is important to note that each institution has its own history, geographic location, social cluster and particular personality, as do those that are part of this research (Marginson and Considine 2000).

Reliability and validity are important concepts and practices for case study research. Yin (1989:40-41) defines reliability and the three forms of validity:

- **Reliability**: demonstrating that the operations of a study – such as the data collection procedures – can be repeated with the same results;
- **Construct validity**: establishing correct operational measures for the concepts being studied;
- **Internal validity**: establishing a causal relationship whereby certain conditions are shown to lead to other conditions;
- **External validity**: establishing the domain to which a study’s findings can be generalised.

Reliability was enhanced in that the case studies were conducted in two separate universities with repetition at the two sites to determine the policies and strategies of
these institutions. The goal here, following Yin (1989), was to minimize the errors or biases of the study. Documentation of procedures and the development of a case study database were maintained in order to strengthen reliability.

Construct validity was ensured by collecting data in the most accurate and appropriate form. The research included interviews with key stakeholders within each university. Document analysis was employed to analyse government and university documents. In line with Yin (1989) in order to increase construct validity there were multiple sources of evidence, a chain of evidence and a review of the draft of the case study was reviewed by key informants. These procedures will enable other researchers to replicate this research in other settings to determine if similar findings are discovered.

Internal validity was established by triangulating data from a variety of sources as the process of data collection progressed (Janesick 1994). Triangulation provided a means of clarifying meaning by identifying different ways the phenomenon was seen (Flick 1992 as cited in Stake 1994; Morse 1994; Krathwohl 1993). Yin (1989) expands by pointing out that any finding is likely to be much more convincing and accurate if it is based on several sources of information. External validity was strengthened by the fact that the same methods of data collection were used in studying two separate institutions.

The term participant is commonly used to refer to potential respondents or participants in a study. The identification of a population for investigation requires criteria relevant for establishing boundaries of the phenomenon. In this instance, the respondents or participants in the study were the members of the administration, faculty members (assistant professors, associate professors and professors in the US and lecturers, senior
lecturers, associate professors or professors in Australia) and international and domestic undergraduate and graduate (identified as postgraduate in Australia) students in the two universities.

Sampling denotes extracting from a larger group some smaller portion of that group. Sampling is usually undertaken when studying an entire population is unwieldy, too expensive, too consuming or unnecessary. Table 1 shows the number and category of participants chosen from Riverina and Midwestern. To contribute to validity, every attempt was made to gather data from key informants of administrators, faculty, international graduate and undergraduate students and domestic graduate and undergraduate students at both institutions.

Purposive sampling was used where participants were approached in the light of their position in the university as administrators and faculty. For comparability purposes, departments were selected according to their existence in both universities to gain a cross section of viewpoints of the university’s populations at different levels and in different fields. These participants were contacted in selected departments in each institution, for example, Education, Business, Music and departments within the arts and sciences. In the interview data collection stages, the services of the International Offices were utilised to initiate contact with potential international student participants. Additional student participants were identified by participating faculty members, implementing a snowball effect. Individual contact was made with all potential participants to engage in an interview. Ninety five interviews were conducted. There were fewer interview participants at Riverina than Midwestern due to the time
constraints of an international site visit. Table 1 presents a summary of the number of people interviewed and the categories to which they belonged.

Table 1  Interview participants by category

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interviewee Category</th>
<th>Riverina</th>
<th>Midwestern</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Administrators</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faculty</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Graduates</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Undergraduates</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic Graduates</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic Undergraduates</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>39</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Ethical procedures**

Interviews with key stakeholders informed the major component of this study.

Interviewees were invited to participate in this project according to the established human ethics procedures. An information sheet and consent letter was issued detailing
the nature and the purpose of the project (Appendices A and B). An effort was made through personal communication to obtain a commitment of cooperation from the selected respondents. An interview time was scheduled. At the beginning of the interview, time was spent establishing rapport and putting the interviewee at ease. The purpose of the interview was explained and strict confidentiality and non-identification of responses assured. An agreement between the researcher and the respondent to keep the data confidential was entered into. Any information shared or recorded in the interview was assured to remain explicitly and implicitly unidentified in the data analysis and discussion. The agreement required a signature from the researcher and the respondent. A copy of the agreement was made and forwarded to the respondent if requested. These procedures were given human ethics approval by the Murdoch University Human Ethics Committee and renewed annually throughout the course of the study.

In the process of carrying out the research, prime consideration was given to preserving the anonymity of the participants and to reducing the indirect effects. There are two types of anonymity that were viewed as important in this form of research: anonymity associated with involvement in the project as a participant and anonymity related to the information collected in the interview (Reynolds 1979).

The investigator's responsibility is for the welfare of the participants. When participants are aware of the research activity and have the right to withdraw from involvement at any time, the major issue appears to be the indirect effects for the participants. Permission was obtained from the International Offices of both universities to communicate with potential international student participants via email. Each
International Office forwarded an email to international students on my behalf. Domestic students were identified by faculty and/or friends willing to participate in the research. The criteria for selection of the students were enrolment and presence at the universities for a range of one to three years. These students were contacted via email. The administrators and faculty members of the universities decided on their own whether they would participate.

All participants were asked if the interviews could be recorded and all participants agreed. Upon completion of the transcription, all tapes and digital files were transferred to a locked file cabinet where access was restricted solely to me, the researcher. All digital files and transcriptions of interviews were password protected for access only by me. Confidentiality and anonymity of the participants placed me in a unique position as a researcher. Several participants stated that the opportunity to express their views without reprise was very much appreciated. Generally speaking this view was held by faculty members and students. Many participants felt that the interview process was cathartic. An administrator of one university was concerned that the students were being ‘used’ for research purposes and did not wish to single out international students in particular or subject students to any adverse effects. Despite this point of view, the leaders and administrators of both institutions embraced this opportunity and recognised the value of such research and the feedback from students in particular. These leaders hoped that the research might provide them with information they were unable to obtain in this form and in such detail. Administrators of the institutions requested feedback upon completion of the thesis to contribute to the discussion on internationalisation in their respective universities.
Documents

Key topics were drawn from the literature to inform the interview protocol on globalisation and internationalisation policies and strategies. Documentation collected and analysed included administrative documents, formal studies or evaluations of the same site under study, newspaper clippings and other articles. Archival records such as organisational records or survey data were also examined and contributed to my information about each university. Handbooks were used to determine aspects about each organisation, its structure and how it functions. These documents were used to cross-check information against other forms of data collection (Strauss and Corbin 1990; van der Wende 1996b; Howland, Becker and Prelli 2006).

The interview

A semi-structured approach to the interview was used, involving asking structured questions followed by clarifying unstructured or open-ended questions (Gay 1990; Krathwohl 1993). The more informal method was considered as appropriate to get a richer understanding of more complex aspects of the study, particularly attitudes. I attempted to capture the sentiments and underlying meaning through lively interchange that often went beyond my initial question. Several interviewing techniques were used where I deemed these to be appropriate. These were: allowing silence at times to provide an incentive to talk; providing support for the interviewee's ideas; trying to be non-judgemental of the ideas expressed; facilitation where words, mannerisms or gestures were used to encourage the respondent to communicate; summarising periodically during the interview; and using confrontation sparingly by presenting to the interviewee a judgment that something was amiss with the interview (Hessler 1992).
The intention of the interview was to obtain data that could not otherwise be obtained using other means.

Consideration was given to three broad concepts as necessary conditions for a successful interview: accessibility of the required information to the respondent, cognition or understanding by the respondent of what is required of him/her and motivation on the part of the respondent to answer the question accurately (Moser and Kalton 1975). The interview schedule was divided into key topics for discussion to elicit perceptions of macro policy processes and the micro level implementation of those policies at the university level, depending on the role of the interviewee in the university structure. Consideration was given to the content of the questions which encouraged: experience/behaviour questions, opinion/value questions, feeling questions, knowledge questions and background/demographic questions. Attention was also given to the sequencing of the questions. The topics of the questions included globalisation, internationalisation impacts and perceptions as well as relevant biographical and demographic data (Appendices C-H).

A technical check was undertaken to ensure that the recording device was functioning properly. I took brief notes in case of mechanical fault and additional notes following the interview to record observations about the interview itself, for example where the interview occurred, who was present, observations about how the interviewee reacted to the interview, observations about my role in the interview and any other additional information that helped establish the context for analysing the data. The interview procedure was piloted at the two participating universities. The feedback was used to revise the interview questions and to provide a better insight into how to structure the
interviews. Quality control was in place to ensure that the data obtained was useful, reliable and valid (Patton 1990).

**Data Analysis**

The field of higher education studies is multi-disciplinary in character. This study is informed by political science, sociology, political economy and other social theory drawing specifically on approaches utilised by Marginson and Considine (2000) and Slaughter and Leslie (1997). These lenses from different fields enable alternative perspectives. These different lenses can assist to make sense of the broader context of change and seek to demonstrate its complexity. Equally, these understandings can make a useful contribution to developing education policy (Whitty 2002).

Huberman and Miles (1994:428) state that “data analysis and these linked subprocesses occur before data collection, during study design and planning, during data collection as interim and early analyses are carried out and after data collection as final products are approached and completed.” The data collected in this research were used cumulatively to chart an understanding of the processes implemented to internationalise the universities under examination and in the broader perspective.

The research was not conducted in discrete units but occurred concurrently following research of the literature. This process is identified in the introduction to this thesis in the overall framework of the study (Figure 1). The research activities included:

- Statistical information gathered internationally, nationally and at each research site which provided the context for the examination of the relevant policy
documents as well as relevant demographic information gathered from the participants.

- A comparative analysis was conducted to determine as many potential relevant categories as possible along with their properties and dimensions to determine a profile of the universities under examination.

- The NUD*IST Q6 computer package was used to establish a document database to store, edit and retrieve the text of documents, to record the factual information about the documents, to write and edit memos, to record ideas about the documents and to search for words and phrases in the text and to automatically index these. The index database allowed the creation, recording, storage and exploration of the categories for thinking about the research.

- Data reduction was conducted from a search of the index system to find links between categories of the data, write and edit memos and create new categories for further analysis.

Matrices and memos developed using Q6 provided an audit trail as a record of procedures so that others may construct how the analysis developed. To construct the matrices, interview tapes and digital recordings were transcribed and entered into the NUD*IST Q6 software program. The transcriptions of the interview responses were indexed using categories and subcategories organised in trees. The index system was modified to suit the research by considering the relationships between the participant groups and the key concepts. The index system enabled the research to be coded and retrieved using the collection technique of the program. Coding was completed manually to maintain consistency of the data. The data were then examined to explore
documents and the relationships between them in an effort to establish themes and develop theories.

Figure 2 provides an overview of the Q6 data analysis categories represented here in a tree. The diagrammatic representation of the data tree indicates the categories of the interview data and directly reflects the overarching concepts, categories and subcategories of the interview questions. Utilising this tree, data was placed into the different groups. The overriding focus of the analysis was to investigate the philosophy and implementation of each university mission encompassing the overarching concepts of globalisation and internationalisation. These were subsequently broken down into subcategories. The subcategories of globalisation were globalisation as an influence on policies, state and federal funding and university entrepreneurial activities. Internationalisation was broken down into the subcategories of internationalisation policies, international faculty and perspectives of and on international students. Additional data was collected on perspectives of each departmental ethos and mission, viewpoints of domestic students and biographic and demographic data of student participants. The data were triangulated by interviewing across the different levels in each institution (Table 1). The same categories and ‘tree’ were used for both institutions and are displayed here using the Decision Explorer computer program (Figure 2).
Figure 2  Q6 Category tree


**Conclusion**

This chapter has outlined the methods and approach used in my research. The case study approach allowed me to examine closely two institutions in the context of a global market. The literature informed the direction of nations and universities involved in the research together with the policy documents which informed the framework of the study. The statistical information provided the context and illustrated the patterns over the last decade worldwide, nationally and locally. The interview data provided a wealth of information on perspectives and viewpoints of globalisation and internationalisation offered by key stakeholders in each university.

Following this chapter, there is an international overview that examines the statistical data gathered internationally and nationally. The internationalisation policies of Australia and the US are presented separately. Specific statistical data relevant to each site are presented as precursors to provide the research context of each university.
Chapter Four

International Overview

This chapter paints an international picture of trends in international student enrolments and their economic contributions. A deeper analysis of Australian and US higher education internationalisation developments, policies and practices requires them to be situated in an international perspective in the context of the international data presented. National data sets are also presented to illustrate the growth in international education in Australia and the US over the last decade.

Higher education has become dominated by economic rationales and the forces of globalisation (Burbules and Torres 2000). Many writers have argued that global practices have affected higher education policies and practices (Currie and Newsom 1998; Slaughter and Leslie 1999). The economics of higher education have become the driving force. These commentaries provide insight into a field where education has become an industry that is subject to economic waves and global competition.

Amidst the global competition, organisations such as the OECD and UNESCO can be seen as globalising institutions. The OECD’s educational policies have increasingly become laced with economic jargon in a globalised world. The OECD began as an intergovernmental organisation that has developed over time into an independent policy
actor that is subject to the pressures of globalisation (Lingard and Rizvi 1998; Henry, Lingard, Rizvi and Taylor 2001; Fiocco 2005). UNESCO too promotes a global vision of higher education (Sadlak 1998).

These organisations have set the scene for the development and building of international academic alliances. Some alliances have been longstanding but new international academic alliances can be directly related to the growing importance of the internationalisation of higher education as a response to globalisation. This is reflected in the multilateral nature of the process with institutional agreements as well as those developed with centres, institutes and departments. The intention of these varied arrangements is generally the same worldwide, to cross institutional and national boundaries in order to participate in and or prepare students for a global marketplace. The benefits are often dualistic for participating institutions, particularly those that cross continents as members of these alliances then have the opportunity to participate in educational goals across the globe. As de Wit (2002) argues, some institutions will stay predominantly local in their focus, even as they enter in to international agreements, alliances or networks. However there are those that will enter into such arrangements as part of their internationalisation strategy that will no doubt be increasingly important in the global arena.

These academic alliances, whether they are regional or international, have opened the door to arrangements with an array of different operating partners. There are programs that foster regional cooperation. For example, the European Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students (ERASMUS) can be a regional and ultimately international force with a goal of internationalisation (Yang 2002). Alliances in the US,
such as the Midwest Universities Consortium for International Development (CID) or the Illinois Consortium for International Education (ICEI), seek different arrangements for the development of contracts or for study abroad arrangements. As well, Australia is part of the Commonwealth, where there are arrangements of an international grouping unto itself that is multi-regional (Gibbons 1998). “These alliances form part of the basic architecture of the emerging vision of international education” (Trubek 2001:315).

The reason for this emphasis, according to Collins and Davidson (2002), has been that US leaders are failing to provide sufficient support for international education to prepare graduates for a worldwide context. Conversely, Hacket (2001) argues that in Australia the main reason for the development of these alliances is not to encourage internationalisation but to respond to the economic needs of institutions in order to generate income. There are though, he comments, subsidiary motives of international profile building and internationalisation. The Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education (FIPSE) in the US developed more than 100 FIPSE-funded consortia and additional international programs over the last decade. In response to impending global issues, FIPSE emphasised the need for these consortia to provide opportunities for students and faculty to engage in meaningful academic, social and cultural experiences abroad. Universitas 21 is a consortium of universities and the former Vice Chancellor of the University of Melbourne was instrumental in its founding. It encompasses many public institutions across many regions that have developed to accredit each other and to share resources (Sadlak 1998).

These supranational organisations affect policy production across the globe with a convergence of educational policy frameworks (Rizvi and Lingard 2000). As a response
to globalisation, internationalisation activities in universities have undergone change yet institutions are still guided by the regulatory and funding frameworks of nation states (Gupta 2003; Beerkens and Derwende 2007). Profound policy changes can be a response to and a consequence of these alliances. These policy changes do not just have an economic outcome; they also have social and cultural ones as well. In the context of the global picture, the following international trends in enrolments are presented.

**International trends in enrolments**

**Trends over the last decade**

In 2006, UNESCO estimated that over 2.5 million students were being educated at the tertiary level in countries other than their homes, up from an estimated 1.7 million in 2000. A report from IDP Education Australia predicted that by 2025, almost eight million students will be educated transnationally. Since 1980 the number of students enrolled outside of their home country has doubled. Projections are such that the demand for international higher education could increase to eight million students by 2025 (Bohm, Davis, Meares and Pearce 2002).
While the numbers of international students are likely to grow, so will the complexity in their mobility patterns. *Project Atlas*, a US based database, seeks to examine international education patterns in relation to other international flows. By creating a shared image of international mobility, the aim of the project is to highlight the truly global aspects of higher education. Project Atlas data has limitations. Like the OECD data, different host nations and different data providers may have different definitions of ‘international student’ and ‘international education’. For example, some data sources only reflect counts from public institutions, while others collect and report data on students from both public and private institutions. The latest OECD data was used in conjunction with *Project Atlas* (IIE: 2006).
**Historical trends in international student enrolment**

Post war enrolment of international students grew steadily. Improved and decreased costs of travel, communications and technology and a widening array of services for international students in conjunction with increased globalisation provided the impetus for students to travel abroad for their higher education degrees. According to Throsby (1999), these factors combined with the changes in the higher education sector have seen considerable development in the provision of higher education overseas.

First, a historical picture from 1980-1999 of the growth in the international education industry is presented. Following this, international data from 2000 through to the most recent data available are presented.

**Figure 4**

*Increase of tertiary foreign students in OECD countries 1980-1999 (1990=100)*

(OECD: 2002:4)
Figure 4 shows that the number of post-secondary students in OECD countries increased from 1980 to 1999. This period saw a dramatic rise in Australia and a relative decline in France. Australia started from the smallest base, less than half of the US. Yet, it caught up to the OECD countries in 1990 and it more than doubled its intake by 1999.

**Figure 5**

*Trends in the number of foreign students enrolled outside their country of origin 2000 to 2005*

![Trends in the number of foreign students enrolled outside their country of origin 2000 to 2005](chart)

(OECD 2007)

This trend analysis shows the steady increase in foreign students enrolled in OECD countries and worldwide from 2000 to 2005. Figures are based on the number of foreign students enrolled in OECD and non-OECD countries reporting data to the OECD and UNESCO Institute for Statistics to provide a global picture of foreign students worldwide. The coverage of these reporting countries has evolved over time therefore missing data have been imputed wherever necessary to ensure the comparability of time series over time. Given the inclusion of UNESCO data for non-OECD countries and the
imputation of missing data, the estimates of the number of foreign students may differ from those published in previous editions of *Education at a Glance*.

The 2004 and 2007 OECD *Education at a Glance* reports provide a picture of student mobility and the extent of the internationalisation of tertiary education in OECD countries and partner economies in 2002. It shows global trends and highlights the major destinations of international students and trends in market shares of the international student pool. One indicator of these reports examines who studies abroad and where. Some of the factors underlying students’ choice of a country of study are also included in this indicator. The indicator looks at the extent of student mobility in different destinations and presents the profile of the international student intake in terms of their distribution by countries and regions of origin, types of programs, and fields of education. The distribution of students enrolled outside of their country of citizenship by destination is also examined by the OECD. Finally, the contribution of international students to the graduate output is examined alongside immigration implications for their host countries. The proportion of international students in tertiary enrolments provides a good indication of the magnitude of student mobility in different countries in 2002 and is represented here in Figure 6.
Figure 6 Proportion of International Students in Tertiary Enrolments 2002

Figure 7 shows the number of international students in tertiary enrolments as a percentage of total population based on data collected by the OECD for 2005. This data was collected according to the immigration legislation and data availability for each country. This figure is a glimpse of the total data set. The full data set of this indicator can be accessed at the following hyperlink: OECD Indicator C3: Foreign Students in Tertiary Education.
Student mobility is either defined on the basis of students' country of residence, or the country where students received their prior education. The data presented in this chart are not comparable with data on foreign students in tertiary education presented in previous editions of *Education at a Glance* data. This 2005 data includes figures from twenty two countries, whereas the previous 2002 data referenced sixteen countries showing a greater distribution of market share and reporting countries. In the two countries that are part of my research, the figures for Australia remained reasonably stable throughout this period at about 17 percent, with the US experiencing a drop of three percent predominantly attributed to changes in immigration policy. These factors will be discussed further in the following chapters on Australian and US internationalisation policies.
Figures 8 and 9 provide the distribution of foreign students by country of destination in 2000 and 2005 across the participating OECD countries. About a quarter of international students go to the US and six percent go to Australia. The US is by far the most favoured location even with a four percent downturn in international student numbers from 2000 to 2005. Some of the factors highlighted by the 2007 *Education at a Glance* Report included that by 2005 over 2.7 million tertiary students were enrolled outside their country of citizenship. This represented a five percent increase in total foreign student intake reported to the OECD and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics from the previous year. France, Germany, the UK and the US receive more than 50 percent of all foreign students worldwide. In absolute numbers, international students from France, Germany, Japan and Korea represent the largest numbers from OECD countries. Students from China and India comprise the largest numbers of international students from partner economies.
Figure 8  Percentage of foreign tertiary students reported to the OECD who is enrolled in each country of destination 2000.

Figure 9  Percentage of foreign tertiary students reported to the OECD who is enrolled in each country of destination 2005.
Prior to 2006, the OECD data focused on foreign students in tertiary education, defined as non-citizens of the country for which the data are collected. This concept of foreign students was deemed inappropriate by the OECD to measure student mobility to the extent that foreign students who are permanent residents in their country of study as a result of immigration – by themselves or by their parents – are included in the total. In an effort to improve the measurement of student mobility and the comparability of internationalisation data, the OECD now gathers data on student mobility and internationally mobile students. The term “international students” refers to students who have crossed borders expressly with the intention to study generally referring to those students who are not permanent residents of the country they have chosen to study in. The measurement of student mobility depends to a large extent on country-specific immigration legislation and data availability constraints. Hence countries are free to define international students as those who are not residents of their country of study or alternatively students who received their prior education in another country, depending on which operational definition is most appropriate in their national context. These definitions changed during the course of this thesis.

**Exports of education services**

The economic impact of international students on local, national and global economies is demonstrated in Table 2. It shows the economic growth in the export educational services in $US millions and as a percentage of total exports in services (1970-2000). These numbers show the growth of the contribution to the educational exports to national and world/global economies (OECD: 2002:11).
Table 2 Exports of educational services in $US million and as a percentage of total exports in services (1970-2000)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$US million</td>
<td>% total services</td>
<td>$US million</td>
<td>% total services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>584</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>530</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>2214</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>4575</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil*</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venezuela*</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: .. not available; Data refers to foreign tertiary students, except for Australia, Italy and New Zealand, where foreign primary, secondary, post-secondary vocational training and language training students are included.

Source: OECD statistics on trade in services and "IMF (Italy, USA: 2000; Poland: 1999); UK (1999, 2000); Office for National Statistics"

The growth in educational services is demonstrated more closely in the period of 2000 to 2005 in Figure 10. With the increase in market share comes the benefits of educational exports to these hosting countries.
Figure 10  Trends in international education market shares (2000, 2005)
The following higher education data were gathered from Australian and US national databases and are placed in the context of the data gathered from the international databases.

**Australian and US national trends**

**Australia**

Australia is a global player in the international student market with the majority of its international enrolments originating in Asia. Enrolment growth in the higher education sector was five percent in 2006 over the 2005 numbers.

Data are collected in Australia by [The Department of Education, Science and Training (DEST)](http://www.dest.gov.au), part of the Australian Government. DEST data on international student mobility are collected through Australian Education International (AEI) on a monthly basis on all international student enrolments for students on a student visa. AEI defines an international student as one studying in Australia on a student visa excluding those on scholarships. Higher Education Collection (HEC) contains data on all international and domestic students, both onshore and offshore. Data are collected on a semi-annual basis from all agencies that receive financial support from the federal government. HEC defines an international student as any student who is not an Australian or New Zealand citizen or who does not have permanent residence status. Collected data include information on: gender; field of study; academic level; citizenship; type of host institution attended; degree/qualification/credential awarded; and sources of student financial support.
Table 3

International and Domestic Student Enrolments in Australia 1997-2006
Higher Education Sector

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>International</td>
<td>52897</td>
<td>56810</td>
<td>60914</td>
<td>72717</td>
<td>86269</td>
<td>116236</td>
<td>135683</td>
<td>151304</td>
<td>163930</td>
<td>172297</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Enrolments</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic</td>
<td>595853</td>
<td>599670</td>
<td>603156</td>
<td>599878</td>
<td>684975</td>
<td>711563</td>
<td>719555</td>
<td>716438</td>
<td>717682</td>
<td>733352</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Enrolments</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3 shows sector level data for 1996 to 2006 and combines data from AEI's Overseas Student Statistics series and the Commonwealth Provider Register and International Student Management System (PRISMS). Data for the periods 1994–2001 and 2002–06 are not comparable due to the different sources used to compile the data. There were changes to the census collection in 2002 in order not to duplicate data sets. Data presented in Figure 11 highlight the increase in the Australian student population overall with increases in both the domestic and international student populations.

The number of international students enrolled with Australian education providers during 2002 was at least 385 000. Approximately 49 per cent of international students studied in the higher education sector. Of these students, 96 per cent were enrolled with an Australian Government-funded higher education provider while the remaining four per cent undertook a higher education course with a private provider.
While Australia attracts international students from a diverse range of countries, students from the Asian region make up 85 per cent of international students. Table 4 shows the number of Australia’s international higher education students from the top ten source countries in 2002. Singapore remains the leading provider of international higher education students followed by Hong Kong and Malaysia. China overtook Indonesia in fourth spot in 2003. There has been significant growth in the numbers of higher education students from India. Two-thirds of higher education students study onshore with an Australian higher education provider while the other one-third studies offshore.

Table 4

Overseas students in the Australian higher education sector by top ten source countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Onshore</th>
<th>2002 Offshore</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>10 815</td>
<td>19 141</td>
<td>29 956</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>9 304</td>
<td>17 652</td>
<td>26 956</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>12 443</td>
<td>11 282</td>
<td>23 725</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>13 466</td>
<td>6 130</td>
<td>19 596</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>11 088</td>
<td>893</td>
<td>11 981</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>7 716</td>
<td>674</td>
<td>8 390</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>7 868</td>
<td>457</td>
<td>8 325</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>4 568</td>
<td>604</td>
<td>5 202</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taiwan</td>
<td>3 342</td>
<td>635</td>
<td>3 977</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea, Sth</td>
<td>3 230</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>3 405</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sub-total</strong></td>
<td><strong>83 870</strong></td>
<td><strong>57 643</strong></td>
<td><strong>141 513</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Countries</td>
<td>35 012</td>
<td>8 533</td>
<td>43 545</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>118 882</strong></td>
<td><strong>66 176</strong></td>
<td><strong>185 058</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Universities in Australia generated considerable income from the number of international students enrolled. The number of international students increased from just
over 29,600 in 1991 to approximately 95,600 in 2000 (DEST: *Higher Education at the Crossroads* 2002).

The International Postgraduate Research Scholarships (IPRS) are part of the Endeavour Programme under which high performing students from around the world may study in Australia. The Endeavour Programme encompasses both new and existing scholarships. The IPRS scheme aims to attract students to areas of research strength in Australian higher education institutions and to develop international research linkages. Higher education providers are required to give preference to students from the regions identified as priorities under the Endeavour Programme. These regions are Asia, Europe, North and South America, and the Middle East. Masters students may receive a scholarship for two years and Doctoral students for three years with a possible extension of up to twelve months in certain circumstances. A scholarship covers the student’s tuition fees and health insurance premiums. The determination of institutional IPRS allocations is based on the performance-based formula used in the Research Training Scheme (RTS) (*Triennium Report* 2004-2006).

Australia’s international student market increased over the last decade but in 2004 a ten percent drop in demand alarmed a sector highly dependent on overseas student fees for private revenue (*The Australian*: Illing: November 17, 2004). This reduction came after a 16.5 percent increase in 2003. The market rebounded in 2005 with a six percent increase (Harman 2006).

The commercialisation of higher education is a strong factor in Australia’s international trade in education. Revenue from international fee paying students has increased
steadily and continues to rise. The demand is expected to increase over nine fold by 2025 with a share of the global demand from three percent in 2000 to eight percent in 2025. With anticipated growth at these levels, Australia will need to recognise the benefits of international education to its future economic, cultural and political development of the nation (Bohm et al. 2002). “Student enrolments in Australian higher education increased by 100 per cent, the GDP increased by 80 percent but government funding to higher education as a percentage of GDP declined by 33 percent” (de Bats 1999:10).

Figure 12 Projected Demand for Australian Higher Education

![Projected Demand for Australian Higher Education](image)

(Bohm et al. 2002:5)
Since the late 1940s, more internationally mobile students have studied in the United States than in any other host country. This trend continues with over half a million international students enrolled in its colleges and universities.

Figure 13 General US Student Data 2006

Figure 13 shows the 2006 US total count of all higher education students, both domestic and international: 14,528,728 domestic student enrolments and 564,766 international student enrolments. Almost 60 percent of these students come from Asia. Of those, approximately 40 percent come from India, Japan, China, and Korea. This is illustrated in Table 5 with the distribution of top ten sending countries to the US.
Table 5  Top 10 sending places of origin and percentage of total international student enrolment in the United States (in 05/06)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>13.5 percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>11.1 percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea, Rep. of</td>
<td>10.4 percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>6.9 percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>5.0 percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taiwan</td>
<td>4.9 percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>2.5 percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>2.1 percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>1.6 percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>1.6 percent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Three organisations are responsible for international student data collection in the United States: the Institute of International Education (IIE), the United States Department of Education and the United States Department of Homeland Security via the Student and Exchange Visitor Information System (SEVIS). No governmental agency is responsible for setting any given policy relating to IIE data collection, although IIE receives support from the US Department of State for data collection and dissemination.

An international student is defined as an individual on a temporary visa who is enrolled for courses in the US, and is not an immigrant, permanent resident, citizen, resident alien ("Green Card" holder) or refugee. Specific data are collected on: academic degree
and non-degree granting programs; other types of programs including vocational, academia, secondary, etc.; gender; academic level; type of host institution attended; field of study; sources of student financial support; and visa status.

The data are disseminated via the *Open Doors Report on International Exchange* publication, and the website: [http://opendoors.iienetwork.org](http://opendoors.iienetwork.org)

### Table 6  Report on International Educational Exchange

**International Student and Total US Enrolment**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>International Students</th>
<th>Annual percent Change</th>
<th>Total Enrolment</th>
<th>percent International</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1997/1998</td>
<td>481280</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>13294221</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998/1999</td>
<td>490933</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>13391401</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999/2000</td>
<td>514723</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>13584998</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000/2001</td>
<td>547867</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>14046659</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001/2002</td>
<td>582996</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>13511149</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002/2003</td>
<td>586323</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>12853627</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003/2004</td>
<td>572509</td>
<td>-2.4</td>
<td>13383553</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004/2005</td>
<td>565039</td>
<td>-1.3</td>
<td>13994869</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005/2006</td>
<td>564766</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>14528728</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 6 shows the percentage of international student enrolments in the US from 1997 to 2006. The US showed growth throughout the period 1997 to 2001. Universities then experienced a drop in international student enrolments after the 2002-2003 academic year. This drop is attributed to immigration policies and is discussed further in the US policy chapter.
In 2002 in terms of overall numbers, Australia, with 118,800 international higher education students studying onshore, was ranked third among English-speaking countries behind the United States (582,996 students in 2000-2001) and the United Kingdom (232,800 in 2001-2002). Australia is the top study destination for students from Malaysia and Singapore and is the second largest provider of onshore higher education for Indonesian and Thai students, behind the United States (Triennium Report 2004-2006). In 2006 Australia, with 172,297 international higher education students was still ranked behind the US with 564,766, yet these figures continue to show growth in Australia with international students comprising approximately one quarter of the total student population, whereas, in the US, international students comprise approximately four percent of the total student population.

**Conclusion**

Global changes have created challenges for higher education in all nations. How Australia and the US and their universities respond to these changes is discussed in the following chapters in the context of their local and national histories. The US in terms of sheer numbers and Australia in terms of its proportion of international students are leaders in the recruitment of international students. They have had at least two decades of experience with large numbers of students. Both nations have benefited from the economic contribution of international students as is evidenced by their GDP. The policies of all nations play a role in setting the limits for international student recruitment. Australia in particular has made every effort to raise revenue from international students. This has been strongly linked with institutional capacity to satisfy demand. The challenge of integrating these students on their campuses is at the heart of
this thesis and forms the case studies on how each university implemented their policies.
Chapter Five

Australian Internationalisation Policies

At all levels of policy making in Australia over the last two decades there has been a response to internationalising of the higher education sector. The Australian Federal Government has used the construct of globalisation as a platform for its internationalisation strategies that are primarily driven by financial need and seen as a means to balance the trade deficit. State governments, cognisant of the export potential of higher education, have worked alongside the federal government in developing policies for international students. The recipient of these international students, the universities and Riverina University, in particular, have had to respond to the changing policies, particularly those related to deregulation, at the federal level in their own domain.

Constitutional background

Australia is a federation of states and territories that is governed using the Westminster system. When the nation emerged from the constitutional conventions of the 1890s, taxation was retained by the states. In wartime the states ceded taxation powers to the Commonwealth and these were not returned at the end of the Second World War. A
system had developed whereby the federal government gathered all income and company taxes and returned a portion of them to the states under negotiated agreements. This practice continues today and has influenced the development of education policy in Australia since World War II.

Constitutionally the responsibility for education belongs to the states, but throughout the country’s history the federal government has become more involved in education with universities principally autonomous yet primarily funded by the Commonwealth (Birch 1982; Dudley 1987). A grants system in education was in place by the mid 1950s that tied funding from the Commonwealth to the states, providing assistance for recurring expenditures (Birch 1987). This grant process was repealed, reviewed and rewritten in subsequent pieces of federal legislation. The Commonwealth Department of Education was established in 1966 and has continued to develop major responsibilities for higher education. With this model Taylor, Rizvi, Lingard and Henry (1997) argue that federalism is part of a larger polity, one that in an international and global arena has implications for policy making at the level of the nation state.

**Federal policy approaches to internationalisation**

There have been multiple shifts over the last fifty years in the focus of federal approaches in higher education’s international policies with economic, social, political, international and individual influences each having a role (Smart and Ang 1993). Australia’s early approach to internationalisation involved primarily offering programs such as the Colombo Plan in order to equip international students to contribute to economic progress in their own nations, disseminating forms of knowledge and providing cultural experiences (O’Regan 2001; Mazzarol and Soutar 2001). This
heralded the involvement and financial presence of the federal government in higher education in Australia under the defence power and the national security regulations promulgated in 1943 (Tomlinson 1982). Government reports followed: Murray (1957) and Martin (1964), with specific links made between educational objectives and the national economic interest. The gains of this public policy approach were economic and technical, allowing Australia to position itself economically in the region and have some influence among the elite in the post war economy (Marginson and Considine 2000).

Gradually, international students were becoming part of the Australian higher education landscape. These students were subject to the same academic norms as their Australian counterparts but often competed for a limited number of places in restricted quotas and were required to pay the same fees as domestic students at the time (Marginson and Considine 2000). Many international students were sponsored by the Australian government or their home governments (Marginson and Considine 2000).

**Whitlam and beyond**

In the early 1970s under the Whitlam government, Australia’s higher education system went through a period of rapid expansion when the federal government assumed total financial responsibility for universities and colleges (Smart 1987). In 1974 the Commonwealth negotiated with universities to put in place a higher education system of free tertiary education. This ideological shift from a fee based system to a free education for all had a significant impact on the universities not only philosophically but in their funding structures. As a consequence of these changes, higher education policy became the domain of the federal government and not that of the states despite
the states’ constitutional responsibility (Birch 1975 in Smart 1991; Taylor et al 1997). The concept of ‘free education’ was developed and between 1974 and 1979 international students were not required to pay fees, along with their domestic peers. Education was seen as a central instrument for making society more equal and for promoting social change and reform (Smart 1987).

From the 1950s to the mid-1980s Australia’s view of internationalisation in higher education was a foreign aid one. During this period the policy framework had been developed on a federal level. The early 1980s’ approach to international students was a result of the Fraser government’s response to immigration issues. It set an overseas student charge for private foreign students following conflicting government reports (Morrison, 1984; Jackson, 1984 and Goldring, 1984). There was an ideological shift that began during this period from aid to trade in international education. The long held view had been that Australia’s capacity to offer aid was a practice since World War II. The flow on from these reports was passed to the Hawke government (Smart 1982; Marginson 1993; Mazzarol and Soutar 2001; Sidhu 2006). For a short time there were no fees in higher education in Australia. However, fees soon became a solution to the expansion and increasing costs of tertiary education and deregulation in the mid-1980s encouraged these changes (Dudley 1987).

**The Dawkins era**

International education became a global market in the 1980s whereby foreign students were characterised as products with universities charging them full fees at full cost plus a profit margin to redress the country’s balance of trade. This signalled a move from aid to trade (Rhoades and Smart 1996; Smart 1992; Smart and Ang 1993; Fiocco 2005).
The Dawkins era witnessed the explosion of educational services, hitherto viewed as untapped export potential, where fees from international students would go directly to the recruiting institution for capital expenditure and other costs that may be incurred in serving the international student population. This also meant that universities were competing against each other for a slice of the overseas market pie. Although some forms of foreign aid would continue, the principal policy was to market services at full-cost recovery (Rhoades and Smart 1996). From the outset, as Smart and Ang (1993) argue, the Australian government encouraged an entrepreneurial free market approach to recruiting overseas students by Australian institutions where a highly deregulated model of recruitment gathered momentum (Smart 1992). This period saw the removal of what had become known as the binary (two tier) system of higher education in Australia and concurrently saw rapid growth in overseas student enrolments in Australian institutions (Mazzarol and Soutar 2001).

With the rise of overseas student enrolments throughout the 1980s and the 1990s and the support of the Australian government in the form of grants for promotional and marketing plans, the higher education system was forced to implement the recommendations of Dawkins’ White Paper (1988). The primary objective was to develop larger internationally competent universities with partial marketisation and efficiency in public spending. This was a means for diversifying the universities’ institutional sources of income (Marginson 1999; Smart 1990). This system was expected to generate income dollars as well as create a more flexible and resourceful education system (Marginson 1993; Taylor et al. 1997). By the mid-1990s the value of export income from overseas students to Australia was AUD$1.9 billion. In 1995 international education accounted for nine per cent of Australia’s total service exports,
in comparison with less than three per cent in 1985. By the end of the 1990s, overseas student expenditure in Australia had risen to over AUD$5 billion per annum (Mazzarol and Soutar 2001).

The economic terminology used throughout the 1980s and into the 1990s would continue in subsequent government documents, ministerial papers and comments. Education became seen as an ‘industry’ where market forces should apply and Australia was soon to become a ‘major export leader’ (Dawkins 1988; West 1998). International education had indeed become a marketable service and created income dollars. Some, like Smart (1992), observed that the trade end of the spectrum would come at a cost of the higher education sector largely regulating itself. The aid component of international education was now much less important (Marginson 1993). The only deviation from this view came in 1992 from Beazley, the then Minister for Education, claiming in a Ministerial Statement entitled *International Education in Australia through the 1990s* that there was more to having international students onshore than pure economic reasons. Sidhu (2006) argues that this statement, along with the AVCC’s Code of Ethical Practice, was merely an attempt at recovery from the fall-out of the free market era. Nonetheless, van der Wende (1996b) proposes that Australia moved from trade to internationalisation, whereby education became not simply a trade but an increasingly important part of Australia’s international relations in many areas, in particular the social, cultural and economic areas.

In the fallout of the 1980s-1990s era, commentators, like Marginson and Considine (2000), suggest that government policy was written in the form of intentions and that governance became a narrative of micro-management, structural economic reform,
budgeting and diverse commercial gestures in universities. Australian universities reorganised themselves and synthesised elements of the old and new to reinvent themselves in the new millennium market. The change indeed was fairly rapid with the universities taking on a more corporate character. Universities strengthened ties with business and contributed to local economic growth and global economic competitiveness (Rhoades and Smart 1996; Fiocco 2005). International education was part of this development. In spite of its small population, Australia has become a strong trading nation in international education, with its position in the global market firmly established. Rhoades and Smart determined that Australia had responded to the recruitment of full fee paying students in ways unlike other nations, stating that, “only in Australia has foreign student policy epitomised the entrepreneurial commercialisation of higher education, treating students as trade commodities in the global economy” (1996:151).

**Market fluctuations**

Australia’s recruitment of international students continued to increase in the mid-1990s with a booming market in Asia. With the subsequent Asian financial crisis some Australian universities suffered modest decreases in their number of international student enrolments, while other sectors in post secondary education in Australia proved more vulnerable. There were some shifts in source nations. There was a decrease in students from Malaysia because the Malaysian government placed restrictions on the outflow of students to Australia (Smart and Ang 1999).

The West Report (1998) highlighted the direction of the Australian government in the late 1990s towards consumers and entrepreneurial organisations seeking fees and other
income opportunities (Marginson and Considine 2000). Fees became the building blocks in the realm of full fee paying courses and fee charging in government funded places (Sidhu 2006). An incentive structure framed by government policy would see the rapid growth and development of international student education as a commercial business (Marginson 2001). The scope of the Review Committee of the West Report was telling in and of itself, with the three first areas of examination:

1. The internationalisation of higher education
2. Sources of finance for higher education and
3. Historical trends and likely future directions in the level and nature of demand for higher education (West 1998:178).

With economics driving decision making at the federal level, there was much more of an interest by government in the governance of universities. Policy became embedded in the incentive structures offered to universities. Marginson and Considine (2000) refer to the incentive structures as ‘quasi-market education’. Every avenue for revenue raising seemed to be explored by universities and increasing international student enrolments supplied the short term revenues required. As a consequence of this approach, a pattern of dependence by universities was established. For some institutions, international education became the main source of discretionary revenues. This revenue source began to replace core funding whereby premium fee setting was supposedly meant to reflect high quality education (Mazzarol and Soutar 2001; Marginson 2002). Thus the Commonwealth government had succeeded in its policy objectives with substantial growth in higher education and with universities much more directed to outcomes with a much stronger entrepreneurial streak than had been seen in the past (Karmel 2003).
This policy framework continued in Australia throughout the late 1990s with the 1999 discussion paper on research funding. According to the federal government, Australia was to become more competitive in the global economy (Kemp 1999 in Coaldrake and Stedman 1999). In 2000 Gallagher presented a paper that detailed the emergence of entrepreneurial public universities in Australia. He identified the organisational changes associated with the selfearned income of Australian universities throughout the 1980s. As the transformation in management practices took place in Australia’s universities, Gallagher noted that none of the universities had taken on the ‘integrated entrepreneurial culture’ that Burton Clark identified with international pacesetters (Clark 1998).

Functioning on this entrepreneurial policy platform, Australian policy makers took the view, as universities always had that higher education plays a role in the cultural success of society while acknowledging that for the country to succeed economically, it needs to educate its population about the international context (O’Regan 2001). This view was supported by the Australian Vice-Chancellors’ Committee (AVCC) in the early 1990s stating that “the world needs people who can operate across national boundaries” (AVCC in deAngelis 1998:128).

**Alternative markets**

The alternative to onshore education in Australia for international students was provided by involvement offshore. Predictions of borderless education as a business enterprise were forecast in 2000 and reiterated in a 2001 update (Ryan and Stedman 2001). This form of internationalisation in Australian university education has seen
examples of physical programs, staff and student exchanges, curriculum export and branch campuses.

In 2002 the federal government issued a series of documents with the publication of *Higher Education at the Crossroads* and its ancillary issues papers. The thrust was clear, with global competition at the forefront in the education industry and investment by parties other than the government as necessary for Australia to capitalise on these opportunities. The supporting 2002 issues papers were: *Financing Australian Higher Education; Learning, Teaching and Scholarship; and Diversity, Specialisation and Regional Engagement*. They developed similar arguments about financing arrangements and identified the potential for using international student income and the importance for Australia in developing a global knowledge based economy. These reports subsequently became policy.

Australian universities operated historically in an environment where internal and external forces shaped their mission and policy directions (Karmel 1989 in Smart 1997). The funding formulas had become stagnant and there were pressures on universities to continue to attract students (Fiocco 2005) and to ‘do their bit’ in the changing economic climate (Sidhu 2006). Throughout this time period there were no changes in funding to cover the costs of higher education students; no indexation of staff salaries, links to CPI raises were terminated; student fee structure in terms of money going to the universities remained the same however there were some increases in HECS. The changing nature of internationalisation in Australian universities reflects this imperative. Australian universities have increasingly tended to treat international education as a revenue raising opportunity and as an export industry. The economic approach to higher
education that had been created in the 1980s in the Dawkins era was in opposition to the previous international education policies of aid and exchange (Marginson and Considine 2000; Marginson 2002; Welch 2002). These changes in policy direction enhanced Australia’s competitiveness in the international capitalist marketplace where global trends showed themselves rather early (Dudley 1998). A series of market driven micro and macro economic policies instituted by the government resulted in the implementation of private business practices in a public domain. Higher education institutions across Australia responded to the economic demands placed upon them through federal policies by instituting business approaches to a predominantly public sphere.

Internationalisation of Australian campuses is described in the document Learning, Teaching and Scholarship (2002) as much more than simply a financial incentive for universities. It refers to Australian universities as leading the world in the export of higher education. As a result, the broader view of internationalisation began to take a back seat (Fiocco 2005). The AVCC’s (2002) response to this series of issues papers highlights the use of language in these documents to describe higher education as a form of export viewed like any other industry in the country.

In the midst of globalising economic practices and ultimately in seeking alternative revenue sources, the Australian government’s policies were a means to an end. Government funding to higher education continued to be reduced. Universities needed to establish alternative revenue sources. Changes to the higher education internationalisation policies meant that promoting the presence of international students would solve a resource issue for universities. In contrast to the Australian government’s
position in Crossroads, Altbach (2002) argued that trade in education which transmits a country’s culture, values and intellectual independence, is not like constructing a free market in the trade of automobiles. The conflicting values in policy from aid to trade were obvious and for the majority of Australian universities, the trade objective was quickly entrenched. International students, be they fee paying or not, should not be viewed as goods or chattels. Their presence at university campuses and in the wider community means that they are more than a commodity. Government policy forced many Australian universities to focus on raising funds from international students but it did not consider the wider impact of these students on the system as a whole and the operation and function of universities in which they are present.

Following the Crossroads reports, a series of ministerial media releases were issued on efforts of Australia to do more than raise income from international students studying onshore. In 2003, the then Minister of Education, Brendan Nelson, sent a delegation to India and China to enhance education linkages (MIN 500/03a) and released a Ministerial Statement on the policy framework for Australia’s engagement in international education for the next decade and beyond titled Engaging the World through Education (MIN 481/03b). However, this policy continued to highlight the economic importance of international education to Australia (Sidhu 2006). Policy statements that followed did nothing to suppress the economic woes of the universities (The Australian: Yaman: May 5, 2004). The news that the International Development Program (IDP) Australia had recorded a drop in international student applications only cemented the view that reliance on the international student enrolments as a revenue resource was a dangerous economic practice. With government restraint and a perceived declining market, IDP participated in a campaign to boost Australia’s profile (The
The market continued to suffer with accusations of institutions lacking academic credibility (The Australian: Illing: June 2, 2004) and concerns about the quality of education provided at Australian institutions (The Australian: Illing: June 23, 2004) but supposedly buoyed by the introduction of a new advisory body on international education (Nelson MIN 758/04). Amongst all of these economic changes affecting the higher education market, as it had become, IDP Australia was cast as an organisation that is governed by nation-centred agendas while purporting to be a body of neutrality, authority and skill (Sidhu 2006).

Australian international education took on a new twist with the introduction of the Endeavour Scholarship Program, an internationally competitive, merit-based scholarship program providing opportunities for citizens of the Asia-Pacific, Middle East, Europe and the Americas to undertake study, research and professional development in Australia. Awards are also available for Australians to do the same abroad. The introduction of this program was seen as a precedent for further public/private funding arrangements at the higher education level in the international education sector (The Australian: O’Keefe: June 30, 2004). More announcements of offshore deals followed with the University of Southern Queensland and the University of Woollongong joining the Dubai education hub, home to offshore campuses from India, the UK, Pakistan, Iran and Australia (The Australian: O’Keefe: October 6, 2004) and onshore with the Carnegie Mellon University from the US considering an affiliation in South Australia (Davis 2004).
The reason given by international students for choosing Australia over other nations has been its reputation for quality higher education principally overseen by the federal government. Additional reasons are that it is seen as a country that is safe, culturally diverse, with a good climate and is in close proximity to the Asian corridor (Marginson and Considine 2000; Marginson 2001; De Zelda 2005; Fiocco 2005). With the issue of the policy statement *Engaging the World through Education* (DEST 2003) on international education, Australia was constructed as a bridge to Asia, Europe and the Americas (Sidhu 2006). In addition to these attractions, the relatively low level of the Australian dollar of the 1990s and the strength of other currencies saw an increase in international enrolments as students shifted from the United States and the United Kingdom to Australia and other countries (Marginson 2002).

A study by the AEI (International Education Network) conducted in 2000 and published in 2003, examined the question *Why Choose Australia?* The study covered the motivation for choosing Australia and the influences on decisions made by international students. The overriding conclusion to the study was that Australia is chosen because it is an English speaking country. Interestingly, the study focused not only on the choice of Australia as a destination for international students but also on the income that would be derived from their presence.

With changes to cash flow, the “glory days of unprecedented growth in international student revenue are over” Cooper (*The Australian*: May 5, 2004) warned. International student numbers had increased over the preceding decade but so had the fees charged by the institutions (*The Australian*: Perry: May 5, 2004, March 2, 2005; Maiden: January 5, 2005a, January 5, 2005b) and as Yaman (2004) states, “The end of the easy money
from international students should show universities what can happen when you take fee-paying consumers for granted.”

With the fallout of the Asian financial crisis came a need to review the quality of Australia’s international education programs and the subsequent reinforced Education for Overseas Student Act 2000 and its revisions. A need to strengthen ties with Malaysia (Nelson MIN 1150/05b), develop science linkages (Nelson MIN 1172/05a) and encourage those who would consider other destinations for their overseas study (The Australian: O’Keefe: August 31, 2005) are all part of Australia’s export successes in education (Downer and Nelson 2005). However, at the crux of all these developments is Australia’s place in the global market. With the report Education without Borders (2005), the Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade and AEI not only examined Australia’s role in the global marketplace but also the influence of Australia’s Free Trade Agreements and the World Trade Organization. The inclusion of internationalisation into the vocabulary of federal government ministers had become commonplace in briefings, ministerial statements and reports. In 2006 alone, the then Minister Julie Bishop issued approximately a dozen statements related to internationalisation in education in Australia.

The view, both onshore and offshore, that international students are “cash cows” for the Australian economy and universities’ operating budgets is a common perception. The changing federal policies and the large percentage of international students at some Australian universities have created an environment where many universities are reliant on the presence and hence money of international students for their survival. This position is obviously problematic. Exposure to market fluctuations and particularly the
shifting value of world currencies has to be considered in policy platforms in international higher education for both the government and the universities themselves.

The economic focus of higher education policy makers raises questions about the motivations of higher education ministers in Australia. Governments have not only an economic responsibility for higher education but a civic one as well. A publicly financed infrastructure created conflict in the deregulation of international education in Australia between the fulfilment of local and national needs and the tension with international education in a global context. The commercial boom of international education in Australia from the 1980s onward coincided with a drop of support in the public funding of higher education. This neoliberal public policy approach which continues today is likely to have long term negative consequences for members of the universities and the nation itself. It is the investment in the public infrastructure historically that provided the positive view of Australian higher education. Given the policy announcement of the Labor government elected in 2007 of no new funding until 2010, a change in direction does not appear to be on the horizon for Australian higher education institutions.

**State policies**

Government bodies in the state where Riverina University is situated have focused on providing policy advice to the Minister of Education on matters relating to higher education. Higher education is monitored in terms of strategic planning and reviews and feasibility studies are conducted at the request of the Minister.
The state oversees forms of international education within its borders. State services are:

Committed to maintaining (the State’s) excellent reputation as an internationally recognised study destination for overseas students. The Department ensures that all registered institutions provide quality educational services to overseas students and that the standards of delivery will be monitored for compliance (Department of Education Services 2007).

In addition, the International Directorate as part of the state government body “registers international education institutions and courses and takes an active interest in the issues surrounding the welfare of international students studying at local institutions” (Department of Education Services 2007).

The Education Service Providers (Full Fee Overseas Students) Registration Act 1991 (ESPRA) is administered by the State Department of Education Services. The Act requires all institutions that wish to offer courses to international students be registered. Under the Act a full fee overseas student means a student who holds a student visa in force under the Commonwealth Migration Act 1958 and in relation to whom a full fee is paid for a course (Department of Education Services 2007). State legislation works alongside that of the federal government, through two federal departments: Education, Science and Training (DEST) and Immigration, Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs (DIMIA). There is a nexus that exists between the ESPRA and the Australian Government’s Education Services for Overseas Students Act 2000 (ESOS), and The National Code of Practice for Registration Authorities and Providers of Education and Training to Overseas Students (The National Code).
Historically this state catered for international students as a party to the Colombo Plan that had been successful in building regional links. In the early 1990s, it changed tack and seized the opportunity to recruit international students as a result of the entrepreneurial economic environment that the federal government created through its deregulation policies. The state sent representatives on a Dawkins Trade Commission in the mid-1980s and continued to be proactive in providing opportunities for both the public and private sectors in international education.

The state gave the responsibility of marketing to international students to the Department of Commerce and Trade, treating them as akin to any other export industry (Fiocco 2005). This approach by the state laid the foundation for the developing federal policies of the time. Equally, there was the opportunity for both public and private universities to become part of the burgeoning economy of the state.

In 2000 the state experienced a reduction in the number of international students attracted to its universities. The state government was committed to reversing that trend and increasing the state's market share of overseas students. While this economically-driven priority was couched in terms of a knowledge-based economy, it appeared more as an education export strategy.

In the 1990s administrators of this state then considered that it was necessary to participate in a branding campaign, whereby a brand would become known making the state identifiable against all others in the country. This strategy, it was proposed, would be linked with tourism and the outcome would be the regaining of the market share and reinstatement of the state in the global marketplace. In 2002, the then Premier of the
state delivered an address on an *Education Export Strategy*. The primary focus of this launch promoted the state as one that was progressive with a great international base from which to do business. The launch also stated that for the state to be successful in the long term it must move towards a diversified and knowledge based economy. Education was part of this drive of the knowledge based economy and deemed to be very important in terms of potential export dollars available to the state.

**Institutional internationalisation policies**

This section of the chapter discusses the need for clear policies at the institutional level. It describes the micro level policies on internationalisation at Riverina University in the context of the federal and state environments.

International research collaboration is strongest in the research intensive institutions in Australia known as Sandstones. In these universities in comparison to those institutions founded later in Australia, there is less reliance on revenue raising from international student enrolments. These institutions have ‘brand name advantage’ and perhaps corporate allies with more flexible forms of delivery (Mazzarol and Soutar 2001). Equally, these institutions enjoy the positional advantages of their “academic capital, global research networks, established infrastructure support and capital reserves” (De Zilwa 2005:407). These operational advantages make it easier for them to raise income from sources other than international students. Riverina University is one of these institutions.
This university is unique in its financial position in Australia and the state. It has a smaller enrolment than the average for Australian universities yet has almost a billion dollars in assets with a high proportion of income generating funds. Nearly one third of its income consists of non-market private revenues which are unusual in the Australian university landscape (Marginson and Considine 2000). With a smaller percentage of income coming from their internationalisation strategies, Riverina is an exception in the Australian landscape. Its financial position has some bearing on the lack of enrolment of international students. The university has chosen to promote its international success and award winning achievements. This has allowed it to harness collaborative agreements. Revenues from international student fees in 2006 at Riverina were about eight percent compared to the national average of about fifteen percent. Though highly internationalised with an international student population of eighteen percent in 2006, Riverina is less dependent on international fees because of other revenues from bequests and investments (Marginson 2008).

Riverina University is responsible to the state Minister for Education for the proper conduct of its business under the legal framework established by state legislation. However, the university receives the majority of its funding from the Commonwealth and it is therefore responsible to the Commonwealth Minister for Education for the delivery of its teaching and research programs and for the provision of adequate infrastructure to support those programs.

In 1999, the university presented a discussion paper titled, Developing an Internationalisation Strategy Plan for the 21st Century. This document, developed by the Internationalisation Strategy Panel, detailed the university’s intent to, “take up the
issue of internationalisation in every aspect of our work” and outlined the objectives of the university in ensuring the transformation to truly make this university an international one. This document anticipated a view of the university in the decades to come, situating it as part of a globalised research and development environment and envisaging internationalisation as crucial to the university’s success. The crux of this thrust was deemed to be the preparation of the university’s graduates to be active and critical participants in society. The opportunity is for the university to be integrally a part of a global network of learning, drawing linkages with different nations and cultures.

The document was part of a review proposing that knowledge is international at its core; therefore universities were international at their core. In the midst of pre-millennium rhetoric, the university faced the same dilemma as many of its national counterparts with pressures placed upon it by the federal government to both serve national needs and respond to global pressures to operate at an international level. Amidst this changing context, it was thought that universities had become crucial in shaping a knowledge based society, having the opportunity to be ‘critical powerhouses’ for their communities in an age of global competitiveness. To achieve this goal, the university sought to engage in the transformative process of internationalisation.

Given this outlook, the university set out to alter its mission to one that envisaged the benefits and perceived needs of internationalisation through strengthening existing international activities, the developing of research, teaching and community programs to become more international. The university wished to obtain international excellence to achieve this and recognised that it had to have an international perspective in all of its activities. The university adopted Knight’s (2002)
definition of internationalisation as “the process of integrating an international/intercultural dimension into the teaching, research and service of an institution” and embedded this definition into all of its activities.

Even though indicators of internationalisation were in place, the university administrators felt that these characteristics needed to be built on and greatly enhanced in order to integrate internationalisation into all of the university’s activities. For this to be achieved, the university identified two critical paths towards internationalisation: structural factors and cultural issues.

Structurally, the 1999 discussion paper proposed the appointment of a Senior Academic (International), a specialist to drive the internationalisation policies at the university, reporting directly to the Vice Chancellor. The holder of this position was to be the interface between the Vice Chancellor, the International Office and the faculties with the establishment of a high level Internationalisation Committee and the redevelopment of the International Centre with corresponding developments in the faculty offices.

Culturally, the 1999 review deemed that the ultimate goal of any international policy was educational and should be focused on graduate outcomes and research capacity. This approach required a fundamental process of cultural transformation. As a consequence, the university review proposed the development of an operational process to include: inclusivity in teaching and learning; a foreign languages policy; study abroad; academic leaves and exchanges; the experiences of the international students at the university; the postgraduate research school; international linkages and funding; the Institute of Advanced Studies; best practices; and equity, multiculturalism and development. From these review findings, the university developed an Operational Policies Plan for 1999-2000 that reported on the implementation of the
Internationalisation Strategy Plan and a report on the discussion paper. This report
summarised the Internationalisation Strategy Plan and defined what was meant by
internationalisation for the university as follows:

International student programs, student exchanges, offshore delivery of
programs, internationalisation of research, international links, benchmarking and
the development of an international culture throughout the curricula.

(Strategic Plan for Internationalisation 2000)

In response to this report the university’s mission became to, “advance, transmit and
sustain knowledge and understanding, through the conduct of teaching, research and
scholarship at the highest international standards, for the benefit of the international and
national communities and the state… Its enduring commitment is to improve society
through learning and discovery” (Strategic Plan: 2001). The core values underpinning
the university’s activities were a commitment to a high performance culture designed to
achieve international excellence, academic freedom to encourage staff and students to
engage in the open exchange of ideas and thought, continuous improvement through
self-examination and external review, fostering of values of openness, honesty,
tolerance, fairness, trust and responsibility in social, moral and academic matters,
transparency in decision making, and accountability and equity and merit as the
fundamental principles for the achievement of the full potential of all staff and students.

The changing climate encouraged the university administration to aim towards
recognition of the university with these defining characteristics:

- high quality, as the pervading criterion for all activities
• comprehensive, with a broad teaching and research profile in the arts, sciences and professions

• selective, within a comprehensive base, to develop particular areas of strength and emphasis

• research-active, with a strong teaching and research nexus across all disciplines internationally focused, for both the content and standards of activities

• technologically innovative, to maximize flexibility and responsiveness

• flexible and responsive, to meet the needs of the community, students and graduates (Strategic Directions 2006:2).

The university administrators realised that the future of the national policy setting would favour those campuses that focus on quality, research intensity and impact. At the same time universities would need to build relationships with government, business and community sectors. To achieve these goals, Deans became responsible for linkages and relationships in China, Southeast Asia, the UK, Europe and North America to align the university with federal policies seeking linkages across the world. Riverina University is well placed in the national system to achieve these goals in a state where there is a focus on international education as an export strategy.

To achieve international excellence, the university identified in its current Operational Priorities Plan the following priorities for internationalisation:

• to extend the international experiences of students

• to further develop international benchmarking and quality assurance processes

• to attract more high quality international students, particularly postgraduate students, from a diverse range of countries. (2005 Annual Report)
To provide data to inform university administrators of student experiences in order to achieve one of the goals of the 2005 *Operational Priorities Plan*, the university implemented the *National Survey of Student Engagement* in 2005, which gathered data about staff and student practices. The administrators used this data to work closely with other national and international institutions by comparing data and developing appropriate improvement strategies. It also provided benchmarking possibilities with hundreds of North American universities as a component of the 2005 *Operational Priorities Plan*.

In 2005 the growth in international onshore student enrolments flattened off, while offshore enrolments continued to grow, albeit at a slower rate. The stronger Australian dollar continued to dampen the attractiveness of Australian university education. Given that this university is not as reliant as some others in the state on international student fees as an income stream, the fluctuations in the market did not adversely affect its financial position. Without the same degree of reliance on international students as an income stream as some of its state counterparts, administrators perceived that the university was well placed to achieve its core mission to the highest international standards.

In December 2005, the federal government passed the *HESA (Abolition of Compulsory Up-Front Student Union Fees) Act 2005*, which removed the ability of the university to set a fee for students for amenities and services. This has no doubt had an impact on the range of non-tuition services available from the Guild of Undergraduates and the Sports Association and may result in additional costs to all students. Instead the university has had to provide these services to students. The ability for the university to achieve one of
the goals of the 2005 Operational Priorities Plan to extend the experiences for international students is no doubt under pressure.

The Public Affairs division promoted the achievements of staff, students and alumni. Award winners generated extensive international, national and local attention, further enhancing the University’s reputation for achieving international excellence. This exposure complemented a national advertising campaign built around the international reputation and standing of the University’s staff.

Riverina University deemed that at the critical point of 1999 they were well placed to take on the challenges presented by internationalisation and to enter the new century confident in the university’s ability to chart its own destiny as a truly international institution. The restructured International Centre took on the role of enhancing the university’s profile through its activities and standards encompassed in the University’s mission with collaboration of staff and postgraduate students in international research projects, development of institutional agreements, visits by distinguished researchers and information sharing through an electronic information network. The university now boasts agreements with over 45 international institutions, student enrolments from 80 countries in 2006 and student exchange programs with 33 university campuses worldwide. The International Centre handles prospective student enquiries, undergraduate and postgraduate admissions, student exchange programs, study abroad, orientation and post-admission support services.

Achievements at Riverina have been possible despite federal government policies that from the mid-1980s saw international education mainly in terms of the number of international students enrolled. Changing federal policies recognised the unique position
of universities to operate in a knowledge economy. Riverina University became immersed in an international environment in which it was already well placed.

**Conclusion**

Policies are a reflection of how local, national and global forces pull and push against each other. They link the government and the universities, their institutional practices and consequently, individual behaviours (Sidhu 2006). The global demand for Australian-provided higher education gained momentum with the phrase ‘can’t stop this’, which was the message of the federal government embraced by states and many institutions as international education became a tradable commodity. These changes resulted in greater control granted to the federal government in a domain that once belonged to states and the universities themselves. This shift from state to federal control over education and the subsequent policy changes have been accompanied by a decrease in the public funding of universities. The consequence is that the delivery and quality of the education itself has declined in standard. Increasing student staff ratios are associated with a drop in quality of education for students, international and domestic alike. If Australian institutions are to better prepare students to operate in the knowledge economy that is espoused in their policy statements, greater investment in higher education is needed. A more complex issue is that some institutions increasingly depend on recruitment of international students for their long term financial viability and that may weaken the system as a whole. While the international student enrolments provide revenues, the beneficiary is not the university itself but the federal government in the form of fiscal management and balance of trade (Marginson 2001; Welch 2002). The
next chapter details how Riverina University responded to and implemented these federal policies.
Chapter Six

Australian Case Study

Site research context – Riverina University

On a suburban campus with a population of approximately 17,000 students and an alumni base of 75,000 graduates, both domestic and international, this centre for learning, Riverina University, has acquired a reputation for excellence and enterprise. It is regarded as one of Australia's top research institutions, attracting researchers across a range of disciplines. It recently attracted more competitive research funding on a per capita basis of staff involved in research than any other Australian university. This strength in research makes Riverina especially appealing to students from across Australia and from neighbouring Asian nations, Europe and America. Collaborative research including exchange programs involving institutions in Asia, Europe and the United States have created a complex web that links Riverina University in Australia with an ever widening world of learning and research.

As the flagship university of the state, Riverina University is a research intensive institution. The Vice-Chancellor appoints an administrative group to assist with the academic, financial, administrative and business responsibilities of the university.
**Trends of international student enrolment**

Figures shown in the chart below provide an insight into the international student enrolments at Riverina. They represent those collected at the beginning of each academic year from 2002-2006. Riverina showed continued growth throughout this period. As a percentage of student population, Riverina has a significant proportion of international students in its total student population at close to eighteen percent in 2006. This is illustrated in Figure 14.

**Figure 14 Riverina International Student Enrolment Trends**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Enrolment</th>
<th>Percentage of student body</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>2348</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>2793</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>2882</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>3076</td>
<td>17.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>3122</td>
<td>17.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(University Statistics Office: 2006)
As part of the case study at Riverina, I interviewed 39 administrators, faculty, domestic and international students from a range of departments were interviewed on the impact of globalisation and the success of the university’s internationalisation strategies. Their views are discussed in this chapter. Table 7 presents the number of interview participants and their location in the university.

**Table 7 Interview participant category and location**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interviewee Category</th>
<th>School/ Departmental affiliation</th>
<th>RU</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Administrators</td>
<td>Top tier (2), second tier (6)</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faculty Members</td>
<td>Business, Education, Law, Music, Arts &amp; Sciences</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Graduates</td>
<td>Business, Education, Law, Music, Arts &amp; Sciences</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Undergraduates</td>
<td>Business, Arts &amp; Sciences</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic Graduates</td>
<td>Business, Education, Arts &amp; Sciences</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic Undergraduates</td>
<td>Business &amp; Sciences</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Of the student population, fourteen international students and eight domestic students were interviewed. Students were enrolled in the same departments as the faculty members interviewed. This data provides a snapshot of the international and domestic students interviewed at Riverina University. The international student participants’ countries of origin at Riverina University were: Malaysia, Japan, Singapore, United Arab Emirates, Hong Kong, China and Columbia. Students had a range of one to three years in Australia at the time of the interviews. Of the international graduates interviewed, 100 percent of the participants’ first language was a language other than English. Of the international undergraduates, 60 percent were native English speakers. The remaining 40 percent were students for whom English was a second language.

Of the domestic graduate interview participants, 33 percent were from out of state. The remainder of the domestic graduate participants were from in state. Of the domestic undergraduate students, 100 percent were from in state.

**Perspectives on the university mission statement**

Riverina’s primary mission statement is:

*To advance, transmit and sustain knowledge and understanding through the conduct of teaching, research and scholarship at the highest international standards, for the benefit of the international and national communities and the state.*

To determine if and how this mission was being achieved by the university, interviews were conducted across the different populations at the university.
Perspectives on internationalisation strategies were addressed in the interviews of the participants with questions which were semi-structured to gather ideas, views and experiences of administrators, faculty members and domestic and international students. Participants were those who were directly affected by this phenomenon on their campus. The ideas were collected in order to add insights and a ‘human’ dimension to what may otherwise be seen as purely a strategic or managerial process. The concepts of globalisation and internationalisation as defined in Chapter Two are discussed in terms of the responses of participants to determine changes to policy and practices on this campus. In Chapter Nine, implications for other campuses undertaking internationalisation strategies will be elaborated.

Within the context of its primary mission, the university's specific international role is described in its Strategic Plan:

In order to build further upon its position of strength in research activities and in its undergraduate base, the university must maintain and strengthen its international focus, for it is the international world of scholarship that provides the quality controls and benchmarks by which the university will be judged in the long run. The university will best fulfil its role as a local and national resource, contributing towards State and Commonwealth needs and priorities and responding to 'consumer' needs, if it is internationally competitive and recognised. (Strategic Plan 2007)

The primary mission statement of the university has remained the same throughout the course of the study and was renewed in April 2007. However, the planning and implementation of the overall plan of the university has undergone change during the period that the case study was undertaken.

Administrators perceive that internationalisation has been mainstreamed in the activities of this institution. One administrator commented that, “There is nothing that happens
around here at the moment that there is not a discussion about where do we see [Riverina] internationally? We don’t compare ourselves to local universities…Everything that happens, the question is, is there another international university, an international example that has an idea that we can steal that might improve [Riverina’s] international standards?”

For the most part, administrators and faculty alike suggested that the mission statement itself constructs the aims of internationalisation. The overriding view is that this mission can be achieved by internationalisation processes such as collaborations, presentations and publications, employing international faculty, student exchange and international benchmarking. The majority of the faculty members interviewed perceived that the pressure to operate at this level means producing work that must live up to the standards and reputation of the university. International recognition too comes from active international research, grants and prize winning.

One administrator stated, “We were always an international research university and so I think that there is just a continuation of that. We have firmed up the rules to make sure that we are really obviously operating at that level. We demonstrate that we are doing that much more than we used to.” This administrator perceives that the striving to meet the mission of achieving international credibility comes from the top of the university and every level of management. The message is reinforced from the VC to the DVC, to the Deans, right down to all members of the university. It has become an inherent expectation to be implemented by all members of the university.
International and domestic students were generally positive in their perception of the achievement of the internationalising mission of the university with few exceptions. One graduate student observed that underlying the premise of internationalisation in the mission statement is the search for the dollar which comes from overseas sources, and that this really affects most of the operations of the university on the campus. To benefit the university, two business students expressed the view that the success of this element in the university’s mission can be borne out by tracking where graduates go after the completion of their degree and that some degrees lend themselves to international employment. This in turn benefits the university in achieving this part of their mission with the establishment of research links and developing partnerships offshore. Several undergraduate and graduate students believed that the university was not achieving this mission on an international stage but their perception was that the university was well known nationally. Some students added that the teaching was not to the highest international standard and that therefore this component of the internationalisation policy is not borne out in practice.

Administrators, faculty members and students were asked if the university mission was being carried out in their departments and whether the departments themselves had an international ethos. All administrators believed that their departments had an international ethos with a long standing commitment and international reputation. The majority of the faculty members believed this to be the case too, with few exceptions. The students, however, presented mixed responses, observing that technically and theoretically the department should have an international ethos but in reality some staff members do and others do not have an international ethos. The conclusion from all of the students is that the university programs in the most part produce Australian
graduates for Australian conditions. The focus on international situations is if anything meagre despite the acknowledged need according to these students.

**Internationalisation Strategies**

**Benefits and barriers to successful implementation**

There are many different approaches to achieving the mission of the university and hence the internationalisation of a university campus – collaborative arrangements, transnational programs, research and faculty exchange, and international students on campus. Inherent in these approaches is the motivation for internationalising the university. This section of the chapter focuses on the perceived benefits and barriers of implementing an internationalisation strategy at Riverina University and includes a discussion of student experiences on campus.

The focus of the interviews was on internationalisation strategies put in place as a response to globalisation. The interview protocol for all participants addressed globalisation and the participants’ assessment of its function and consequences at the university. Globalisation was generally viewed by all participants as an overriding concept functioning in the background of the university’s activities. The concept is multifaceted and participants identified a number of different factors. It wasn’t only preparing students for a global marketplace. An education is being provided for both the local student who is no longer expected to limit employment opportunities locally but may become part of the global marketplace, and the international students coming to Australia already experiencing the global marketplace in higher education.
Internationalisation is examined in the following discussion as the university’s response to globalising practices and is very much, according to one administrator, a strategic policy of the university. Internationalisation has become much more part of the university’s mainstream operations and practice. One administrator commented, “That is what we do already”.

Internationalisation was also seen as part of the entrepreneurial activities necessary to counter the declining funding from the government. As detailed in the previous policy chapter, the federal government’s drive for universities to raise part of their own revenue has resulted in changes to their funding model. The consequences, according to a science faculty member have been, “Maintaining the same activity but peddling harder… We have resisted reductions in staffing levels but of course the pressure to maintain the funding has meant taking on more and more undergraduate students, mounting new units, and new subjects to increase enrolments, so the workload is higher.” As a response to globalising practices, different forms of entrepreneurial activity have been undertaken by university divisions.

Different divisions across the university have sought to look very carefully at income from other sources and ways of maximising income from investment, the acquisition of funding and partnerships with industry. Equally the university has had to become more thoughtful about its relationship with alumni and has looked to the United States universities as models of philanthropic fundraising. There is the option of attracting more international full-fee paying students but the internal constraint, according to an administrator, is that the university has to ensure that fee paying students are not taken at any sacrifice to quality. In contrast to this viewpoint, another administrator believes
that the university has responded by enrolling overseas students and has introduced the enrolment of Australian students paying full fees upfront. This option of enrolling domestic students on a full fee basis was curtailed by the Labor Government in 2008 and will result in a substantial loss of income for the universities, especially in areas like law and medicine where the full fee was considerable. The rules have allowed the university to enrol more overseas students and this administrator agrees that there has been no choice but to tap into this resource.

The university has taken another step to maintain the level of international student enrolments by establishing its own foundation program that provides the last two years of high school on a separate campus in an effort to package pre university courses. The establishment of a foundation college is for international students to achieve the necessary academic standards in order to gain entry into the university. The university administration identifies the college as a mechanism for increasing a steady stream in the undergraduate international market from countries that do not naturally come to the state.

Overwhelmingly members of the university are upfront about their perception of and motivation to respond to changes in funding across the campus. One education faculty member commented, “That is why we set up the internationalisation program. Without it we would have been in debt to the tune of $1.5 million. Our reasons for doing it are not missionary zeal in promoting the word; it is simply to raise cash.” It is this nexus between the academy and globalised business practices that raises all sorts of questions about the autonomy of the university in its attempts to internationalise the campus according to this faculty member.
Collaborative research and transnational agreements

Collaborations are an important aspect of internationalising a university. Universities are international places and to achieve international recognition most researchers have to engage in collaborations worldwide. One of the areas of consideration for a recent internal quality exercise of the university’s operations was the international impact of their research. An administrator commented that data showed that in comparison to other Australian universities this university has the highest number of papers in which a partner on the paper was from an international university. A science student observed, “From a university point of view, to collaborate with other unis you have to produce good research and the only way to do that is to present internationally and tell people internationally what you are doing.” All other students agreed with this position. An administrator explained that there is an internal system that rewards collaboration internationally and an awareness of developing different connections in different disciplines in order to build those partnerships is looked upon favourably.

Seeking international partners and looking beyond the national sector to identify institutions and opportunities internationally that the administrators believe suit the university’s profile and mission are all part of the goal of internationalising the university. The university has been, according to an administrator, cleverly selective in identifying resources and targeting those that will get the best results.

An administrator suggested that Australia as a whole should be interacting more with overseas countries given its small population base. Australia can play a role in promoting Western values such as democratic values, tolerance and equity values in the region on the basis of being a highly skilled society with social skills and social
services, not just resources. This administrator believes that the university can play a role in developing those areas. Another administrator commented that the university is in the business of training leaders from other countries, so part of the aim is getting people who will go back to their own countries with positive memories of Australia, the city and the university itself.

There is, according to an administrator, steady interest and growth in the university’s transnational programs. Several faculty members mentioned the increasing relationships with offshore universities. Transnational programs were put in place in the School of Education in 1995 in response to a review in 1994 determining that the school was insolvent. Two of the education faculty members interviewed commented that given the low success rate of obtaining government funding, there is certainly pressure over a long period of time to find alternative sources of funding.

There has been promotion of transnational programs where the units can charge fees for offshore students, particularly in the Business and Education schools. This approach is deemed to have considerable benefits but there is also “wear and tear for staff, with the constant travelling, and support for students offshore with email is an additional demand on faculty” (Education faculty member). As another education faculty member stated, “Although the money has kept us open literally, it is at personal cost to the staff.” There is no doubt that this is perceived by four of the faculty members interviewed as one of the disadvantages to internationalising practices. The increase of collaborative and transnational arrangements has meant an increase in workload for these academics and their colleagues. One education faculty member commented, “It may be part of our duties but it is not a trivial or lightly entered into activity. It is well
beyond an add on. The [offshore] teaching is intensive.” Equally, there are members of
the faculty who are engaged in running research with collaborations in a number of
countries and doctoral students who are engaged in offshore studies and external
students. The biggest concern many faculty members have is how not to get burnt out
with the increasing demands of internationalisation.

An education faculty member commented that the driving agenda to recruit onshore
students is economic. “The goal of the university used to be to seek wisdom, now it is to
seek cash.” In addition, this faculty member observed that in courses like Accounting
100, where there are 700 people packed in a lecture theatre, the value is not the wisdom
that they acquire but the piece of paper and an end point of a higher income. The
students are prepared to pay and therefore it doesn’t matter what they learn, the cash is
all that counts. There is a focus on mass teaching, multiple choice answers, and the right
answer. The whole reason for giving lectures has changed, according to this faculty
member. “When I came here, lecturers were engaged in teaching, interacting, giving
their points of view. Forget about it. The program is now instructional based.”

Unfortunately the outcome of this entrepreneurial shift is that education has become a
commercial product that is quite marketable. The overriding mantra of this university
was that their reputation would do their marketing for them, but nevertheless some
schools and departments do their own marketing with faculty members spending their
time on overseas presentations, courting offshore and onshore international students.

For the International Office, developing collaborations and supporting sister universities
is a major function. “We are encouraging students from those countries to be part of our
international student program, raising our profile, increasing our identity, creating those linkages, creating opportunities for our own students to travel or possibly engage in research activities. We look at income-raising as an established fact of those relationships.” According to an administrator, this income raising is not directly related to international activity although it tends to develop in parallel with it.

**International appointments, faculty and student exchange**

One administrator perceived that the faculty has always been as international as it is now, but with the recent addition of more faculty members from Asian countries. With the change of the scenario in the Soviet Union and South Africa, the countries of origin of international faculty members have changed. The dominant view expressed by administrator and faculty members was that if this is an international university, then there must be international faculty members; and when a position is advertised, it must be advertised internationally. The proportion of international applicants to university positions is quite high, as too are appointments from research positions up to quite senior positions with 40 percent of the staff with a degree from a location other than Australia. The majority of faculty members and the entire administrators interviewed believed that the departments and the university as a whole consider the quality of the applicants, regardless of their background. According to an administrator, the need for staff who will contribute to the journey of international excellence and international appointments is always a consideration.

The university encourages research and faculty exchanges. There is a strong internationalisation plan to establish linkages with appropriate research groups overseas. Attendance at international conferences helps to facilitate this process. There is a
faculty travel grant scheme to enable faculty members to go overseas and discretionary funds for post-doctoral students to go overseas as well. For some disciplines, international teaching is a dominant portion of their activities.

Faculty exchange is viewed as being good for everyone involved but has its complications. Faculty or staff swaps could be effective, stated a faculty member, but there are difficulties in matching salaries and conditions. To host an international visitor, there is a cost to the school and the faculty in supporting them. There is a need to find study space and appropriate resources such as library and internet support. One of the difficult decisions that different departments have had to make is in accepting visiting scholars who do not wish to come to the university to do research but to sit in on classes without paying fees.

One social sciences faculty member mentioned that they are personally travelling, as are some of their colleagues, to India, China, Singapore, Japan, and Canada. “I think we all have an international orientation which is necessary for business.” Another faculty member from Law commented that she had the opportunity to conduct research overseas. She had only been at the university for two or three months and was offered an overseas scholarship. The university “didn’t blink. In my previous position, I would not have been able to take it. It is extraordinary.”

Faculty members who had been present at the university for some time observed the recent changes when applying for travel abroad. Once upon a time an application would have to be made to the VC and that is no longer the case. “If you can make sure that your teaching is covered and you have an international junket they want you to go.
There is a big push on becoming known in the international marketplace.” This science faculty member has noticed a big turn around in attitude to these international arrangements in the last ten years.

For Riverina academics, sabbatical leave is almost sacrosanct (academics in some other Australian universities have lost this entitlement). It is built into the academic staff agreements with a provision of paid leave for six months after four years and one year after six years. Interestingly, there is almost an insistence that it is taken outside of Australia and certainly outside of the state to develop international linkages. The Administrator believes that there is an international benefit from this. Immediately following a period of sabbatical leave, there is a flurry of activity with new grants, and therefore it is an essential component of the working environment. It is expensive for the university to support because while the faculty member is away, their salary is maintained and the travel costs are paid for. Nonetheless the university administrators see the leave as central to the university’s activities.

Several postgraduate students expressed the opinion that if academics have done their postgraduate study in another country, they automatically have a leaning to maintain that relationship with that country and students. It creates an international community. The conclusion by all those interviewed was that there will never be sufficient international links, research and faculty exchange. To achieve the goals for increasing internationalisation that are set, most reiterate the comment of an administrator, “We are always looking for further opportunities.”
Mobility really counts for something according to an administrator, since when faculty members and students have the opportunity to travel and to have an educational experience they are combining the two experiences. There was a consensus among administrators and faculty members interviewed about the benefits of exchange programs for students where there is exposure to another culture and another place. All of those interviewed were well aware that the percentage of Australians who sign up for study abroad programs is very small. Only one domestic undergraduate student interviewed had experienced a study abroad period as part of her degree.

Benchmarking was also referred to by administrators as an additional means to ensure that the university mission of international excellence is achieved. There are two sets of processes in place. One is the review of faculty members every five to seven years that involves external reviewers, including international reviewers. There are comparison points with other universities around the world and around Australia. The other is through formal relationships with other universities in Canada and in the UK where the university exchanges data in order to get some broad scale comparisons.

Curriculum
According to a science faculty member, internationalisation priorities have not changed the curriculum very much, “We do not change the program in any way for international students. We teach in English, we teach the same program to a certain standard regardless of where they come from.” In contrast, several other faculty members and students perceived either that the curriculum has been internationalised across the university or that it was already. Some university activities are international. Yet with robust domestic interests to look after Australian students and Australian industry, the
curriculum remains Australian-focused. One law faculty member commented that there are courses that are domestically based and Australian focused because it is assumed that students will be working in the Australian system. Regardless, it is generally considered that reading materials presented to students will come from around the world. As part of the internationalisation strategy, every Dean is required to meet with the Administrator to produce examples that demonstrates how they have internationalised their curriculum or how they are working on it. In some cases in the sciences, academics are members of international organisations and are party to international agreements. As a consequence, the curriculum is determined internationally.

As a by product of internationalising the curriculum, sometimes the curriculum is altered to accommodate international students. The majority of domestic students expressed their concern about the quality of the degree. If there is too much simplification of the material so the content is comprehended by overseas students, the domestic students are concerned that they get the advantage in one way because they don’t have to work as hard but they could be disadvantaged because their qualification may be degraded and may not be recognised internationally.

A faculty member observed that there are big questions in relation to the focus and content that arise out of internationalising the curriculum for the university. All administrators agreed. Despite this, several faculty members suggested that internationalising the curriculum is not only due to the presence of international students. It has also been done because it is the appropriate pedagogy. Moreover, the curriculum lends itself to opportunities to accommodate international experiences.
Curriculum integration is the buzz word according to an administrator. The international direction taken by the university encouraged a response by administrators that is expected to be translated by administrators and faculty members in pedagogy and curriculum content. As another administrator proffered, a successful program would not be simply discipline based, it would be more institution wide. The aim should be to internationalise all student experiences, not just to internationalise the curriculum.

**Recruitment and enrolment of international students**

According to an administrator, Riverina has only been actively recruiting internationally since around 1987 when the federal government deregulated the fee structure. The faculties themselves are much more active in recruiting international students than they used to be. When recruitment began on a large scale, it was largely the domain of the International Centre. Now, all the Deans are proactive. Some faculties are working on developing masters programs which can be conducted by distance learning through coursework nationally and internationally. In Education and Music these courses are aimed at teachers or professionals. Administrators consider that wherever courses are a bit short of numbers to make them viable, there is always a thought that they should try and increase their overseas enrolments. Business and Education have made strong and vigorous efforts to teach overseas. These programs are viewed positively because they increase the university’s international profile. These practices are part of the strategic objectives that are central policy in an effort to achieve international excellence.

To consider the demands of the potential growth in the changing international student market, university administrators are looking at opportunities from China and India. It is selective recruiting, aiming at growth in specific areas with the aim of maintaining the
markets of Singapore and Hong Kong. Administrators have developed better recruitment policies by visiting different countries and building research connections to create a flow of research students.

The perception of most administrators is that while there always have been a large number of international students in research; numbers have certainly grown over the last decade. Factors, such as the strengthening of the Australian dollar and increasing competition from other providers in Asia, influence the international student intake. It is currently approximately 18 percent of the total student population. It could be higher but, according to one administrator, what limits the university is the high entry standard required. This automatically eliminates a large number of international students. According to several administrators, an international intake of twenty percent of the total student body would be the optimal number to be considered an international university in the Australian context. University administrators watched as others across the country attracted international students. Concern was expressed that high international student enrolments could result in resource dependence on one source and this would be dangerous. Only a few world events can change the international education market.

Several administrators claimed that recruitment of international students is not high because the university is not looking for very large numbers. Instead, they are looking for students who are satisfactory to teach and they do not have any desire to make recruitment higher. Part of this consideration is the long term factor about reputation in a fairly volatile market place. An illustration of the uncertainty of the market place is that university administrators hesitated before they increased their market share of
international students. Another danger expressed by a faculty member appears in particular fields where the enrolment becomes so high proportionally in that area that students look around and see that there are more international students than Australian students. There is an opinion that they may as well be studying at a university overseas as opposed to this university. The dominant view of domestic students is that recruitment of international students is about making money. International students generally agreed that recruitment fulfilled two purposes: for the university to be more recognised internationally and to increase revenue.

University members pride themselves on the reputation of the university and this has been utilised as a lever in marketing internationally. The university also has the advantage of a recent Nobel Prize winner on its academic staff. The prestige obtained from this is seen favourably overseas where the Asian societies take it very seriously and this assists as a marketing and recruitment strategy.

Diversifying international student intake has benefits. In terms of internationalising, there has been a worldwide approach yet the university administrators would be very keen to go further: to Latin America, for example. The broad positive reasons for diversifying are tempered by the costs associated with the marketing and travelling to Europe and the US, where travelling costs and promotional costs are high. Generally, faculty members expressed the position that the university is highly regarded internationally for its quality of teaching and research. As one faculty member observed, “There is still a sense of how we don’t need to push ourselves for the quality of what we do does give us an edge [in the market].” Another faculty member in Business commented that marketing occurs all the time both on and offshore with
enrolments three times a year plus summer school, involving “cranking out promotional material all through the year, adverts in the paper, information nights, direct marketing and trade fairs.”

According to the majority of administrators, faculty members and international students alike, a major reason behind recruitment of postgraduate students internationally, is that Australians are less and less interested in pursuing PhDs due to the proliferation of alternative career paths, so it is very hard to recruit high quality local students into PhD programs. The university does not wish to lower its standards, so this means that they look outside for research students, with Deans constantly overseas trying to establish relationships of exchange. For the university it means that they can have a high research output if those recruited internationally are talented, which is very important in terms of funding and the university’s profile. The international students have a big impact on productivity. The pressure to be competitive is always there and probably more important because of the squeeze on funding. The overriding conclusion of those interviewed is that in the research game, there is no research that is not international; there is no business that is not international. To maintain the university’s profile, marketing to and recruiting of international students is essential.

There was agreement among those interviewed that the university has increased its visibility overseas compared to five years ago. The participants felt that there was an increased appreciation overseas of the quality of Australian education and of Australian institutions over the last decade. This has been achieved predominantly by offshore teaching arrangements. Interest has been expressed by overseas universities for more collaborative arrangements since the Nobel Prize was awarded to a university faculty.
member. Such prestigious awards can influence international student enrolment numbers. An additional significant factor leading to the increase in international student enrolments at this university is the shifting political climate overseas, which resulted in increased enrolments particularly from the Middle East with schools developing niche markets to respond to needs.

Most administrators shared the opinion that given the local demand for places at the university, the university should not be dependent on taking international students to raise money. The common perception is that enrolling international students is a money raiser for some schools who have the opportunity to do so. One administrator observed that income from international students is an important factor but that the university wouldn’t sink without it. Due to quality issues, the university turns down many local students and all they would have to do is drop the entrance requirements for local students to increase numbers. On a wider scale, some faculty members are of the opinion that any international student benefits the department because of their money and it is hard not to see students overall as assisting cash flow. Conversely, one domestic student had concluded that having international students funds the ability of the university to take additional domestic students, “I know that some will argue that the domestic student places are taken by international students. I argue the opposite, they actually provide the funding for the university to offer scholarships and take more domestic students. Some of these units wouldn’t otherwise float because they are not cost effective.”
Campus experiences

There are different layers to the internationalisation strategies implemented on university campuses. The following section of this chapter details what faculty members and students see as the core of their experiences on campus. This includes their perceptions about international student recruitment and enrolment, international students’ arrival to Riverina, cultural diversity, support services and explicit barriers faced by international students.

International students cited connections through their family or faculty in home universities as reasons for enrolling at this university, as well as proximity to Asia, currency exchange, research funding, resources offered and cost of living. Many countries fund students to study abroad and Australia and this university are an attractive option for many of the reasons discussed above. Some countries, such as Singapore, impose restrictions on which universities students can apply to.

Additionally, other international students cited security as a factor. One Asian international student discussed how she asked other students why they chose to study in Australia instead of other places, “I told them study in US is much more fun, there are lots of places to visit, shopping there is like heaven. But their answer is that they don’t want to get naked at the US airport.” They are still haunted by the image of how difficult it is to enter the US and the process that they have to go through to study there.

Interestingly, several international postgraduate students who had studied elsewhere internationally had different views in the light of their previous experiences, and some specifically chose Australia for cultural reasons. One Brazilian international
postgraduate commented how she appreciates the ethics and ethos of Australian society, “I feel the values of the country, those qualities. People here are more relaxed, more genuine and tend to speak their minds…it is less material in comparison to the other places in the world.” Several other international students mentioned that they came to Australia and loved it.

An international student commented that choosing Australia and Riverina is probably due to an increase in advertising. The agents in the various countries promote the university to their prospective students, according to this international student. Also, the common perception was that if graduates from the university have mainly had a positive experience, this inspires a great deal of confidence in prospective students and more so in their parents. Of those international students interviewed, the majority cited that their parents have a great deal of influence on the choice of university.

The overwhelming majority of those interviewed did not see a preference for different nationalities or cultural backgrounds in the enrolments on the part of the institution for international students on campus. However, one faculty member drew attention to the importance of the presence of large numbers of Muslim students as male Muslims cannot be placed with female students, and female Muslim students cannot be placed in shared facilities with males. This can create office accommodation problems for the university. This view was shared by domestic and international postgraduate students based on their personal experiences of having shared office spaces.
**Cultural diversity**

According to all interview participants, the central benefit of the presence of international faculty and students to the university is cultural diversity. Underlying this, there was consensus across all levels of the university that there is a great deal to be added to the country that receives the international student and to the country that the international student may or may not return to. There is, as one administrator put it, a beneficial impact to diversifying Australian culture. The premise is to embrace people from other cultures and to contribute to the diversity of culture. The opportunities for domestic students include exposure to new languages and cultures, opportunities for the development of intercultural competencies, and international networks. The number of Australian postgraduate students who travel and work overseas is very high and the university’s administrators would like to see their graduates have those competencies and have familiarity with other cultures. The desire to have a language other than English and the confidence to be able to travel are important. There were varied points of view on the impact of cultural diversity. Several administrators and students commented that the presence of international students brought cultural diversity but there were concerns expressed about the limited level of social interaction attained.

As a component of cultural diversity, social interaction to a larger extent depends on how actively and conscientiously integration is encouraged. The nature of diversity experienced by all at the university is a product of the resources that can be utilised to encourage interaction. All participants interviewed concurred that if international students are grouped together by nationality, this doesn’t do much for diversity. There have to be programs that try to optimise the benefits of having international students on
the campus. Administrators observed that this approach requires substantial staff resources.

There are activities in departments and on the university campus as a whole where there are opportunities for exchanges of cultures, such as debates and a Spring Fair where each scholar represents a country. There is a program described by an international student where there are opportunities to stay with a family and travel throughout the country to Uluru for example, organised through the Rotary Club. The International Centre sent emails to all of the international students to offer them participation in the program. There are opportunities for domestic students to meet with representatives from other nations for tourism purposes. These activities are publicised throughout the university, predominantly by the International Centre. Emails are distributed and there is a website that lists events.

To encourage interaction from an early stage, the university has reduced the number of orientation activities specifically targeted to international students in an attempt to integrate these students with local students as quickly as possible. There were no specific strategies in place stipulated by any interview participants, just an integration of orientation activities. One administrator commented that historically there was always talk about the great divide in the dining hall between the Australian and the Asian students, but groups now hang together. This administrator suggests that there are many reasons for doing this other than nationality, and made the apt observation that these are young adults who make their own choices and provide for themselves. An opposing collective point of view was expressed by all of the students interviewed who commented on the divide that occurs in all locations across the campus where people
generally remain in their cultural groups. If cultural diversity is a goal, comments one
domestic student, it cannot occur by enrolment numbers alone. If cultural diversity is
present then, as one faculty member put it, it is incidental.

One problem that international and domestic students observed is that a lot of activities
at the university are managed by international students where the activities are only for
those who are members of the group. One example given by a student was the activities
conducted by the Muslim Association – there were no Australian people present or any
Australian Muslims. This does little to encourage social interaction. One international
student relayed a conversation with an Australian friend who was not interested in
attending the international events because they are busy with their own lives. One factor
mentioned as an impediment to social interaction by all was the requirement of the
majority of domestic students to be employed. The side effect is the inability of students
to spend time on campus socialising. Further, given the dynamic of this particular
Australian university campus, where domestic students predominantly come from the
surrounding city area, students who have their roots and lives invested in their local
area, will not necessarily look to the university for social interaction.

Unlike the majority of the administrators, faculty members and students tend to view
cultural diversity as tokenistic. There is an awareness of events that need to be planned
more culturally sensitive. One science faculty member explained orientation week
camps which provide events that are culturally affronting to some groups, such as those
that involve non-stop drinking. While this faculty member explained efforts have been
made to change the attitude of incoming first year students, he noted that there has been
little success. A domestic student questioned the appropriateness of these activities and
services for international students on campus. “If you are not an Aussie beer swilling, football playing, porno watching pie eater, you are not getting your money’s worth. Those international students who do not access any of those things are not getting their money’s worth.” International students predominantly suggested that they are required to adapt to the Australian culture and the events of orientation are an indicator of those cultural norms. One Columbian international student commented that to enjoy Australia you have to behave as an Australian. You have to adapt:

Sometimes you have to quit traditions because sometimes if you keep your traditions you are very [noticeable]. For example, the clothes you are wearing, there could be a bad reaction. There is a multicultural requirement to adapt. I don’t know if they want every one to adapt to the Australian way. For me, I need to be open to Australian culture and society. When there were the attacks in Sydney, I asked someone if I looked like someone from the Middle East and they said no, that I didn’t, that I was trying to adapt, not wearing certain clothes. For many people they don’t like it if you come here and you don’t offer yourself to the culture or society. If you keep to your group of friends, your background, it is something that is not well [regarded].

A domestic student observed that the international students do not have that key to get into the mainstream — where to sit, how to interact, how to converse in classrooms and in coffee shops.

The composition of the international student cohort has changed the cultural mix, with more students coming from the Middle East, particularly over the last five or so years. Despite the viewpoints expressed regarding orientation, a domestic student commented that she believes that in general people are more culturally aware and know a lot more about Muslims and are moving to be more tolerant. This student believes that Australians are learning to be more careful of what is said in terms of offending other cultures with regards to sexual comments or jokes and even alcohol, and teachers are more aware of cultures and trying to learn more and be more culturally sensitive. A faculty member observed that Australia is very poly-national due to immigration and
that is represented at the university. According to an international student, Australia is a multi-cultural country where the domestic students have been accustomed to an international atmosphere since they were young and these experiences flow into university life. On the other hand, one science faculty member commented that the majority’s cultural norms are still pervasive.

One administrator expressed concern over the fact that older international students coming for research often come with wives and children and he is not sure that the families receive enough support. He believes that often language barriers are more acute for families trying to live in the community. Children may attend school and adapt and learn very quickly. Stereotypically, the mothers are the ones who are often at home with the children and the father goes to work at the university where there is a social network. Obviously this suggests a responsibility that goes beyond making sure that the university supports its international students yet is vital in the context of the success of these students.

There is a consensus by those interviewed that the university needs to evaluate cultural diversity and social interaction at a deeper level. The university is beginning to obtain more information from the international students themselves and how they engage in their studies. For the first time just prior to these interviews, the university participated in the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE). It was able to adapt NSSE to the university needs. There was recognition by the majority of participants at all levels that diversity is a complex issue. For cultural diversity to be embedded at the university, diversity has to be advocated and institutionalised. People’s awareness of what it means
to be tolerant and an understanding of multi-culturalism cannot be done by increasing international student enrolments alone.

**Support services**

There was a consensus that as part of the internationalisation plan, the international students on the campus must be provided with adequate support services. All of those interviewed made observations about the support services for international students. An administrator pointed out that according to the university financial systems, the fees that the international students pay generally cover costs of the services provided. This administrator stated that the university takes more money from international students because they know that they require more work from the university. Other administrators commented on the obvious physical things – providing the social, cultural and spiritual environments particularly through the residential colleges and on campus itself. This university has the only female residential college in the State, which is attractive to Muslims. Additional services include various student organisations representing countries and religious groups. There is a mentoring scheme for all undergraduate students. An Asian international student commented that the orientation was really helpful, “When you come here, you have no friends, so it [the orientation] helps you mix among international students. The friends I met there, I still have and they help a lot.”

International students discussed different experiences when it came to utilising the support services on campus. Some felt that they needed more help in finding housing particularly since references are required by rental agencies. One Asian international student found the process too stressful and commented that her health was affected, “I
applied to international housing and received no feedback.” Other international students did not experience any difficulties in utilising the services of the housing department on campus. The university has a system set up for international students to be able to open a bank account on campus and different banks were available for consultation during the orientation period. In addition international students found the information provided by the university on public transport very useful.

Domestic students observed that while students can buy Halal food on campus, there is nowhere around the university that sells Halal meat. If the students arrive and they don’t have the resources to buy a car or obtain a license, they have to take three buses to go to a market that sells Halal meat. While this is not the responsibility of the university (it does provide Halal food on campus), it is part of a wider community consideration in welcoming international students to the city. Another example of providing a welcoming environment for international students on campus is the prayer rooms for men and women. When these are not available, it can be awkward for Muslim students. In 2005, the Muslim women were not able to get into the prayer room because it was locked for security reasons and they had to find alternative arrangements to pray. The men still went to the men’s prayer room. One domestic student’s office mate had to pray in the middle of the shared workspace for a time until the issue was resolved.

**English as a second language**

English language instruction is one of the support services provided at the university and operates at the English as a Second Language Centre. Completion of courses at the Centre is part of the entry requirements at the university. Domestic students observed that international students receive more time than domestic students for language
assistance. Overall, the university offers most of the support services and the majority of departments direct students to these centralised services rather than duplicate them. Few departments offer additional support services but one department specifically mentioned employing staff responsible for looking after international students because it recognised that the students in their department have unique needs.

As English language competency is an entry requirement, the English Language Centre reaps the financial benefits of enrolling students who must achieve competency for entry into their chosen program. Equally, given the high proportion of undergraduates at the university whose first language is English, there is not an overt need for them to use this service. As one education faculty member mentioned, students from Singapore with an English speaking background are optimal students to recruit due to their command of the English language.

**Resources**

As opposed to domestic students on this campus, most international students rely on campus resources. There are shared workspaces, sometimes with many people sharing a space that was built for one person. Students are equipped with a desk, a bookshelf, a relatively recent computer allocated for their sole use and software in some departments, but not in others. All domestic students interviewed had their own facilities at home whereas all international students interviewed felt that the resources on campus were limited. All students had internet access with a quota and access to photocopying and printing facilities. One domestic postgraduate student once exhausted his printing quota but he arranged for an internal payment against allocated funds of a research account that is worth approximately $3,000 AUD. This student was told in general about the research funds. When he wanted to know at various points exactly
how much was left, all he had to do was ask because the system had been explained to him. An international student experienced an opposite scenario when he was not informed of the quota until he went over it and had to apply to his supervisor for it to be increased. He found this process to be humiliating.

One telephone is usually provided in each shared space that has no capacity to dial STD (long distance) or mobile phones. Students who are setting up interviews, for example with people around Australia, are expected to use their own phone. Equally, there are pieces of equipment for hire for fifteen dollars a day. A domestic graduate student believes that there are other props and tools for research that the school should have rather than having to get them from a central source. Another domestic graduate student observed that she uses the libraries and she does not think that they are adequate in comparison to where she studied previously in Australia. There was consensus by all students interviewed that access to resources and technological expertise was not available easily or without a significant wait that is exacerbated for international students due to their reliance on the resources provided on campus.

One problem experienced by international students is the shortage of on-campus paid employment. One international student said that she had to work as a cleaner, which she sees as inappropriate for someone who is working toward a degree of higher standing. As one domestic graduate student put it, “You [the university] can’t just take their money and run. I don’t think that the overseas students are getting their money’s worth, quite frankly. In our department they are getting a better educational experience than in other departments. It is very patchy around the university.”
Explicit barriers to internationalise the campus

Visa and immigration issues

The most often experienced difficulties faced by international students that faculty and administrators observed were immigration and visa requirements. Administrator and faculty members were aware of these difficulties in the visa application process for postgraduate students. Undergraduate applications are handled entirely by the International Office. There is agreement by those involved that the immigration system is much better than previously because the Immigration Department has made significant changes in response to “industry” concerns. There were difficulties in India and China with concerns of people cheating, not sitting the test, not having the money and the potential for absconding students. There have since been changes with procedures now working very efficiently in China and India with the introduction of the visa processing system of ratings of countries. The acceptance of students has become a much more transparent process so that students who were denied now know much more about why. The policy of the agencies has improved. There was consensus that the system has improved. Nonetheless, all believe that the system is still quite cumbersome.

Once the students are present on campus, some faculty members may be aware of students who are not coping for whatever reason. One faculty member described having to be careful with students. For example, one of her international students was suffering from depression. As a consequence of her depression, the faculty member was concerned that the student may not be able to not fulfil her study requirements. If this was the case, the student’s visa could be terminated. The faculty member emphasised how important it was to be flexible with this student and her requirements.
International students, whose visas were not handled through the scholarship program, indicated that the process was slow with little flexibility. Financial barriers were also present. To apply for the visa students noted that they must demonstrate that they have $100,000 AUD for the degree and their living expenses. The overriding conclusion of international students and the administrators interviewed was that it would be far more convenient if the process was quicker and more efficiently conducted.

As a result of changing patterns in the US enrolments, as presented in earlier data, the university experienced an increase in applicants from Islamic countries. However, the majority of administrators and faculty felt that the effect of 9/11 was marginal due to the relatively small number of international students from these countries. Nevertheless, administrators realised that the university benefited from the policy mistakes of the US, observing that, “the Americans have completely messed up their immigration system and making life hell for international students and we are totally conscious that we are reaping the benefits of it.” Administrators observed that changing attitudes in Indonesia post the Bali bombings in 2002 resulted in an anti-Australian feeling and the country has lost the attraction of the Indonesian students. Other faculty observed the dot com crash of 2000 resulted in some changes in enrolments in business and IT related fields.

**Conclusion**

Overall, many international students were positive about their experiences while recognising that there were some issues for some students. One observed, “It is a beautiful place. I can’t ask for more.” Other international students valued the opportunity to be exposed to a different culture and to learn the skills along the way.
Many international students commented that their fellow students are really nice and helpful and do not treat them any differently to the locals. There are cultural differences that they have observed and learned to value. International students are potentially very powerful ambassadors for the university, the state and the country. However, if the experience for a student is a bad one, then the university sees that as a serious problem. Ultimately, as one international student observed, the differences in cultures will help everyone to grow in international understanding and be more globalised.

This university has been attracting international students since the 1950s when the Colombo Plan provided study opportunities in Australia for students in the Asia Pacific region. At that time, the motivation for the presence of international students was to provide international aid. The mission of the university evolved to encompass globalising economic practices. Internationalisation is a mechanism to respond to the ubiquitous force of globalisation. While many of the internationalisation strategies put into effect at Riverina to achieve its mission have been judged by the Administrator to be successful — collaborative arrangements, transnational programs, research, and faculty exchange — there are still concerns expressed by those interviewed about internationalising the campus itself. Foremost among these concerns are the need for curriculum changes, achieving cultural diversity at a deeper level and providing adequate resources for international students.

Money is the bottom line for every educational enterprise in contemporary Australia and thus attracting international students is not based necessarily on the altruistic premise that previously existed in policy. To give the university its credit, as one administrator put it, “the push for internationalisation has come from inside the university. In fact the federal government, they paid no attention to internationalisation
in any form at all until it grew from the bottom up, from the universities up, until it
became apparent that there was an alternative source of income and then their response
was regulation, regulation, regulation….” Herein lay the complexities of
internationalising the campus. While trying to survive economically in a changing
federal and global environment, there are still intrinsic aims of providing worthwhile
experiences for all students in an effort to internationalise the campus. The
contradiction between gaining revenue resources and providing quality student
experiences is recognised. A faculty member observed that the whole approach is
commodification from public good to private gain, which is a trend right around the
world. Therefore, internationalisation has become focused on monetary benefits.

The university’s role is to generate ideas and create environments where the staff and
students have the intellectual time and freedom to do some fundamental work and not
be continually forced, as a faculty member stated, “particularly as a staff member to
chase the God almighty dollar. Because then all you are doing is prostituting yourself
continuously to make some bucks.” The altruistic goal of building knowledge networks
around the world within professional academic circles and making those connections
more prominent appears contradictory to the revenue raising activities.

There are opportunities for universities to offer scholarships to foreign students, to
organise exchange student programs or community services, conduct research projects
with other universities in other countries, and share knowledge, expertise and skills with
others through publication, research or projects. As one student so aptly stated,
“Universities educate our generation and thus the leaders of tomorrow. These leaders
should be able to cater to all conditions and be able to react to international situations
and the mounting rise of globalisation. As the borders continue to fade and distances
shorten, future generations should know the cultures of those on the four corners of the planet.”

The data presented here shows that internationalisation has been embraced by the university as a mainstream operative task as a consequence of globalising practices encouraged by successive federal governments. The influences of globalising practices have forced universities to be international in their practices and in their policies. Members of Riverina University, akin to Midwestern University discussed later in this thesis, see the institution as international and feel that it always has been international. However, based on this premise, why has there been an increase in the international student enrolment and why have they formulated partnerships and exchange programs that may have existed before but have definitely increased in the last decade? These questions and the data gathered here lead me to the conclusion that globalisation is the force and internationalisation is the response. There is a general acceptance that the enterprise of internationalisation is economically beneficial to the university.

Market forces have dictated changes on university campuses and Riverina University sees itself as well placed in the changing national and global contexts. It has endeavoured to embed internationalisation into all of its activities. The data provided here by members of this university community paint a mixed picture. While the university may be striving to attain its mission, it still has a long way to go in achieving it and much to do along the way. The policies are in place but the implementation of the internationalisation strategies that directly affect faculty and students needs much more consideration to overcome the perception that internationalising the campus means
much more than international collaborative activities and the presence of international students as “cash cows” (Education faculty member).
Chapter Seven

United States Internationalisation Policies

Over the last fifty years internationalisation strategies in the United States have been piecemeal because there was no overt strategy and the federal government had no clear policy direction to internationalise the nation’s university campuses (Altbach 1997). Historically, the development of international programs was to foster peace and understanding. In recent times the federal government has adopted policies that have adversely affected internationalisation strategies of universities across the country, particularly with regard to immigration of international academics and students. The involvement of state governments in policy making has primarily been at the level of funding of state campuses and has not extended to policies on internationalising higher education campuses. Thus universities have had to respond to the changing policies at the federal level. This chapter includes both an overview of the development of US educational and internationalisation policy and an examination of the longitudinal development of the internationalisation policies of the US university, Midwestern.

Constitutional background

The United States has constitutional provisions and legal traditions that divide responsibility for education between the state and federal governments (Kirst and Hancock 1983). Throughout the country’s history the federal government has played a
role in the provision of education even though education has primarily been the responsibility of state governments and local authorities. Federal government involvement began with the land-grant colleges in the 1860s. The federal government did not establish a system of higher education yet strong central policies emerged and were implemented in the nineteenth century (Silver 1990). Most states in the US have a state-wide board of higher education. These boards have autonomy from each state’s general education bodies.

By the 1960s American states had developed a combination of private and public colleges or universities. As stated by the then President of the State University of New York in 1966, the impetus for such developments was “the close relationship between a strong economy and a highly educated citizenry” (Silver 1990:63). A stepping-stone for some political candidates was to get nominated for a board of higher education because of the close relationship of the economy and higher education. This relationship also created a platform for expanding higher education. As a result of this economic focus, restructuring of the US higher education system arose from concerns from interested parties as public funding for higher education fell in the 1970s. DeBats (1999) suggests that the purpose of the restructuring of American higher education at this time was to reduce university costs to students. While there is still presently no federal governing body of higher education, policy is driven via federal student aid polices and through a range of research and development agencies often complemented by the states (Slaughter 1998). With such influences by these means, the Federal government became involved in specific aspects of higher education mainly related to providing access to minority and low income students and funding for research. However, its involvement in international education had a different impetus.
Historical perspective on International Education

International education became prominent in the US first with the Cold War and then in response to the oil crises of the 1960s and 1970s. Even prior to that, there was a flow of students and faculty from American universities to Europe throughout the nineteenth century without a formal structure (de Wit 2002). At the beginning of the twentieth century, several private organisations and foundations saw the value of study abroad programs. The American Association of University Women created a fellowship in 1890; in 1902 Rhodes Scholarships were founded; and in 1905 the American Academy of Rome established international research fellowships. In 1911 the Committee on Friendly Relations among Foreign Students was established to gather data on foreign students in the United States. Numerous other examples exist of the creation of exchange programs with European universities throughout the 20th century. A strong rationale for the development of these exchanges and programs was the promotion of peace and understanding (de Wit 2002).

Expansion of international programs

According to de Wit (2002), the world wars transformed the international experience of universities. US involvement in World War II laid the foundation for the introduction of the Fulbright Program in 1946. The Fulbright Program was funded by foreign currencies generated from the sale of surplus military equipment (Ruther 2002). While these programs may have been initially driven federally, the universities maintained their operational independence from the government (Trubek 2001). The Cold War period and the subsequent oil crises were followed by the International Education Act of 1966 and the budget cuts to international education programs in the 1980s.
Constitutionally, the federal government’s role is limited in respect to education policy but extensive in foreign affairs, defence, trade and commerce (de Wit 2002). This role is demonstrated in a range of programs. The 1958 National Defense Education Act created programs devoted to geographical area studies and foreign language studies. The 1960 Higher Education Act Title VI program provided major support for the production of area studies and language experts. New Title VI initiatives were added in 1991 with the creation of the National Security Education Program. These federal programs supported study abroad programs, international and language study and institutional projects that emphasise languages in areas critical to US security (Green 2002; Ruther 2002). Title VI was reauthorised in 2003 with the addition of the International Education Advisory Board and designed to inform the federal government of issues related to international education (Sidhu 2006). Additionally, the federal government has input into higher education programs through loans, tax credits and grants to institutions whether they be public or private ones. In 1990 the European Union and the US agreed on a Transatlantic Declaration on EU/US relations, leading to cooperation in the field of higher education. A series of pilot programs followed where the emphasis was on the development of joint curricula, recognition of credits and diplomas and the mobility of students, teachers and administrators (de Wit 2002).

The US Department of Education also supports initiatives for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education including many international studies and foreign language courses (Code of Federal Regulations Title 34). In addition the United States Agency for International Development supports both academic involvements in international development projects training in the US for technical and professional personnel from developing countries and links with universities in developing nations. The United
States Information Agency administers the Fulbright-Hays Program for scholarly, faculty and student exchanges and the University Affiliations Program that promotes partnerships between US and foreign institutions of higher education, the Citizen Exchange Program and the International Visitors Program that introduces international leaders to the United States (American Council on Education as cited in O’Meara et al. 2001).

There are other departmental agencies that support international education activities: the Department of State funds a Russian, Eurasian and East European Research and Training Program to develop national expertise in these areas; the National Endowment for the Humanities supports scholarly work in foreign languages and area studies as well as the history and literature of many nations; and the National Science Foundation’s Division of International Programs encourages collaborative science and engineering research and education by supporting joint projects of US organisations and institutions and their international counterparts (American Council on Education 2001).

International education in the United States was motivated post World War II principally by political interests in the name of defence and national security and at times under the guise of peace and understanding. Nevertheless, it has resulted in an array of internationally funded programs from different sources: national, private and institutional (de Wit 2002). The IIE (Institute of International Education) was developed in 1919. It coordinates both public and private organisations involved in a range of programs. Despite this, the combined spending on international education has been less than one percent of federal discretionary expenditures for higher education (Green 2002). Institutional reports have considered the economic impact of higher education...
coupled with the changing guard of military competition yet still at the forefront is the investment in militaristic science-based research (Sidhu 2006).

There was a twenty year gap between two major events: the 1979 President’s Commission on Foreign language and International Studies and President Clinton’s 2000 Memorandum on International Education (Green 2002). The absence of federal involvement in international education during this period was obvious despite almost twenty national studies into international education by various bodies and organisations with some reviews published annually. Yet no central body at the federal level controls higher education in the United States. This equally pertains to international education (de Wit 2002).

There is no clear national policy regarding international students. Policies in relation to international students are not specific but cover workforce and immigration issues with the aim of cultural and political exchange (Rhoades and Smart 1996). These policies have focused on the threat posed by foreign students to national security issues and their potential employment as part of a skilled workforce in high demand in research based universities, particularly at the graduate level.

**Recent developments**

Policymakers now consider that higher education plays a central role in the success of modern society both for states and countries. There are fears, however, that the United States has become insular and will fall behind its competitors in the international marketplace (Altbach and de Wit 1995 as cited in de Wit 2002; Greenspan 1999).
President Clinton in 2000 issued a memorandum for the heads of Administrator departments on international education policy, which outlined a shift in thinking:

To continue to compete successfully in the global economy and to maintain our role as a world leader, the United States needs to ensure that its citizens develop a broad understanding of the world, proficiency in other languages, and knowledge of other cultures. America’s leadership also depends on building ties with those who will guide the political, cultural and economic development of their countries in the future. A coherent and coordinated international education strategy will help us meet the twin challenges of preparing citizens for a global environment while continuing to attract and educate future leaders from abroad (April 19, 2000).

This memorandum outlined the commitments of the federal government to support international education while drawing attention to the economic contribution of international students in the United States. Prior to this memorandum in April 2000, President Clinton had made remarks in January 2000 upon the launch of the Agenda for Higher Education and Lifetime Learning that the nation depended upon the information based economy and its relationship to the continued success of the nation. This in and of itself has a strong tie to higher education but the connection is yet to be borne out in the US higher education internationalisation policies.

Schneider (2000) stated that the Bush administration of 2000-2008 should have elevated international higher education goals and strengthened inter-agency cooperation in order to carry out a national effort in a multi-faceted outreach program to education for the
global realities of this century. However, at this point President Bush’s comments regarding international education have principally been related to national security and immigration issues. The global realities and priorities for this presidency certainly are not in line with Schneider’s comments. Remarks at the Summit on International Education in January 2006 mentioned the National Security Language Initiative and its direct relationship to the security of the nation as it lies in understanding foreign languages. The remainder of the remarks that day focused on America’s form of democracy and how freedom (the US variety) should be had by all, universally (Bush 2006). Prior to this date, no other records were found of remarks or memoranda issued by President Bush except for a directive on combating terrorism through immigration policies on October 29, 2001 (Bush 2001a) and on the same date, remarks following a meeting with the Homeland Security Council and an exchange with reporters (Bush 2001b). All of President Bush’s comments have been related to the security of the nation with specific attention drawn to policies and practices following the collapse of the World Trade Center towers on September 11, 2001. He did not comment on the benefits that international students or visitors might contribute to higher education.

Policies regarding foreign students are often reactive rather than proactive (Spaulding, Mauch and Lin 2001). There is a conflict between tightening of policies and the need for international students to take up teaching and research assistantships (Marginson 2004b). An additional concern is how the United States is perceived beyond its borders. Rhee and Danowitz Sagaria (2004) reviewed perceptions of international students in articles and comments published in the Chronicle of Higher Education following September 11, 2001. They concluded that the current conflicts and tensions call for scholars and administrators of US higher education to “become more aware of the full
range of attitudes and beliefs about the United States beyond its geographical boundaries” (2004:92).

In response to 9/11, the US federal government passed the Patriot Act (2001) that allowed the federal government to put in place a wide range of barriers affecting immigration and citizenship as part of the legislation. The legislation has called into question the measures put in place particularly by the Homeland Security Office. Student Exchange and Visitor Information Service (SEVIS) is an electronic reporting system that obliges universities to report information to the federal government on the progress and movement of international students enrolled in higher education institutions.

A report issued by the Association of International Educators (NAFSA) convened prior to 9/11 argued that the presence of international students at American universities is “perhaps our most under-valued foreign policy asset” (Wolanin 2000:1). The economic contributions made by international students are also mentioned in the NAFSA report. The US acknowledges the economic gain from the presence of international students annually in the Open Doors report. Giving more precise figures, Altbach (2004), reports that foreign students contributed $12 billion to the US economy every year. US research universities are staffed in significant numbers by internationals, particularly in the sciences, where domestic interest is not as great. This effort indicates the ability of the US to absorb different nationalities within its political and economic framework. The NAFSA Report (2000) illuminates the overriding concern about the decrease in international student enrolment numbers across the United States. The report recommends a coordination of an international recruitment strategy by educational
institutions and the federal government (Rooney 2001). Despite the events of the last
decade, the US is still the destination of choice for the majority of international students
wishing to study abroad.

**Negotiating the visa maze**

Altbach (2004:21) argues that the “essential elements of American higher education in
the works did not change as a result of 9/11” with the systems remaining intact and
students worldwide still seeing the US as a major academic attraction. However,
Altbach (2004:21) also states that coming to study in the US has become “an obstacle
course” with forever changing regulations and myths as damaging as the reality.
Selingo (2004) reported on the five higher education associations and how they urged
Congress to change the visa processing system. Arnone (2004) also focused on the
heightened security put in place after 9/11 that negatively influenced foreign student
application numbers to the US. However, he mentioned that SEVIS is working but
putting greater financial strain on international students.

Following 9/11, newspapers across the nation reported on the decline in the number of
international students, noting for example, “changes to the visa application process after
9/11, a perception that the USA has grown less welcoming for foreigners and an
increased competition from universities abroad” (USA Today September 8). This view
was again reported by the Council of Graduate Schools (CGS) in a statement issued on
visa problems harming America’s scientific, economic and security interests.

CGS (2003) wrote on behalf of member universities to the then Secretary of State,
Colin Powell, requesting a review of visa issues. This letter was followed by letters to
the Commissioner of Social Security in February of 2004 regarding the assigning of Social Security numbers to internationals and citing the hardship suffered by internationals if they do not obtain a Social Security number which is required for bank accounts, applications and medical services to name just a few essentials. Subsequently, following yet a further decrease in application numbers in 2004, the CGS reported on the decline of international applicants to programs stating that the situation had become acute in 25 of the nation’s top research universities. In 2006 a report issued by the CGS found that for the first time since dropping numbers of international applicants after 9/11, applications had rebounded in the Fall of 2005.

**The need for a welcoming environment**

US leaders have been accused of “failing to provide sufficient support for the international education that prepares US graduates to thrive in this new worldwide context” (Collins and Davidson 2002:57). This entails fostering an environment where views can be examined and explored without fear of reprisal (Cooper 2003). Schneider (2000) mentions the ability of other nations that have developed clear national policies and strategies to attract international students. Such nations have not imposed the complex and costly visa requirements that the US has nor have they created a burden for their consular offices or an extra financial burden for visiting scholars who wish to have their families join them.

Prior to 9/11, there was a push for creating an international education policy for the US with the key elements (of such a policy) being international student recruitment, study abroad, foreign language learning, exchanges of citizens and scholars and mobilisation and coordination of international education efforts and resources at various levels.
This push was followed by a statement in December of 2000 by the Association of International Educators (NAFSA) and the International Educational and Cultural Exchange Alliance on the development of a US international education policy. By 2006, only one component of these recommendations, the foreign language learning, had been taken up by the federal government. All other recommendations have to date not been heeded.

The US higher education system is, “the most highly differentiated and interdependent [system] in the world integrated into a multi-layered national system through a variety of matrix and network formations” (Ruther 2002:30). In this context, it is unlikely that one body can have the overriding influence that is necessary in US higher education. Nonetheless, there is obviously a need for the US federal government to take more of an active role in higher education international policy. There is no question that an integrated approach is necessary. The contradiction for the US between its piecemeal approach to international higher education policy and its economic and military influence can only continue to create obstacles for the federal government and for institutions themselves. Extensive structural change at the federal level is required to reap the benefits of internationalisation strategies. International education is not simply about the funding of area centres and learning different languages. Equally, internationalisation of universities does not have to have a purely military and national security intention either. While changing attitudes may not be a priority for legislators, the perception of the US beyond its own borders requires consideration. International education provides the opportunity to build cultural bridges and not supporting international education by implementing excessive regulations is short sighted and can
only have negative long-term consequences for the US not only for developing a greater understanding of other cultures but also for the nations own research and development programs.

**State policies**

Despite the fact that constitutionally the states have responsibility for education, state policies in relation to international higher education have been limited. Policies in the state where Midwestern is situated have concentrated on the cost of tuition. For the most part, international students pay the same as an out of state or non-resident student (Rhoades and Smart 1996) yet they incur other administrative costs.

During the 1980s there was an effort to introduce into different states the oral English language proficiency test for foreign teaching assistants and faculty members working in universities. During this period, 17 states adopted oral English language proficiency testing. Along with the language proficiency requirements, there were concerns of overcrowding US universities with international students and the associated tax burden. This view paved the way for states to tax international student living expenses, which in turn led to a reduction in fellowships offered by institutions which attracted the tax liability. Enrolments in higher education have risen along with tuition rates while state funding for public institutions has decreased and has become an unreliable resource (Lee and Clery 2004; Rhoades and Slaughter 2004). Coupled with these parameters, there has been a growing intensity of competition and the use of technology to develop programs (Newman and Couturier 2004). These practices have influenced institutions to
commercialise education to reach out to a global audience through virtual education, foreign outposts and international alliances (Newman and Couturier 2004).

**Institutional internationalisation policies**

The US system is diverse. For the purposes of this research, ‘institutions’ here refers to those that are known as research intensive universities and the micro level policies on internationalisation are discussed with specific reference to Midwestern University.

Historically, many universities have encouraged international students to come to their campuses (Spaulding, Mauch and Lin 2001) and they have also developed activities, programs and projects with a focus on undergraduate students to gain knowledge about other countries through curriculum development, area studies, foreign language training, study abroad, exchanges and development (de Wit 2002). While this is the case, many do not have an internationalisation strategy that accommodates both the domestic students’ needs and the programmatic goals of international students. Therefore, internationalisation has proceeded in piecemeal fashion rather than as a result of any policy decisions at many institutions.

In 2000 the American Council on Education (ACE) published a report on the status of internationalisation of US higher education. This report considered the many factors underpinning institutions’ policies and practices on internationalisation. The authors noted a lack of evidence to suggest that America’s higher education institutions were addressing the knowledge and skills necessary to participate in a global world. Many authors argue that for US students to be successful in an international environment
institutions will have to expand their international strategies (Sadlak 2001; Hayward 2000; NAFSA 2000; Green 2002 and Siaya and Hayward 2003). To do so, Green and Olson (ACE: 2003) outlined a ‘User’s Guide’ for internationalising the campus noting that internationalising a campus is more than just using the name. Overall policies must include measurement of progress and changes to curriculum as key factors in achieving internationalisation goals for domestic and international students and for the institutions themselves (Wortman 2002).

Federally funded Title VI centres and programs play an integral role in preparing students for participating in a global society. These programs have built a core and expertise of knowledge about systems, nations and languages (Wiley 2001). However, Metzler (2001) argues that there are not sufficient personnel devoted to outreach in many of the centres on campuses around the country given the funding formulas in place for these centres. These inadequacies undermine the positive role of the Title VI centres across university campuses. The outreach activities of the Title VI centres are crucial to develop knowledge and linkages. These centres, their programs and their staff should enhance the internationalisation strategies of the universities.

This micro analysis of Midwestern reviews the policies and practices for internationalizing the campus that are directed toward the student experience. At Midwestern there are the following ingredients that Green in her 2002 article suggests are common to successful internationalisation: an integrative and comprehensive approach; strong leadership from the top; leadership throughout the institution; widespread faculty engagement; a commitment to meeting student needs; an ethos of internationalisation and supporting structures and resources.
This is a large university with approximately 38,000 students on its main campus. It has a centralised administration that coordinates its international programs and activities. Other offices under the auspices of the central office are International Services, the International Office, Study Abroad Office and International Research and Development Office. In addition there is a Title VI Center for Global Education. Given that this is a university wide office, it reports directly to the president of the university.

Midwestern has a long tradition of encouraging internationalisation, dating back to the Cold War period. Successive university presidents have allocated funding for international curriculum development, providing access to the university’s international resources, establishing international study abroad programs including summer institute programs, and an outreach program with the university’s international alumni. There has also been the creation of a dormitory house, the International Learning Living Center, which has fostered internationalisation through the living experience to achieve part of the university’s mission.

**Principles and practices in the University Mission**

In 2003 the then Chancellor of the university issued a Mission and Values Statement. Of particular relevance to internationalisation were the intentions to provide excellent teaching and cultivate intellectual curiosity, lifelong learning, the pursuit of excellence and the development of skills necessary to adapt and excel in a changing world. The mission statement challenged the university population to embrace diversity in all its dimensions, and enhance relationships with government, K-12 schools, corporate, not-for-profit and other academic partners including 300,000 alumni worldwide.
Midwestern has students on campus from 123 countries and approximately fifty international student organisations.

This portion of the mission statement was seen to be carried out on the campus by continuing the long tradition of valuing and providing international education and activities. This was and is seen to be reflected in diverse area and language study programs, international study majors, comparative and international studies in the curriculum, foreign study programs, and partnerships with educational institutions in other countries.

The university has created opportunities for substantial overseas collaboration. These opportunities provide for a focus which enriches the campus and the community by these interactions, exchange of ideas and knowledge internationally. The need for expertise and knowledge of other cultures and countries concentrated through area centres is considered to be more critical every day and the necessity to prepare graduates to meet that need and participate in a global society is central to the educational mission of the campus. This philosophy ties in with federal national security and defense policies and relates specifically to the intentions of federal policy and centres that are grant recipients.

The internationalisation priorities outlined in the Mission Statement are broad, given the range of international programs and activities available on the campus. The funds allocated to achieve this mission have been discussed in terms of their most strategic use with effective leveraging of the funds to the greatest benefit of the campus as a whole. To achieve this mission, the Chancellor proposed a range of strategies. First, it
was to strengthen one or more of the area studies programs with proposed increases in staff and funding support. Second, it was to build and maximise international collaborative efforts among units, such as adding faculty from the professional schools and social sciences to area studies centres or other centres dealing with international research and programs. In addition, creating or expanding upon opportunities for faculty members and students to learn about and experience other cultures and languages by offering programs for students, graduates, and professionals from other countries either on the main campus or in other countries. Finally, providing funds to implement fully the special requirement of the International Studies major (the international internship, study abroad and additional requirements) was an essential element.

The policy development at the institutional level has been broad throughout the university’s history. These micro policy developments have been instituted despite the lack of an overall federal government policy and the dearth of state policies on international education. Thus there was a financial impetus in addition to the many benefits of welcoming international academics and students to its campuses. It may be argued that the necessity to obtain alternative income resources, other than those provided by the state, led administrators to look both outside the state and beyond national borders.

In practice the leaders of this university are publicly acknowledged in national reports for their role in supporting the internationalisation process, working not only with the university itself in various ways but also developing strong links with the wider international community. For the faculty, it has meant opportunities for funding and travel to conduct research abroad, at times taking colleagues or students with them. The
university administration sees this process as having a multiplying effect whereby their interest then transfers to other faculty and follows on to students in the teaching environment.

In January of 2006, the university reiterated its mission to provide high quality education opportunities for students from the state and around the world through a community of scholars actively engaged in teaching, research and public service. One of the added priorities was to recruit top-tier students and faculty globally. This process is seen as a stepping stone in internationalising the campus and continues to be part of the university mission. The university’s activities are publicised by the university media relations and the newspaper located in the same city. In addition, stories have been published to inform the public of various difficulties faced by international students with many discussions on SEVIS (The Herald Times: Hinnefeld: May 1, 2003; Swaby: August 19, 2003; Swaby: August 26, 2003; Associated Press: November 3, 2003; Nation Brief: March 22, 2003; Washington Post: April 30, 2004; The Herald Times: Hinnefeld: September 1, 2004), other associated hurdles (The Herald Times: Hinnefeld February 21, 2004) and international scholars (The Herald Times: Hinnefeld: January 3, 2005).

The president of the university twice appeared before the Senate Foreign Relations Committee (October 6, 2004) to call for action to correct the student visa difficulties that had been implemented post 9/11, and again in 2006 he took part in a summit for preparing US students for the global economy (The Herald Times: Hinnefeld: January 6, 2006). Alongside identifying the visa difficulties international student applicants experienced and notifying the problems of the SEVIS tracking system designed for
those in situ, the university Faculty Council opposed a federal government bill (House Bill 3077) which proposed government oversight of area studies programs (*The Herald Times*: Editorial: February 1, 2004; Brantlinger: 2004; Hinnefeld: April 7, 2004). This opposition is in support of the international students already on campus and those anticipated by the university community. It particularly is relevant to faculty researchers who are dependent on international graduate students as a resource to aid them in their research.

This university, unlike some others in the country, eased its policy on Muslim women by allowing identification photographs to be taken with head scarves (*Associated Press*: September 2003). The university welcomed world dignitaries and spiritual leaders (*The Herald Times*: Leonard: September 5, 2003); eased the transition for international students (*The Herald Times*: Alam: August 19, 2004); promoted international conferences on campus; and developed international alliances. It continued its international traditions by annually celebrating International Week (*The Herald Times*: Hinnefeld: November 13, 2004; Hinnefeld: November 13, 2005).

Midwestern was commended for its international programs and outreach in 2003 and 2005 (*The Herald Times*: Hinnefeld: May 16, 2005 and Editorial: May 17, 2005) and the city newspaper applauded the university and the contribution of international students to the community (*The Herald Times*: Editorial: October 9, 2004).

An academic writing on how well universities implement their internationalisation policies Green (2002) identified a gap between ….discusses the gap between institutional rhetoric on internationalisation and its realisation in institutional practices,
policies and culture. Midwestern has made a concerted effort to deliberately create a culture that embodies their goals, where internationalisation is “lived rather than spoken about” (Green 2002:19). It has moved on multiple fronts and not just spoken about its intentions but lived them out through promoting faculty engagement, providing faculty development resources, creating cultural opportunities through various media (lecture series, film festivals and cultural festivals), and by providing study abroad and international learning for incoming students in their orientation.

Midwestern has embraced internalisation as a concept and also as part of their Strategic Plan. Funding for the Title VI centres on campus is provided by the federal government whose priorities are certainly those of defense and national security. This goes hand in hand with ignorance on the part of many domestic students of the “outside” world, other nations and cultures. In spite of this, the efforts of the university in implementing their own policies are to be commended. The city is an oasis of cultural opportunity and diversity for which the university is principally responsible.

Several key events over the past decade have triggered responses to and changes in attitude from the higher education community. Internationalisation was a higher priority for Midwestern and for many US universities. The next chapter examines the perceived success of the international mission and its internationalisation strategies at Midwestern University.
Chapter Eight

United States Case Study

Site research context – Midwestern University

As the oldest and largest of its eight campuses, Midwestern University offers its students, faculty, and staff an array of academic programs, cultural events, sports and recreational activities, and associations both on and off campus. It promotes a combination of scientific, intellectual, and artistic resources that a research university can offer providing a wide range of degree-granting programs in a variety of professional fields as well as in the arts and sciences (Midwestern University Chancellor 2003). In addition, it has worked towards the realisation of its internationalisation goals.

As the chief Administrator of the university, the President is appointed by the trustees and is responsible for the operation of the entire university within the framework of policies determined by the trustees. The President is responsible for accomplishing the objectives of the university, for determining its mission and priorities for its various units, and for the effective and economical planning, use, and management of resources.
The university is organised administratively by departments, schools/divisions, financial centres, campuses and university administration. Campus and university leaders report directly to the President. In January 2006, the Board of Trustees and the President reorganised the main campus leadership. The chancellor position was replaced with a new provost position by moving some operational responsibilities to the President. The President announced additional changes to the central campus structure in June 2006. Within this structure there was an additional change in 2007 to include the Vice President for International Programs. This position is based at the main campus and includes the oversight of all eight campuses.

**Trends of international student enrolment**

Figures in the chart below provide an insight into the international student enrolments at Midwestern. They represent those collected at the beginning of each academic year (Fall) from 2002-2006. Enrolments of international student showed continued growth, with the exception of a small drop in 2004. The central campus international student population is approximately ten percent of the total student population.

**Figure 15** International Student Enrolments 2002-2006
Midwestern showed a slight increase in international student numbers in 2003 that was attributed to location, where it was perceived to be very safe (Herald Times: Associated Press 5/11/2003). The decline in 2004 was attributed to restrictive visa policies. The overall population of the university also decreased in 2004 due to a smaller than expected group of new students, down 6.4 percent from the previous year. (Hinnefeld August 10, 2004) Enrolments rebounded in 2006.

This chapter discusses the views of 56 administrators, faculty members, domestic and international students from a range of departments about the impact of globalisation and the success of the university’s internationalisation strategies. This discussion is supported by direct quotations from the transcripts of interviews or by reference to interviews which contain relevant information and are identified by the category of the participant. Table 8 presents the specific numbers of interview participants and their categories.
Table 8  Interview participants by category and location

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interviewee Category</th>
<th>School/ Departmental affiliation</th>
<th>MU</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Administrators</td>
<td>Top tier (3), second tier (7)</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faculty Members</td>
<td>Business, Education, Law, Music, Arts &amp; Sciences</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Graduates</td>
<td>Business, Education, Law, Music, Arts &amp; Sciences</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Undergraduates</td>
<td>Business, Music, Arts &amp; Sciences</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic Graduates</td>
<td>Business, Law, Education, Arts &amp; Sciences</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic Undergraduates</td>
<td>Business, Education, Arts &amp; Sciences</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the student population, 20 international students and 16 domestic students were interviewed. Students were enrolled in the same departments as the faculty members interviewed. The international students’ countries of origin were: Germany, Pakistan, Japan, Portugal, Iceland, Australia, New Zealand, Spain, Brazil, Italy, China, Indonesia, Kenya, India and Canada. International students had been in the US from between one to six years at the time of the interviews. Of the international students interviewed, a quarter of the international graduate student cohort’s first language is English and the remainder of the international graduate students’ native language is other than English. As for the international undergraduates, there was only one native English speaker out of the eight students interviewed.
All domestic student participants had been at the university for approximately three years at the time of the interviews. Graduate students from out of state outweighed those from in state. Undergraduates were evenly split on their in-state to out-of-state status.

Midwestern University is a public institution. It charges students tuition fees and differentiates between state residents and out-of-state students. International students fall in to the out-of-state category, although there are additional fees levied for international students to defray some costs of services provided.

**Perspectives on the university mission statement**

The mission statement of Midwestern University states that, it will provide for, “the development of skills necessary to adapt and excel in a changing world.” To determine if Midwestern was achieving this goal, the interviews focused on the implementation of the university’s internationalisation strategies.

As was discussed in the Australian case study, internationalisation strategies were addressed in the interviews with participants, with questions which were semi-structured to gather ideas, views and experiences of Administrator and faculty members, domestic and international students as those who are directly affected by this phenomenon on their campus. The responses were collected in order to add insights and a ‘human’ dimension to what may otherwise be seen as a purely strategic or managerial process. The concepts of globalisation and internationalisation as defined in Chapter Two are discussed in terms of the responses of participants to determine changes to
policy and practices on this campus. In Chapter Ten, implications for other campuses undertaking internationalisation strategies will be elaborated.

The overwhelming perception of the Administration was that the international mission was being achieved by the implementation of the internationalisation strategies through the university’s activities for its faculty and students. Some faculty members were a bit more dubious, with four faculty members perceiving that the mission was being achieved, three faculty members disagreeing and the remainder uncertain. Whereas the majority of the international graduates firmly believed that the university was achieving its mission, the international undergraduates were almost evenly split on their perceptions. The domestic students, both graduate and undergraduate, perceived that the university mission was being achieved with few exceptions.

The departments within the university were seen to have an ethos and mission such that, as a department chair put it, “Departments offer education that incorporates issues that are related to globalisation…Given the way things have changed, issues of globalisation and internationalisation have become more prominent over the years. In that sense they have become more relevant for what and how we teach.” The faculty members perceived that there is a multi-national perspective in the arts in particular and they are proud of their perspective. One science faculty member observed that innovation does not happen without international expertise nor without an international community and the department is supportive of that. There were two opinions that differed on the success of the departmental mission. One science faculty member noted that there is not an international ethos and mission in her department. The other in a social sciences discipline stated that:
[The school] does at the level of rhetoric – the banners, the position but at the undergraduate level, hardly at all. There is an ethos that is imperfectly practiced. There is a lot of ambiguity about the mission. I could be fairly cynical and say that it is the money.

Unlike the administrator or the faculty members, the international undergraduate students were united in their opinion, with only a couple of exceptions, saying that the university mission has not been successful. There were statements such as, “It is still an American school but they need to have a strong international component.” Several other international students held a negative view, “they think it is but it is America-centric” and, “I hoped they would have but I was disappointed.” The principle is diversity but not the practice. The perception was that “they (the university) know that their top students will be international.” Agreeing with a faculty member, an international undergraduate student commented that the domestic students don’t embrace international students, just the university.

The domestic students perceived the departmental ethos and mission similarly to their international counterparts valuing the presence of international students and observing, “It is supposed to [be international]. It depends on the professors, some of them are really concerned with their research and the way that they look at it is from a very American viewpoint. I don’t really see an open dialogue.” There were several observations from domestic students in Education, the Arts and Sciences, that the university took more of a national view rather than an international or global one.
Internationalisation strategies

Benefits and barriers to successful implementation

There are many different approaches to achieving the mission of the university and hence the internationalisation of a university campus – Title VI Centres, collaborative arrangements, research and faculty exchange, and international students on campus.

Inherent in these approaches is the motivation for internationalising the university. Each approach brings with it different opportunities and risks. This section of the chapter focuses on the perceived benefits and barriers of implementing an internationalisation strategy at Midwestern University and includes a discussion of student experiences on campus.

The focus of the interviews was on internationalisation strategies put in place as a response to globalisation. Administrator and faculty members detailed the history of the campus with the employment of faculty members particularly from Europe, post World War II. This legacy of a former Dean, who became the Chancellor and President of the university, is strongly upheld and often referred to as the benchmark for all that has followed on this campus and highlighted by a music faculty member, “Our orchestra here is a league of nations… It is a very international institution in that sense. It is proud of its perspective.”

Participants were asked their perspective about the impact of globalisation at the university. All those interviewed were in agreement about the influence of globalisation in all of its permutations (economic, cultural, social and technological), summarised by
an administrator as, “ubiquitous and every institution of higher education in this country has to address it.” The consensus was that globalisation was a reality and all pervasive.

Entrepreneurial activity was discussed in the light of changing economic needs of the university and departments in response to globalising practices. It was suggested by the administrator as the province of the school not the faculty. Opportunities are seen to be tapped more aggressively and responses to niche markets are made quickly at an administrative level. In Business, a professional school, there are thirteen officers on the development staff where “corporate friends and alumni generate money” (Administrator). One unit of the university actively seeks large overseas projects where they have raised over $70 million in the last decade whereas other units do not see that they have the opportunity to be big money makers. There is, however, an emphasis on fundraising through extensive alumni outreach. This is usually the domain of the Foundation of the university with assistance from the Alumni Association but there are exceptions where particular schools are able to tap into their own alumni and private benefactors, such as Business and Music. There has also been more of a need to obtain grant monies more extensively due to decreases in state funding. All divisions believed that there was a strong commitment of time and resources to entrepreneurial activity but for some divisions it is more possible than others. Faculty are encouraged to apply for grants and external funding. Deans are seen by faculty members to ensure that projects can pay their own way and faculty members are encouraged to seek projects with practical applications. One education faculty member in particular observed that faculty who are able to procure funding were privileged in terms of tenure and promotion, “There are different ways in which that emphasis on entrepreneurialism manifests itself.”
International appointments, faculty and student exchange

To aid in the internationalisation strategies and cultural diversity of the university, employment of international faculty over the last decade has emphasised attracting faculty from all over the world in specialised areas, “There is an active effort to recruit internationally” (Administrator). Of the faculty interviewed, diverse opinions were expressed regarding the employment of international faculty. Five faculty members stated that there was a clear indication of an increase in the hiring of international faculty over the last decade, whereas three faculty members stated that it was not necessarily international but diverse hiring in a broad sense, and if an international academic is hired, it is happenstance. The remaining faculty members stated categorically no, there had been no increase in the hiring of international faculty and they did not envisage one.

This statement by an international graduate sums up the perspective of the students on the presence and need for international faculty on campus:

There should be more international faculty on campus. English is not only for Americans, it is for people all over the world and many people. There should be opportunities for international faculty to come here to teach.

There were several students interviewed for this study from all fields, except Music, who have had limited exposure to international faculty. One domestic undergraduate had not encountered any international faculty in her time at the university.

Important to an internationally diverse faculty is research and exchange. This can contribute to internationalisation where, “There is much happening,” according to one of the administrators interviewed. In the Business School, an administrator commented, “We could send a faculty member basically anywhere they wanted to go. International –
seriously there must be eighty arrangements.” It was recognised by other departments in
the arts and sciences that there is a lot of infrastructure required for this kind of
international outreach which has limitations for some departments and programs.

Two faculty members, one from Law and the other from the sciences, thought that
international research and exchange was a given and that there is sufficient or more than
enough in their department with some having long standing arrangements with visiting
faculty:

In fact it continues to grow at such a rapid rate that some faculty members think
that we have too many connections with too many places. It is burgeoning. I
personally don’t think that that is the case. The visiting faculty are almost
permanent, like from Oxford who has come for the last ten years, another for
twelve years (Law faculty member).

A science faculty member stated, “Colleagues are international. The location no longer
makes a difference, either of the East or West” but there are several who suggest that,
“There is not enough, we should do more” (Science and Social Science faculty
members) and those who see that exchange, not simply receiving visiting faculty, is
difficult with an inability to accommodate visitors from overseas with limited resources.
Alternatively, one education faculty member felt that international exchange is only
paid lip service but not supported:

My critique is that the Dean hasn’t… he’ll give a symbolic nod to international
research and exchange and we have to compile a report and it always looks good
to show how much international stuff has been going on…it is pretty clear that it
is not the top priority.

Study Abroad or Student Exchange Programs are offered by the university as additional
internationalisation strategies predominantly for domestic undergraduate students. The
majority of students both graduate and undergraduate have either participated in (the
graduate students mentioning their undergraduate experience) or will participate in
some form of study abroad program throughout their course. There was an exception in both cohorts with one graduate stating that it was not available and one undergraduate stating that a triple major precluded her from participating in any study abroad program. Administrators and faculty agree that the opportunities are certainly available to students to go to many nations. The concern of some faculty is that American students do not spend the time overseas completing an entire degree with one faculty member stating, “It seems like many students come here but there are very few cases of American students going overseas, proportionally it is much smaller.” This factor was demonstrated in the proportion of international students choosing the US as their study destination as presented previously in the international overview.

In the interview cohort there were some international graduates who, as beneficiaries of the student exchange programs, reported positive experiences. As a student who is an international undergraduate commented, “Everyone should go abroad and get this experience. It is something that you will value and use throughout your life. I see myself as so much more educated and mature than my friends back home.”

**Curriculum**

Internationalisation of the curriculum requires an approach that encourages faculty members to acknowledge and try to understand differences. Top tier administrators interviewed consider that the university has an international curriculum in many fields with majors and with languages offered in all areas except Business and Education. Administrators and faculty members interviewed in the Arts agree. There has been an international study major approved and put in place in the College of Arts and Sciences. The view was expressed that, “If you have an active faculty in research, it follows that it
will automatically change the curriculum” (Administrator) and this encourages an approach that, “We anticipate that all of our faculty work very hard at internationalising our courses, irrespective of the department or the level” where it permeates the school.

According to an administrator, the presence of international students has forced the faculty to think internationally. One program introduced an international studies undergraduate major, “It was a combination of a need from a pragmatic as well as survival perspective” (Social Science Administrator). Two faculty members, one from science and the other from education, expressed concern that there was no international perspective in the curriculum of their departments, whereas all remaining faculty thought that there had been internationalising of the curriculum in their departments and the university as a whole.

A quarter of all the students interviewed held the view that there is an international perspective to their curriculum where, “A lot of our courses would incorporate some kind of a global perspective. I cannot think of a course where there is not something” (International graduate), but the majority perceived that there is no international perspective to their curriculum. Part of this perception was based on the reading materials presented to students. Generally, students observed that their reading materials were predominantly focused on and produced in the US and that the impetus may be a bias on behalf of the faculty member. One international graduate student commented, “Last year I was taking a course and someone said that 99 percent of the journals that we read are American journals, we don’t read journals from other countries.”
As part of a diversified curriculum, foreign languages were seen as a positive addition to a degree. Students viewed that many opportunities were available to study any language that they wanted to. Of the graduate students, 50 percent were taking a foreign language, some as a requirement of their coursework. Others felt that if they took a foreign language course, it would have to be at an upper level and they either did not wish to do that or did not have the time to commit to that. Of the students interviewed, one interviewee in education did not have the opportunity to study a foreign language in their program. Of the undergraduate students, half were taking a foreign language, some as a requirement of their coursework; the remaining half chose not to because of the programs that they were enrolled in. The College of Arts and Sciences has a compulsory foreign language requirement but for example, the Schools of Education and Business do not.

**Recruitment and enrolment of international students**

In efforts to enrol international students and in response to global trends, the Administration of the university sees recruiting as a decentralised process, where there is no comprehensive recruitment strategy throughout the university. Some schools do not need to actively recruit whilst others do, “We are recruiting more international students than we have for some time because it makes a big difference in the feel of the school” (Administrator) and, “We still send staff and faculty groups to six or eight locations a year to actively recruit...We recruit very hard but not to increase our numbers but to increase our selectivity and quality...The program here will visit 30 cities next year and interview folks. The cost of a mistake for us is high” (Business administrator). Overall, this comment is indicative of the attitude to recruiting international students, “There are no preferences for us…We have no bias of any
nature. It is just a reality that certain regions are able to afford to send their students, families” (Administrator).

According to a science faculty member there was active recruitment in their department, whereas for other departments there is not a perceived need (Social Sciences faculty members) because the students find the departments online and apply through the normal processes. Yet, “There are programs that have traditions of sets of students coming from certain areas and tend to put the word out” (Social Sciences faculty member). Funding for recruiting students was an issue for most departments where there is a decrease in undergraduate recruiting because of budget cuts.

Students responded with their perceptions of the reasons for recruitment with different emphases. Income through tuition was viewed as a reason for recruitment of over half of the student participants; diversity was viewed as a factor for a quarter of the student participants with the remaining students including in their comments the reputation of the university. This was seen to be an important factor in attracting international students as students who have returned to their own country have encouraged other students in turn to come to this university. Of the faculty members interviewed, one faculty member observed that it is not unusual to find multi-generational students or a cousin coming to the university. It was clear that recruitment of international students was seen as a result of many reasons. One administrator mentioned that the recruitment of international students was important because of the development of the global economy, “There can be many factors ranging from economic climate and where the students are coming from, the economic climate here, where they are coming to. It is a dynamic environment”. Additionally, an administrator stated that the quality of the
institution is important, “we are driven by quality…the rigour in international admissions. A university where parents are sending their children to a university are well pleased that they are going to an institution where there is no compromise on quality. The down side is that it can lead to elitism.” Historical links with the university was another factor that affected recruitment.

Faculty members drew attention to what they termed the critical mass of international students on campus from cultural and academic viewpoints, where international students can maintain their own cultural identity and at the same time sample the American culture as much as they want. This critical mass of international students makes a difference in terms of the relationships that American students have with international students. At the time of the interviews, the university population was made up of close to nine percent of international students. “As a state institution, and a number of other factors, once you start pushing 12-15 percent other issues start to rise to the surface” (Administrator). There is consideration of the difficulties of increasing international student enrolment from wider family issues of the international students mentioned by an administrator to the allocation of fellowships in order to create a level playing field for international and domestic students.

In addition, one domestic graduate student raised the selection and enrolment of international students compared to domestic disadvantaged students as an issue:

…sometimes universities can use international students as a crutch, you can get the international students so you don’t have to worry about some of the disadvantaged students, poor students who barely make it through high school who don’t see university as an option. If you get your numbers through international students, then you don’t have a need to go out and reach out to other students, because you have the numbers.
Campus experiences

There are different layers to the internationalisation strategies implemented on university campuses. The following section details what faculty members and students see as the core of their experiences on campus. This includes their perceptions about international student recruitment and enrolment, international students’ arrival at Midwestern, cultural diversity, support services and explicit barriers faced by international students.

There were various reasons for international students to enrol at Midwestern, including reputation. “Our rankings are getting higher every year in the Schools of Business, Education and Journalism. A good reputation would have a tendency to pull in more students.” Quality of education was another reason, “I think that maybe the US is perceived as this big power and you study there and education in the US is perceived as quality education. Learn and work with English.” And, “People come to the US to school. I think the globalisation phenomenon probably plays some role that people have the feeling that they have to get out of their country to be able to be competitive in this century pretty much. You get to speak a foreign language and English is pretty important. Get to know the culture and do business with these people and that is pretty important.” The university’s provision of financial support was another reason, “I contacted four universities and they all had some kind of funding but [this university] was the fastest in answering and the funding was the best in terms of the amount of money.” The university’s high ranking in the US, value for money and tuition rates in comparison with other research intensive universities were also cited.
In terms of diverse enrolment, some faculty members made observations regarding that there were no preferences for nationalities of international students from particular countries, “We couldn’t care less” (Social Sciences faculty member) and “No, I have to say from what I have seen, people, I see plenty of other labs with different nationalities, I think that I haven’t seen any evidence of any bias” (Science faculty member) and, “We are pretty open minded and don’t have specific preferences.”

Part of the enrolment considerations for students according to an administrator was the location of the university. “[Midwestern] was the beneficiary of a nice bump up from the east coast when suddenly parents said I don’t want my kid to go to NYU, they are certainly not going to drop bombs [here].” Enrolment preferences were perceived by domestic students, “There are certainly more requirements [for international student enrolments] and they seem to have a negative effect at the margins” where, “They have a few students from Africa. I think that there is a preference for students from Asia, versus Africa or the Slavic states.”

**Cultural Diversity**

According to all interview participants, the central benefit of the presence of international faculty and students at the university is cultural diversity. Having international students on campus and in the lecture room was seen as overwhelmingly positive for Midwestern, and this was stipulated by three of the administrators. Additionally, there are overall benefits to the university community as a whole, “Benefits in a hundred ways. They provide more benefits to us than we do to them far and away” (Administrator). In the long term, students become alumni with resources, useful contacts and often times initiate activities that benefit the school and the faculty.
The administrators across the board believe that the very presence of international students in the university makes it very clear that, “We don’t live in a world where it is defined completely by borders any longer” (Administrator). According to an administrator, the presence of international students and scholars, along with the whole notion of international education and exchange is the country’s best foreign policy asset. Exposure to different cultures was crucial to the average American student, where the presence of international students enables some assumptions about other cultures and philosophies to be challenged and ultimately for this reason the relationship is mutually beneficial. This was a view shared by three administrators and four faculty members.

The administrators and faculty were overwhelming positive in their perception of the diversity of the campus, with one faculty member’s notable exception:

I feel that any sense of internationalisation has pretty much got lost in the shuffle because the standards at the state level in relation to that are fairly oblique, vague and can be covered in terms of multicultural sensitivity and that sort of stuff (Social Sciences faculty member).

Of those interviewed, eight international students perceived that the exposure for American students was a necessity, “Exposing people to other cultures, particularly American [culture] which is a self focussed country where people tend not to learn about other countries and don’t seem to want to know.” This opinion was shared with the faculty member mentioned above and three domestic students. Of the domestic students, one commented that, “Focussing on learning would help the international situation. One would be more aware of learning from each other.” This approach would have the advantage that, “The more diverse the student population is, the more the university embraces international students, it makes America or higher education look like it wants to be more globally connected with other countries, it is not so much
westernised.” Unexpectedly one domestic student and one international student strongly promoted the idea that the university should be a US oriented university, not one with an international focus or agenda. The domestic student believed that instead of promoting internationalisation that the university should focus on promoting diversity from within US culture by encouraging the presence of more Latinos and African American students. One international student felt that he had come to Midwestern for an American education, not an international one.

A domestic undergraduate student described her experience of an opportunity on campus to experience cultural diversity very positively:

I participated in a program which is called Conversations on Race…It is a core group of fifteen students and half of them are international and the other half is African American and white [domestic students]. We talked about different issues on campus. It was interesting to see how the international students felt and how the white students felt, how the black students felt, they were all different. It was structured through the Office of Multicultural Affairs; the administrators from that department led our group, people from all over the world, Jamaica, Germany.

Cultural diversity was discussed not just in terms of the presence of internationals but in terms of the alternative perspectives that they offered the campus. This was a common theme discussed by the international students, “We ask questions that probably wouldn’t be asked by Americans. We engage in research projects that would not necessarily be done by Americans. We also teach” (International Graduate). Another international graduate student observed that, “it is really important to have people from different educational backgrounds… it is very good to have people from a different education, but also a different society and cultural background. It can only enrich your research.”
While the desire to achieve diversity was seen as a positive goal for the majority of the participants, two administrators made interesting observations:

Diversity is something very difficult. It has to be experienced and my hope is that the experience of a multi-ethnic place helps to inculcate diversity without hammering it into your head. Isn’t that the best way?

I think we have a long way to go. It is one of those areas that we all struggle with in the US, how to provide opportunities for students to better integrate into the life of the university. It’s not a simple equation because international students face very different pressures to the domestic student—pressures of time, finances, greater credit hours because mum and dad and the extended family are making enormous sacrifices to have that student in the country, to excel academically, to do very very well. Facing those pressures makes it very difficult for those students to see the value in spending a lot of time socially on campus or engaging in leadership opportunities, although I think that the university has been fairly unique and very successful in doing so.

Of those interviewed, two faculty members noted that the diversity on campus is great by definition but there is in practice a narrow view:

There has clearly been a focus on diversity issues and cultural sensitivity and that is good but I feel that that is pretty much it and of course the ability to compete in a global economic market place – you hear my sarcasm there. The cultural diversity is great but it is narrow. Diversity by definition (Science faculty member).

There is a tendency to collapse ethnic diversity and global diversity so that students are exposed to issues of multiculturalism in the US. There isn’t the sense that they still need other kinds of exposure to other kinds of cultural forces and so forth outside the US (Education faculty member).

According to four international students, the majority of the population of Midwestern is very homogeneous with the undergraduate population made up of people from the state and a lot of domestic students from the neighbouring states. Two other international students believe that the university is not diverse at all, with one commenting, “I think American students are not really open to international students. The principle is diversity but not in practice. It doesn’t really work” (International
undergraduate). In response to these issues, two domestic graduate students held the same view as their international counterparts as well as domestic undergraduate students who were not convinced of cultural diversity on campus with the perception that, “Certain parts of our campus are white American mainstream. Even though they are trying, they are not really doing what they need to do” and, “It still seems pretty divided.” There was one interesting and unexpected observation made by an administrator regarding the presence of international students, “…they are less threatening for [in-state] students than African Americans or Latinos because they come from someplace else and they can go back and they have their culture as opposed to those here.”

As an aspect of cultural diversity, social interaction of the university’s population is an important aspect. Unfortunately, “Putting faces in doesn’t change it at all. What happens is that people hang out with people from their own country and so how has that promoted diversity?” (International undergraduate) Another international graduate student observed that there are inherent difficulties in attempts to assimilate international students:

I think that the university is not doing as much as they can to blend and assimilate international students into the culture. It leads international students to a natural inclination to go to their own groups, they try for a little while and then give up and go to the friends who look the same and talk the same.

Graduate students seemed more inclined to establish friendships and acquaintances with international students. They generally mixed with and established relationships on various levels with international students, both on campus (departmental or interest groups) and outside of campus, in shared accommodation or through other people. In contrast, undergraduate students perceived few opportunities to establish friendships with international students. If any students established relationships, they were not
necessarily on campus, with one exception of a student who had an acquaintance in the
dormitories. Only one domestic undergraduate student counted international students
among his/her friends.

An unusual insight from a domestic graduate student placed the social interaction
dilemma of international students at the forefront:

I have heard from internationals that they feel really comfortable but it is over
time that they realise the subtleties of their confinement to the exterior. When
they first get here, it is “let’s go out for a beer”. Conversational differences, the
inside jokes. Over time the alienation is sometimes more profound than right at
the beginning…It is counter intuitive because you think that they might feel
more at home over time but I know from friends that if they look like
Americans, anyone can because it is such a diverse country, but they don’t feel
American. There is not a lot of sensitivity to that different mindset or not a lot of
camaraderie and I think that is when they get anxious to go home.

The cultural gap was a barrier that required support as one German international
graduate student described it:

I don’t know if it is their job to do something or whether it is my job to
understand that I am in America. Things are going to be different and I have had
to deal with that on several occasions. In my situation, a lot of what I do is one
on one especially in my program which is tiny and I have really struggled with
some relationships, how to approach issues or not, with faculty. What is okay?
What forms of speech are okay? How, even, physicality? Sensitivity to any of
those issues. Yes, I think there is a big cultural gap.

The conclusion from another international graduate student is that the university really
needs to work on integration. Most students experienced difficulties with the cultural
aspects of being an international student and misunderstandings were mentioned
specifically by two international students. Two international undergraduate students
(one Indian and one Pakistani) felt that they experienced racism, “There are
occasionally times when I have experienced racism when American students ask where
I am from…They are confined to themselves. They don’t learn, to seek outside, they
only know about things like parties, they don’t know the world” and “I have been yelled at a couple of times, maybe they are just having fun?”

Difficulties can be more pronounced outside the university yet equally apply within, as one international student observed:

Outside it was not an easy social transition because many of the ways of thinking are not in line with mainstream culture. You have these differences and it can be an alienating thing for most international students coming in because they perceive themselves so different to everybody else and it is. I think that the university is not doing as much as they can to blend and assimilate international students into the culture [of the wider community]. It leads international students to a natural inclination to go to their own groups, they try for a little while and then…

Support services

Observations by the administrators were positive regarding the perception of support services available to international students provided on campus. There were some observations that the core support provided relies on individuals, “who are effective but they will not continue to be effective if there is not additional staff because I really think that that is critical” (Administrator), and the observation that, “The fee could not cover the cost of the services provided. It takes probably five times as much to provide the services and most of us do it at the graduate level, for they bring something that we don’t have” (Administrator).

An administrator perceived that members of the university worked very hard to be good hosts, whereby primarily different programs and services are co-ordinated and facilitated largely through the international centre responding to needs as expressed by international students or colleagues around campus. The Education School has an external support group. “We have a staff person here in the office of graduate studies
whose primary responsibility is to look at programming and the needs for international
students.” A point of view expressed by a business faculty member was, “We have done
a lot of extra things like that to make the program more effective. It is fair to say that
they are not left to their own devices.” There are some exceptions, particularly for those
in professional schools, but significantly the majority of faculty are unaware of specific
programs at the department level to assist international students. It would appear that
the services are available but the faculty in most cases are uninformed as to what is
available for international students. “Once a student gets here, a student is a student, is a
student” (Social sciences faculty). There are, however, efforts to assist and be aware of
support services for international students, albeit the majority are informal ones, “I think
that there are efforts to make the international students feel welcome, where they can
get things done” (Social Sciences faculty). In the sciences, a faculty member perceived
that, “We have a graduate secretary who is very welcoming. We are working on a
mentoring program where we try to keep track of their first year. Within each
department, students go out of their way to welcome and help international students.”

Several international students disagreed with the perceptions of the administrators and
some faculty. On a departmental level in terms of support services, two international
students in Business were scathing, “Nothing. It is every man for himself. It is all about
the money.” The other said, “Support. Nothing.” One international graduate student
commented that despite the programs available:

Nothing…whatever you have is student motivation, it is not the school
program…It was something that people were complaining about, you were lost
here. So many things that you don’t know how to do. Even in terms of
curriculum, what is expected…Why don’t they tell us what they expect as an
international student, academic requirements?
One domestic undergraduate student in the sciences perceived that the department does not accommodate the needs of international students in particular, that the students are, “Just kind of there and if there were more it would just kind of stay the same.” In contrast, another undergraduate student in business viewed that the faculty and the department are very accommodating to whatever needs that the international students have, “The professors are always willing and hoping to learn from their international students as well.”

**English as a second language**

One of the areas of concern was the need for English language proficiency. Support services for English as a second language are provided across campus in a variety of forms: pre-enrolment services, an intensive writing program, one-on-one tutoring and different departments offering specialised help (Administrator). There are communication groups, speech coaches where there is a special assessment for international transfers and international admissions to help students (Business faculty member). Over the years a lot of support has evolved, “We now have a director of international studies who spends a lot of time working on curriculum matters and we have a special writing section, a writing instructor who is working with a first or second or third or fifth language” (Law faculty member).

Domestic graduate and undergraduate students drew attention to the language barrier that faces international students. They demonstrated an awareness of a summer ESL intensive program but raised concerns that this is the only program that international students do in terms of learning English (Domestic undergraduate). Of the domestic
students interviewed, four expressed concerns regarding language difficulties and frustrations that international students experience. Domestic students observed English language proficiency difficulties experienced by international students both in oral and written form which can, “Sometimes bring out ugly things inside…people just walk around with those prejudices” when working in group situations.

Several international students cited language as a difficulty not only for themselves but as to how they are perceived by others, particularly by domestic students, “I do feel that there may be a perception that international students in a team setting are more of a drag rather than adding a new perspective. Some of that may be true, for some of the international students are not proficient in English, their writing and stuff like that, grammar and stuff are not proper” (International graduate).

A student described her experience in sitting for a conversational language test:

That was the time that I felt un-valued... I was told to go and have a conversation. They picked up that I speak fast but if I was giving a presentation I put on my speaking voice. I don’t think she knew how to deal with me. Maybe she felt I was being too self-confident or full of myself, I don’t know. I felt attacked as an international student. My advisors, people got really upset about it, they called the supervisor of the test, the Dean.

Additionally, three Asian international students experienced difficulties on and off campus and described feeling patronised and manipulated due to language difficulties. One international student relayed her negative experience with a landlord. Another international student concluded that people are not patient enough in communicating with international students.
International office and the international centre

As an instrument of internationalisation, the Office of International Programs was praised for its efforts by the Administration and the faculty for co-ordinating activities, representing various countries and a very strong international alumni base that has become a resource for those of their native countries who wish to study in the US. A view held by many Administrator and faculty is that diversity has been an important issue as it provides the opportunity to enhance the culture of the campus and the broader community where the, “Umbrella of diversity…has a ripple effect in the city area among the conservative nature of the state” (Administrator). The Office of International Programs, according to these university members has been instrumental in this process.

Students made the following positive observations of the international office, “If there is stuff that needs to be done in a short time, they always do it. They respond to emails in an efficient way” (International graduate) and, “The people who work there are great and every time I leave there I leave with a smile on my face” (International graduate) and, “The university has good programs and support for international students. The International Centre, the IOS, these people know what they are doing” (International graduate).

The international undergraduate students commented that there was less support provided to them on a departmental level but they were positive in their praise of the International Office. They participated in programs offered at the International Centre particularly in their first year at the university. On an administrative level, one undergraduate student identified the International Office as providing them with
assistance in dealing with another office on campus. “The office of admissions, it was really difficult dealing with them, at first they wouldn’t, so one day I sent an email to the Dean of International students and he responded immediately and said he would look into it. It made me feel good to know that someone out there is trying to make me feel good and helping me out.”

Of the International Centre, students commented on their participation or choice not to participate in the activities available with a quarter of the international students simply not having the time yet, “Sometimes I come here. I was in a group trying to help international students to adjust to a new culture. I think it is something that they need. The international centre is doing a good job” (International graduate). International undergraduates commented that they were heavily involved in the centre in their freshman (first) year. One international undergraduate student perceived that there is an inherent difficulty in being involved in the International Centre, “I don’t believe that I am acculturated. I work at the Union, I was a tour guide. How are these programs going to help you blend in? You are only going to stand out more.”

**Explicit barriers to internationalise the campus**

In the post 9/11 environment three administrators and faculty stated that they were aware of the difficulties experienced by the international office and international students. A consequence was the immediate situations like, “Helicopters buzzing around the institution…An increasing xenophobia, not to do with terrorism but to do with immigration” (Administrator).

On this topic, the international students’ personal perspectives were enlightening:
Being from Pakistan and being Muslim, I had a representative from the FBI come and approach me and have an interview session with me. I understand why it happened but to some extent it turns the presumption of innocence upside down (International graduate).

I have noticed in classes that if people who see someone who is dressed differently, like how they see terrorists dressed on TV, sort of stereotypical, people give them a second or third glance (Malaysian international undergraduate).

Yes, I was affected…I had to carry around my passport just in case you get approached by people and they ask you where you are from, you might go to jail or be deported. I am careful where I go, what I talk about, what kind of conversations I get into because of Homeland Security (Pakistani international undergraduate).

Everything seems to be harder for the international student, like wherever we go it is not safe anymore. One thing that changed was the I-20 [visa], we have this special bar code. I feel like I am in jail, like a prison wherever we go. Also what people perceive of my country (Iranian international undergraduate).

I know my friend who was really scared immediately following 9/11, who had to have other people with him, people who got bashed but now it is better (Indian international undergraduate).

Several domestic students made observations post 9/11 about how international students were being treated on campus and the wider domain as potential terrorists, “There were some Muslim women who were yelled at. There was an atmosphere on campus…many of them did not go to class for several weeks. An atmosphere of fear. There was a Saudi Arabian man who was in my program and his family wanted him to go home” (Domestic graduate) and “I have heard of people being targeted. The FBI conducting surveillance, helicopter surveillance” (Domestic graduate). However, one domestic graduate student believed that the university’s response to this environment was important:

There were a couple of big gatherings at the fountain where the university came out against the acts that occurred and not to go down that road. I was very
concerned about the atmosphere on campus…the atmosphere was very unsettling and eerie. I think that the university did a good job of calming everybody down and reminding us of our humanity. After that the incidents calmed down. There was a plane flying around for about a year looking at particular people.

Visa and Immigration issues

A third of the Administration and faculty interviewed were aware of the difficulties experienced on all levels with the changes in visa application processes. One Administrator in a professional school noted, “It is almost country by country and year by year, sometimes they can come and sometimes they can’t. We have lost some students from the Middle East, we lost a student who went home and was not able to come back.”

Of the international students interviewed, four experienced visa difficulties and there was a specific comment on airport security, “Take off my shoes and everything.” One student’s visa application went through the process twice, “I got rejected the first time. I had a very tough time. I was so demoralised…My dad was really optimistic and pushed me to apply again. They denied it because they saw me as a potential immigrant” (Pakistani international graduate). In addition, domestic students who had travelled throughout this period observed differences in the treatment of internationals, “They seemed to have streamlined it (immigration at the airport). Speeding up discrimination” and “I have heard of people who wanted to go home and visit their families but were afraid that they would not get back into the country if they left.”

Six domestic students were aware of visa processing issues for international students and one student was aware of particular difficulties for those students from the Middle East, “I have a friend who is from Iran and he is an instructor here and in terms of what
he has to do...Unfortunately I think those from the Middle East have really had a hard time.” One domestic student was embarrassed by the process, “Yes. I heard of lots of them ad nauseam from my international friends. They are totally embarrassing. As an American, I am mortified by the things that they have been told, what they have been asked to do and asked to pay” (Domestic graduate).

As part of the visa and immigration process, all of the Administrators interviewed were aware of the implementation of SEVIS mostly viewing it as part of a political agenda and the bureaucratic red tape of an unfunded mandate. The process has created work for the university administration, particularly the International Programs Office and its subsidiary offices and centres. The implementation and maintenance of such a program also has its financial burden:

We have a fairly detailed analysis what the cost has been to the institution to implement and continue to comply with the new SEVIS requirements. Essentially what we are doing is providing for 40 percent of that overall cost, so the institution is covering 60 percent of that cost because we didn’t want to go back to the students and increase the fee every year or every other year. We hope that this fee will take care of what we need, so it won’t be necessary to increase that fee over time…The fee was for staff, hardware, software and ongoing site visits (Administrator).

There has been a definite line drawn between tracking the progress of the domestic student and their international counterpart:

The most onerous part of it is the oversight, because now, for example if you are a student of ours and you are from Seattle, no one really cares what your progress is…That is not true for international students. That process is very carefully monitored…We have authorities on campus from time to time (Administrator).

The higher education community took a lot of flack after 9/11 because we fought the implementation of an electronic system. What we were fighting was this notion that colleges and universities for the first time would collect a fee on behalf of the federal government. We had some concerns about monitoring and tracking (Administrator).
SEVIS created major changes for the university. The consequences of SEVIS were viewed as monumental, where, “It is the most far reaching change that the professionals in the US have had to deal with in the history of the profession. Regulations have changed; they have become more complex, more draconian but it has been fairly pinpointed in terms of its overall impact. What the Patriot Act and SEVIS have brought is monumental in scope.” This administrator of the university who deals with international students and faculty members stated that professional discretion of members of his office is no longer, “There is no continuum of an immigration violation. A zero tolerance policy [towards international students] now exists.”

Overall administrators in International Services did not see their role to be agents of the Federal government, “We have an obligation and responsibility to ensure that our students understand the regulations and that as an institution we are complying with those regulations. But we don’t like this notion that we are reporting status violations and in effect enforcing immigration matters” (Administrator). Interestingly, despite the discussion at the Administrator level, only two faculty members were aware of the introduction of the SEVIS program and two of the domestic students were aware of its introduction. All remaining domestic students were unaware of the tracking system put in place for international students.

Half of the international students interviewed were not adversely affected by the introduction of SEVIS; yet seven international students interviewed were directly affected. Three international students who specifically commented about the introduction of SEVIS focused on its financial burden, “They are paying to have me here but I have to pay to make them safe.” One international student in particular noted
how international students were being seen as criminals, “The policy toward
internations has been changing gradually but SEVIS was a big jump, gradually
treating us more and more like criminals. It wasn’t an enormous hassle to move my
information over and go and verify everything but mostly it was a psychological thing. I
don’t like it that the government has to keep those tabs on me.”

Several international students mentioned their experiences at airports tied to SEVIS and
how they had been tracked through the system, “Last summer I went away and when I
came back I had to get my SEVIS in. After I went through customs, I was taken to this
other place and they checked my visa one more time, which took about two more hours
which meant I missed my flight” (International undergraduate).

Some international students discovered the additional limitations of being an
international student and not being able to obtain financial support that is available to
US students. One of these limitations was not being able to work off campus due to visa
limitations or to the requirements to obtain a credit card.

**Conclusion**

Despite some of the negative experiences of international students, many of the
international students interviewed had positive experiences. They talked about the many
opportunities available to them. This is expressed by the following comments:

Overall, I am lucky to be in a supportive environment. When I was sick last year
and had to have surgery, they were very supportive (Social sciences graduate
student).
Being international is the biggest thing. In Malaysia, I was ethnically, racially and religiously always part of the majority. The biggest positive of being an international student is that you get a perspective of how majorities interact with minorities—the different mindset and sensitivities that the majority have toward minorities. It has made me much more aware and sensitive about race and religion (Malaysian undergraduate student).

There have been several. I have never been happier. Since we came here, we made friends. I worked here; I went to the market; and I took trips. It has been like home. The quality of life that (the town) has to offer. The level of teaching and the attention that you get from faculty—they are accessible. This has been amazing (Brazilian graduate student).

People seem very interested to get to know you, where my accent is from. I tend to meet a lot of friends easily and that is a positive thing. I like being international. I find I have a lot more interesting times here and I meet a lot of interesting people (Australian international graduate).

All members of the Administration commented that there is still much to do for international students in making their time at the university successful. The hope is that the government bureaucracy in terms of immigration that has been put in place will not affect students coming to the university with awareness that international students face very different pressures to the domestic student: pressures of time, finances and greater credit hours.

Some administrators see opportunities for involvement at the university, “I would like to see them involved in a journal experience, translating seminal articles from their own countries and making them available on the web. I think that that would be a huge service…” (Administrator). Another administrator commented that there is a need to welcome international students and help them feel included, “I think that there are times when international students feel isolated or don’t understand the culture or resources, language issues and other than that it might help increase that sense of community in areas but (the university) as an institution has a lot of resources devoted towards
international students and the university’s resources would continue to grow and respond.”

According to three administrators, universities have a responsibility to raise questions in an environment of no boundaries, where institutions have to prepare students for a very complex world, with work environments and community environments that will be very different from the town that they grew up in. The naiveté of the United States or its insular views were mentioned by several administrators where, “We still think everything great happens here in the USA. We don’t need to be concerned about what happens elsewhere in the world and that is going to be our downfall” (Administrator). These insular views, also expressed by students and discussed previously in this chapter, focus on the need for broad and effective internationalisation strategies across the campus where more connections are important and there is a basis for open enquiry. Faculty members must be aware that, “There is a tendency for isolationism. The role of the university is to make people aware of what is achieved and there is more that needs to be done. There is a need to communicate that to the general population. We can’t survive without international approaches. There is a role of the university to make the legislature aware that foreign undergraduates are important too” (Science faculty member).

In an effort to internationalise the campus international students saw the opportunity for the university to play an international role in the future with university policy statements, an opportunity to expose people to other cultures and focus on learning. All of these approaches would help the international situation. Some students wanted to have classes where students were working on international relations. Making students
aware of what the US had done overseas as well as an awareness that things are done differently in other countries. Domestic students, with one exception, saw that the internationalising of the university as critical but ultimately, as one student suggested, that the international presence can be better utilised before it is increased (Domestic graduate).

Administrators thought that the internationalisation strategies had been relatively successful at Midwestern. Those more directly involved with international students and faculty were more judgemental about the success of the university’s mission. While much is being done in the way of Title VI centres, the introduction of an international studies major and the provision of cultural activities, much still needs to done for the university to achieve its internationalisation goals. Faculty members and students are not aware of many activities and services that are available to them. Communication of these internationalisation priorities and the publicity of services available at the university must be greater for the “rhetoric to become a reality” (Education faculty member) throughout the entire university. As two domestic undergraduate students commented, “the opportunities are here but it is not easy to take advantage of them” and, “You have to seek them out but the opportunities are more than available.” Ultimately, internationalisation of this campus can create an awareness of international issues. The campus administrators have to work to embed their internationalisation strategies and overcome perceptions such as this expressed by one domestic undergraduate, “…even though the enrolment has increased, [the university] is just a very white, very middle class campus.” Recommendations to address the implementation of the internationalisation strategies are discussed in the final chapter.
Chapter Nine

Discussion: The success of internationalisation

at Riverina and Midwestern

At the 2007 Association for the Study of Higher Education (ASHE) conference, Simon Marginson mentioned that when comparing educational systems, it is that which falls between the cracks that require us to look more closely. This chapter reflects on the research findings presented in this thesis and those areas that have fallen between the cracks for nations and both universities when implementing their internationalisation policies.

This chapter summarises the kind of policy changes embarked upon in Australia and the US over the last two decades, when significant changes in their mission statements were made concerning international policies and responses to globalisation. It discusses the findings of the interviews with faculty members and international and domestic students about the success of the internationalisation strategies at Riverina and Midwestern. Their experiences often contrasted with the view that administrators had about their internationalisation practices.
The Australian system is federally driven whereas the US system is state based with a piecemeal approach to policy making at the federal level. The two universities in this research have embraced the benefits of globalisation yet have had to respond to the shifting policy environments by enacting changes to their mission statements and in their practices through their internationalisation strategies. ‘Internationalisation: Case studies of two Australian and United States universities’ is an examination of how two institutions chose to respond to global changes in the context of international higher education policies.

Chapters Five to Eight of the thesis examined those factors that have shaped internationalisation strategies in a period of rapid expansion, beginning with the macro policies at the government level that led to increasing privatisation of universities and detailing the micro practices at the institutional level with active recruitment of international students. Riverina and Midwestern, although operating in different national contexts, have made similar efforts to internationalise their campuses by creating specific mission statements and implementing internationalisation strategies. As assessed by the interview participants at both universities, these strategies were deemed a success at the managerial level, with alliances, linkages and collaborations. In contrast the internationalisation of campus life, including provision of and access to services and campus resources, was seen as less successful, especially by the students and some of the faculty interviewed.

The case study approach allowed me to examine closely two institutions in the context of a global market. The literature informed an understanding of the direction of nations and universities involved in the research. This, together with the national and
institutional policy documents, provided the time frame for the study by considering the policy development historically and more recent changes at both universities. The statistical information provided the context and illustrated the patterns over the last decade worldwide, nationally and locally. The interview data provided a wealth of information on different perspectives and viewpoints of globalisation, internationalisation and internationalisation strategies offered by key stakeholders in each university.

**Globalisation and Internationalisation of Higher Education**

In an effort to examine the acceleration of the internationalisation strategies as a response to globalisation, this research outlined the different definitions of globalisation, its relationship with internationalisation, the ensuing government policies in international higher education, the changes to each university’s mission and the implementation of the internationalisation strategies on both campuses. The following figure shows the connection between each of these concepts that has ultimately led to changes in practices at these institutions.
As discussed earlier in this thesis, globalisation should be understood as more than an economic definition often emphasised in the literature. It encompasses global environmental changes, political and social conflicts and the growth of hybrid world cultures. There is a link between the economic and the political nature of globalisation where economies influenced by global markets are inextricably linked to the politics of a nation. Yet, global implies social and economic forces operating supranationally and
transnationally to override national boundaries. Therefore, globalisation should be viewed as a multi-dimensional process which unfolds in economy, politics and communication (Lee 1999). It is a process of hybridisation which encourages different responses from different nations (Sidhu 2006). After considering different viewpoints on globalisation for the purpose of this research, it was Knight’s definition of globalisation that was ultimately adopted. Knight defines globalisation as “the flow of technology, economy, knowledge, people, values and ideas…across borders” (1997 as cited in de Wit 2002:143).

Globalisation has brought mobility to the global elite and interconnectivity to the first world, with an accompanying erosion of national boundaries. As stated in the introduction to this thesis, Boyd and Smart (1987:14) contended that Australia and the United States “inhabit almost adjacent huts in the global village.” While these nations do have many similarities in their origins, geographical size and judicial systems, these nations operate in quite different national contexts. Unlike the US, Australia has both the luck and the misfortune to have a federally operated higher education sector. This brings with it many opportunities for unified change on a federal level, unlike the state by state changes in the US. The misfortune lay with universities and their decrease in autonomy from the federal system with reliance on resources from the government. There is no doubt that Australia and its inherent isolation has always had to look outward for international opportunities, more so than the US. The globalising practices of trade, politics and business mean that people are moving and opportunities continue to open up internationally.
Policy developments

Resource dependence (Pfeffer and Salancik 1978) provided the framework to explore the nature of the changing policies nationally in both countries and in both universities. One of the tenets of resource dependency theory is that organisations are externally controlled by their environments. In international higher education, the policies of both nations, as examined in Chapters Five and Seven, changed direction over the last two decades for Australia and more so in the last decade in the US. These external controls during this time period of international education policy have seen Australia as proactive and the US reactive. Education has been increasingly seen by both governments as a tool for economic restructuring and has been characterised as an 'industry' operating under conditions applied to other industries, public and private, in areas of industrial relations, competition and trade practices, reporting and accountability.

Resource dependence theory argues that in order to survive, organisations must acquire resources (Pfeffer and Salancik 1978). Organisations depend on external resources to be sustainable and are often subject to external control. In the case of universities, external facilitators such as government ministers and bureaucrats can implement policies that introduce external controls on how universities may operate. Or they can lift some of those controls as in deregulating the international student fees in Australia.

The consequence of the economic shifts can be seen in the changes to the funding models applied to universities discussed in Chapters Five and Seven and borne out in the international student enrolment changes internationally, nationally and locally. Policy changes resulted in alterations to dependent resources. The shifting inter-
dependence of government and universities required institutions to access different income streams. As a consequence, as illustrated by the two institutions, higher education has become increasingly internationalised through international student recruitment, transnational programs (such as offshore teaching) and international collaborations and networks. This form of diversification, as Pfeffer and Salancik (1978) refer to it, is the basis for redefining the relationships with external organisations and the environment of the institution. The globalising effect of rapid advancement in information and communications technology has been a key factor in these developments. Universities have used the tools of globalisation and the legislative framework of deregulation to develop their internationalisation strategies.

There has been a reduction of public funding of universities in real terms in the same time period as economic globalisation gained strength as a government policy. This shift in public funding, as discussed in Chapter Five, saw financial support from governments decline and alternative revenue sources sought. One alternative resource for universities is international students and their accelerated recruitment has occurred in both countries for financial gain. The statistical information gathered showed a continued increase in international student enrolments globally. This increase is anticipated to continue well into the next decade. The percentage of international students present in Australian universities currently represents approximately 25 percent of the total student population, whereas in the US, the international student population is at approximately 4 percent of the total population of students. Despite this, due to the size and scale of the US university sector, the US still attracts up to 30 percent of the total international student population. English speaking countries tend to be a lure, according to the *Economist* (2004). As of 2006, Australia was the third largest
commercial exporter of higher education services internationally, coming in behind the US and the UK (Harman 2006). Australia’s onshore enrolments represent the largest share of international students in relation to total enrolments in higher education in any OECD country. As discussed in Chapter Four, income has continued to grow and now makes a substantial contribution to the GDP of both nations. Attracting international students means a boost to tourism, which means a boost to the economy. Both universities demonstrated a continuing increase in international student enrolments over the period of this research.

At the time of the case study, Riverina University had an international student enrolment of 18 percent with an anticipated level of 20 percent as part of future planning and Midwestern University showed an international student enrolment of approximately 10 percent with an anticipated enrolment of 12 to 15 percent of the total student population as part of future planning. The anticipated increase of international student numbers indicates that international student enrolments will continue to be a part of their strategic planning and consequently a source of income for both universities.

As external facilitators, the policies of governments regarding students’, graduates’ and academics’ mobility and immigration are increasingly seen to be important in a globalising world (Teichler 2004). Today, Australia’s immigration policy makers are cognisant of the economic implications of immigration in a global world and they include international students and academics as part of their migrant intakes. The US policies have been restrictive since 9/11, with consequences that are likely to have long term effects. Globalisation opened up nations to each other, opened up borders and then
opened up the world to international terrorism. World events including 9/11 and the Bali bombings led to a closing down of borders and applying restrictive visa policies particularly in the US. In 2003, Victor C. Johnson, associate director for public policy at NAFSA, commented that not only is the US not making proactive efforts to recruit foreign students but that they are doing exactly the opposite. “Not only don’t we have an active policy of recruiting foreign students, we are putting visa obstacles in the way” (Bollag 2004:40). An international student questioned, “Why choose to travel and study [to the US] if you have to get naked at the airport?” The visa policies are generally perceived by those involved at Midwestern to be restrictive, draconian and counterproductive to welcoming international students to the nation and to the university. Equally, international students at Riverina commented that the visa policy of the US was one reason that they chose to come to Australia instead of the US. These tensions exist in a global environment where mobility is occurring, yet is also restricted by responses to terrorism.

Deregulation of the recruitment of international students and their entry into Australia occurred in the mid 1980s. Concerns have been raised in Australia and the US about pre-existing and potential immigrant visa abuse by international students. The SEVIS system in the US saw an overhaul that involved extensive tracking of international students with little flexibility for movement or accommodation of special circumstances. Australia changed its visa policies for international students in 2005. These developments have occurred during the period of global expansion of international students as ‘trade’.
One consideration of these policies is how the immigration laws impact on the timing and issuing of visas to students. The time lag in application and issuing processes and cost has become considerable and a hurdle that really needs to be examined closely for international research ties to continue, particularly in the US. This process can affect the research timeline for academics expecting international arrivals for their research program and equally the flow of students in higher education systems. Ultimately it means that government bureaucracy has control over national trade, which international students have become. In addition to this, large-scale exodus from any nation has the potential to cause transference in knowledge and skills from a home country to a host country, thus shifting human capital around the world. Currently these movements require that individuals have visas. Overseas employment opportunities encourage students to seek locations that will have long term advantages for them because of the reputation a host country’s degree or from potential employment opportunities in a host country. The implications for government immigration policies to consider this global mobility are apparent. Governments appear to welcome globalisation and internationalisation and their possibilities while at the same time they create barriers to its realisation.

The data presented in this research confirm that there have been many influences in the policy directions of both nations. The policy processes have been mapped chronologically in this thesis for both countries and institutions. At the university level, policy implementation was left to the stakeholders, subject to the alternative avenues of funding, the tradition of the institution and its role in the national, state and local context. The policy that developed in Australia enabled a trade in international education to develop. This economic platform set the scene for change, certainly in
Australia but also with connections to the US and to international organisations such as the OECD. The policy changes were brought about by global, national and local influences. For the two universities in this research, this meant responding by changing their mission in a period of rapid globalisation and the acceleration of internationalisation strategies to achieve these goals.

**University internationalisation strategies**

Internationalisation of universities has been underpinned by market principles. It can be argued that internationalisation and globalisation may be competing forces, with competing ideologies. However in the current global economic climate, globalisation is more omnipresent with multiple forces. Some of these threaten the genuine desire of universities to encourage internationalisation in its cultural form of being more open and tolerant of different religions, languages and ethnic groups.

When the universities no longer have access to the same income stream, they must diversify and seek new resources. The institutions studied have had to respond to the alteration of their economic environment (Pfeffer and Salancik 1978). Resource dependence theory illuminated how different parties and interests in international higher education, result in competing discourses. A struggle over the direction of a university can develop between levels of management and faculty members and between different student groups wanting their share of university resources. Riverina and Midwestern responded to changing economic dynamics by creating a dependency on newly developed resources versus the income stream that had previously existed. Strategic choices were made within the institutions tied to external pressures and constraints. Globalising networks and agreements have allowed internationalisation to flourish. As
Riverina and Midwestern redeveloped their mission statements, they made moves toward a greater degree of autonomy from the external resources that had previously funded them. Diversified income streams were adopted to reduce resource dependence on governments via the development of specific internationalisation strategies. Pfeffer and Salancik (1978) argue that these alternate resource streams are about diversifying different resources in an effort to obtain autonomy. This diversification occurred both at Riverina and at Midwestern. Riverina and Midwestern operate in different national and institutional contexts yet, for both universities, globalisation provided a new environment in which they were able to look to new income generating strategies. These universities have been able to exploit the potential provided by globalisation.

Riverina is subject to a federally driven higher education system. It is an urban university with a relatively small student population. It is the flagship university of the state. Revenues from international student fees at Riverina in 2006 were about eight percent compared to the national average of about 15 percent. Despite an international student population of 18 percent in 2006, Riverina is less dependent on international fees than many other Australian universities because of other revenues with bequests and investments; nonetheless, it has diversified its income streams. Riverina finds itself in a position of “running two contrary missions with two different sets of signals. They are elite educators of the domestic population and volume-driven mass educators in the global market” (Marginson 2008:4). Globalisation has driven the changes to the university mission over the last decade in response to the external constraints that have been placed upon Riverina. It has developed explicit internationalisation goals. The changes identified in this research can be seen in the mission statement of the university and in the development of a strategic plan specifically for internationalisation, and
indicate a desire for the university to become more prominent internationally. While various members of the university propose that the university has always been international, the changing strategic plan, particularly over the last decade has a strong correlation with the changing global environment and represents an acceleration and a deepening of this international direction. The perceptions of the success of the internationalisation strategies adopted as a consequence of the changing strategic plan will be illuminated further in this chapter.

Midwestern is a large campus in a typical US university town. It too is a premier university in the state. As discussed in Chapter Seven of this thesis, Midwestern’s 2003 mission statement stipulated the development of skills necessary to adapt and excel in a changing world. It was stated that this goal would be carried out on the campus by continuing the long tradition of providing international education and activities. This was and is seen to be reflected in such features as its diverse area and language study programs, the introduction of international study majors, comparative and international studies in the curriculum, foreign study programs, the development of further partnerships with educational institutions in other countries, students on campus from 123 countries and approximately 50 international student organisations. To achieve the university mission, the Chancellor proposed the strategic vision as outlined in Chapter Seven. Policy developments at the institutional level have been broad throughout the university’s history yet it is only during the time period of this research that explicit internationalisation goals were included in the university’s mission statement. In fact they were rephrased in 2006. These micro policy developments were instituted despite the lack of an overall federal government policy and the dearth of state policies on international education. It may be argued that there was a necessity to obtain alternative
income resources, other than those provided by the state led administrators, and to look outside the state and beyond national borders. The many benefits of welcoming international academics and students to its campuses have been a strong part of the university’s history. With international student enrolments currently only at ten percent of the total student population, there is a definite argument that the university is not reliant on income raised from the presence of international students on campus but like Riverina, Midwestern has the competing interests of running two contrary missions with two different sets of signals. They too are elite educators of the domestic population and in some sectors of the university, volume-driven mass educators of international students in some subject areas in the global market.

Neither Riverina nor Midwestern administrators held the view that income from international students at their universities reaped huge profits. Rather they saw this initiation as a component of the university’s internationalisation strategies. Attracting international students was a means of diversifying income streams and a means as well of achieving a portion of each university’s broader internationalisation goals of cultural diversity. These perspectives echo with Pfeffer and Salancik’s (1978) assertions that alternative or diversification of resource streams may enable more autonomy of the institution from government. In this case Riverina has been able to gain a degree of autonomy from the federal government and Midwestern from its state government.

Internationalisation strategies can be a counterbalance to the demise of government funding at universities. As these universities sought alternative avenues of funding, economic goals continued to be paramount and part of the economic strategy that was integral to the direction each university wished to adopt in relation to
internationalisation. While globalisation encompasses more than economic goals, there is a conflict for each university between international student recruitment as an income generator and the broader internationalisation goals. This conflict is discussed with the experiences of these internationalisation strategies. The narratives of key actors are utilised to explain how internationalisation was implemented at each university. Based on the review of the campus internationalisation policies and practices at Riverina and Midwestern, there are common ingredients at these universities as discussed by Green:

- an intentional, integrative and comprehensive approach
- strong leadership from the top
- leadership throughout the institution
- widespread faculty engagement
- a commitment to meeting student needs
- an ethos of internationalisation and
- supporting structures and resources. (2002:16)

Midwestern has obtained alternative income streams, in particular, in the Business and Music Schools, from bequests and donations. The university has loosened its dependence on government resources and altered their activities as conditions changed. This development has given these Schools a degree of financial autonomy and minimized external control but has exposed them to additional external influences. Their dependence has been diminished by diversification. There are thirteen development officers in Business devoted to, “corporate friends and alumni [in order to] generate money” (Administrator). Both of the business schools at Riverina and Midwestern have generated enough income to be self sufficient and pay for new graduate buildings. Midwestern has been particularly successful in tapping into the generosity of its alumni and as discussed earlier, it is this US model of philanthropic
activity that Australian institutions, Riverina among them, wish to develop. While philanthropy is not explicitly an internationalisation strategy at Midwestern, the Business and Music schools have a high proportion of international students who in turn become alumni who it is anticipated will give back to their alma mater.

At Midwestern, one division of the university actively seeks large overseas projects that have generated over $70 million in the last decade. Riverina too has developed and continues to seek these revenue-generating, international collaborations. These collaborations at both universities were deemed by all participants to be successful not only for their financial gain but equally in terms of achieving scholarly success. Some programs in these universities do not think that they have the opportunity to be big money makers, particularly if they are locally based. Herein lay the complexities of the distribution of the resources gained from international activity for both universities and universities in general. How much fiscal control should schools have over their funds raised from these internationalisation strategies? What are the consequences for schools and/or departments within the university that are unable to tap into this resource? These questions are fundamental for universities as they become more reliant on external relationships and resources. As diversification has loosened dependence for some schools within the universities and provided these schools with more discretion, it should be the case that over time more diversified structures should emerge as these Schools have the opportunity to become more diversified in comparison to other schools within the university (Pfeffer and Salancik 1978). The dichotomy for the majority of the faculty members interviewed in those fields that were obtaining funds from the transnational programs in Riverina in particular was in the change in emphasis.
in the university described by one education faculty member, “The mission of the university used to be to seek wisdom. Now it is simply to seek cash.”

Riverina, unlike Midwestern, has engaged extensively in transnational programs, such as offshore teaching. The university’s proximity to Asia has had financial benefits from these programs. Offshore teaching arrangements are particularly evident in the Business and Education schools. One faculty member from education commented, “That is why we set up the internationalisation program. Without it we would have been in debt to the tune of $1.5 million. Our reasons for doing it are not missionary zeal in promoting the word; it is simply to raise cash.” Faculty members identified the Business and Education Graduate Programs at Riverina as not being viable except for their internationalisation strategies. Each has developed internationalisation as a core activity. Domestic and international students in these schools were cognisant of this as were other members at all levels throughout the university. There are implications here not only for the members of these schools and their departments but also concerns about the impact that this approach has for other divisions within the university. Faculty members interviewed from other departments at Riverina observed that their field limits their ability to raise money through transnational arrangements or to bring in large numbers of international students. Interestingly, the Music department at Riverina at the time of this research was examining the possibility of such arrangements to diversify and bolster its income stream. It could learn from Midwestern in terms of their success in attracting top music students to their program from around the globe.

The pursuit of such diversification for schools within the universities in order to loosen dependence on external controls is likely to lead to an increase in the number of groups
and organisations interested in these schools. This process can then increase the number of demands on these schools, their staff and the universities as a whole. There arises from this diversification conflicting demands from interested parties. As Pfeffer and Salancik (1978: 273) state, “organisational designs which disperse dependence through their environment also link the organisation to more elements which might seek to use their service, creating more competing and conflicting interests.” This applies to those schools which have diversified their resources at Riverina and Midwestern.

At Riverina, there are members of the education faculty who are engaged in running research collaborations in a number of countries, engaged in offshore teaching and contacting external students using video technology. The additional conflict between seeking cash versus seeking wisdom leads to consequences for faculty members. The increase of collaborative and transnational arrangements at Riverina for these schools has meant an increase in workload for these academics and their colleagues. One education faculty member commented, “It may be part of our duties but it is not a trivial or lightly entered into activity. It is well beyond an add on. The [offshore] teaching is intensive.” These offshore duties of faculty members may also affect the quality of teaching provided to internal students, with travel obligations of faculty members and time away from the university.

Development of programs to encourage university faculty to go abroad are also an important component of internationalising the campus. Despite the levels of international research collaborations, opportunities for exchange on both campuses are perceived by faculty members to be difficult to organise. This is understandable as there are many resources required to make such arrangements, as outlined by faculty
members at both universities. Additionally, sabbatical leave is seen as beneficial because it provides faculty members with overseas placement and it presents the perfect opportunity to achieve part of their university’s goals to internationalise. This was more the case at Riverina than at Midwestern. This relates to the national contexts that have been discussed earlier. Universities in Australia, like the nation itself, have a tendency to look outward due to their small population and geographical location. At Riverina, doctoral students are strongly encouraged upon completion of their degree to go overseas, or at the very least, interstate to complete postgraduate work before they possibly return to the university. This is not the case at Midwestern. Possibly because of the US population and the existence of over 3,000 higher education institutions compared to Australia’s 39 universities. Midwestern Administrator and faculty members interviewed did not perceive overseas experience or its exposure to be a necessity because of the many opportunities that existed within the nation. However, the university has a general understanding that it will not employ its own graduates.

To encourage internationalisation, Riverina Administration and faculty members perceived that recruitment of faculty positions did take place internationally. The aim is to avail the institution of the opportunity to extend its outreach. Riverina already undertakes this process, advertising internationally for almost every academic position. Participants at Midwestern thought that most international faculty were not recruited from abroad but were already residents of the US when they took up appointments at the university.

Study abroad or student exchange programs are offered by each university as additional internationalisation strategies, predominantly for domestic undergraduate students in an
effort to broaden educational experiences. The success of these programs is more apparent at Midwestern than they are at Riverina. The majority of students interviewed both graduate and undergraduate at Midwestern, had either participated in (the graduate students mentioning their undergraduate experience) or will participate in some form of study abroad program throughout their course. This is not the case at Riverina. Of the domestic students interviewed at Riverina, only one student had participated in a study abroad program.

Attracting international students is a reasonable solution for universities as a component of their international strategies to encourage cultural diversity and also to raise income. Administrators specifically involved in international programs at both campuses believed that their universities were successful in their recruitment and enrolment of international students. In addition, administrators in the international offices stated that the university has to have an optimal percentage of international students on campus so as to create the opportunities for cultural diversity while not overriding the goal of educating local students. This balance serves two purposes. A high number of international students may indeed attract more students to each country but the proportion for any institution was an important factor as international student numbers need to correlate with services. The development and expansion of international offices on both campuses indicates a need to provide services for domestic and international students. With an international student population of ten percent, Midwestern has extensive international services offered to international students with an overarching office of international programs, an international services office, an international centre that students can be involved in and an international living and learning centre. Riverina, with an international student enrolment of 18 percent, does not have the same
extensive services, nor in fact the same proportion of staff dedicated to the services of international students, but has seen some growth in the International Office during the last decade. As will be discussed in the following section of this chapter, there are conflicting perceptions about the distribution of the monies attained from the student income and how these monies should be distributed. Resource dependence theory of organisations theorises power relationships not only between organisations and their external facilitators but also within organisations (Donaldson 1995). Intra-organisational power struggles are in operation on both campuses as to who should benefit from these additional funds provided by the university’s internationalisation strategies. For faculty members and international and domestic students, the clash between seeking wisdom versus cash seems to be at the heart of the concerns expressed about internationalisation of these campuses.

**Perspectives on the success of internationalisation strategies**

The competing perspectives of the participants at both institutions became apparent when asking them about the success of the implementation of the internationalisation strategies on campus. While it may be expected from any discussion with top tier administrators that the implementation of the internationalisation strategies has been successful, it is the perception of the distribution and utilisation of the obtained resources between the different groups on these campuses that is contentious. Pfeffer and Salancik (1978) refer to this construct as intra-organisational power.

While both universities’ internationalisation strategies were perceived at the management level to be successful, with collaborations, transnational programs, faculty exchange and student recruitment among the achievements noted, it was the campus
experiences that were more telling. In this aspect, perceptions of administrators and other groups interviewed within the university significantly diverged. It may be expected that administrators would hold a different point of view from faculty members, or faculty members may hold a different point of view to students, or even that domestic and international viewpoints would differ. Generally, administrators from both universities perceived that the experiences on campus did indeed provide an international environment and one that encouraged cultural diversity.

With few exceptions, there was a genuine concern expressed by administrators at both universities about the success of the internationalisation goals for encouraging cultural diversity. They wanted feedback about how well their goals were being achieved. In essence, although many participants in this study could point to some successes of the programs on each campus, the overriding consensus on both campuses was that the aims of the programs were determined more by each university’s pursuit of financial gain than its concern for cultural diversity. In their experiences of interactions with international students, the majority of faculty members had similar perceptions to those expressed by students in relation to perspectives about cultural diversity and social interaction. Again, with few exceptions, domestic student perceptions did not differ from international students. These similar opinions not only related to perceptions of the nature of cultural diversity and social interaction but in addition related to perceptions and experiences of support services and programs on campus.

The mission of the universities to internationalise campus life as a component of their internationalisation strategies has been accepted as an appropriate approach and has been adopted philosophically by those interviewed on these campuses. It is the
implementation of broader internationalisation strategies that directly affected the members of the university on campus that the faculty members, international and domestic students believed to be inadequate.

Differences between the education systems of different countries are quite profound. International students arriving at the host campuses are not necessarily coming from the same groups of countries or the same educational backgrounds. International students at both campuses observed that there is a need to acknowledge the differences within the student population. At the same time they recognised the difficulty for faculty members in class environments and the difficulties to plan for student services given diverse populations. International students are not homogenous. As an example, arrivals in Australia wanted to know about tutorials, what they do in tutorials and exams, and experiments and what the expectations are in terms of learning styles at the university and within disciplines. If expectations are clear, then international students may not perceive that they are disadvantaged upon their arrival at the university. One music faculty member at Midwestern commented, “A student, is a student, is a student.” This was meant in the context that the expectations of and the treatment of the student does not change, regardless of their place of origin. But the students expressed a desire for more direction on educational norms and expectations upon their arrival at both universities. A Riverina faculty member in the arts suggests one means to identify these differences and utilise them effectively which is to internationalise the delivery of the curriculum. This pertains to pedagogy through curriculum content recognising the need to develop different learning styles to understand different expectations of learners.
The OECD defined an internationalised curriculum as one that is professional and social, one that is aimed at both domestic and international students and that incorporates international and intercultural dimensions (OECD 1995). There were questions raised at both Riverina and Midwestern regarding the different approaches to an international curriculum in different fields. Those in the science field in this study at both universities argued strongly that their discipline is international anyway, for a scientist cannot function in a cocoon and must be cognisant of international research and findings. Some disciplines are location specific but that does not prevent alternative international perspectives from entering the arena. Those in the arts at both universities believed that their fields provide a greater opportunity for an internationalised curriculum to be implemented. Regardless, as Volet (1997) argues, internationalisation of the curriculum requires the collaboration of all parties to promote international education at their institution.

Examples of approaches and content of an internationalised curriculum were found in the arts at Midwestern and Riverina. Specific international courses were available at both universities in business. This research showed that as part of the internationalisation strategy at Riverina, every Dean is required to meet with the Administrator to produce examples to demonstrate how their schools have internationalised their curriculum or how they are working towards it. Midwestern administrators believed that there has been extensive work on internationalising the curriculum, particularly with the introduction of an international study major in the College of Arts and Sciences and with the extensive opportunities to study foreign languages.
At both universities, there were competing perceptions between the administrators and the other members of the university in relation to the success of internationalising the curriculum. At Midwestern, while acknowledging the availability of extensive foreign language programs, there was much concern expressed by domestic and international students over the parochial nature of the materials presented to students. While the same number of foreign language programs is not available at Riverina, the consensus from all participants was that in many areas, the curriculum at Riverina is international where appropriate. This takes into account those subject areas that are uniquely Australian as well as those that are providing an education for students who will operate in a predominantly Australian setting. The student participants agreed with the Administrator and faculty members at Riverina that internationalising the curriculum has been successful in its implementation whereas at Midwestern, students held different perceptions to the administrators and the majority of the faculty members. Part of this perception is based on experiences where domestic and international students thought that the curriculum was parochial. One international graduate student stated that materials were 99 percent American with little recognition of resources outside its national borders. These different perceptions and approaches may reflect the different national contexts where Australia tends to be outward looking and the US tends to be inward looking educationally. It is the cultural perspective of the US that other views are irrelevant that these students believed to be pervasive.

The assumption that a non-English speaker is unable to cope intellectually in an English speaking and writing environment creates obstacles for universities. There was significant dissatisfaction expressed by students in relation to the mastery of the English language. Building in greater support networks for English language development
should be a priority according to all students. There were real concerns expressed regarding the perceived lack of support for international students in this area, particularly at Riverina. Faculty members at both universities who taught international students generally agreed. Of particular concern were courses with large international student enrolments where students experienced language difficulties and particularly issues with written English.

Domestic students experienced difficulties in the completion of group work activities, where they felt the burden of editing work to an acceptable standard of English language for submission becomes their responsibility. Domestic students also expressed concerns, more so at Midwestern about international students’ oral language competency, and hence communication difficulties. Faculty members on both campuses relayed their experiences of dealing with international students. At a graduate level, there was concern expressed over the amount of editing that was required by faculty members of international students’ work. Not only did faculty members on both campuses express concerns about ownership of written work due to extensive rewriting but also about the added burden of the time required editing students’ work. While the experiences of all three groups mentioned here are different, there was a unified response by all of these parties that the English language competency of international students in these universities is a problem. There was a unified response too in the appropriate mechanisms that could be put in place to assist in this area. This will be discussed in the suggestions for university practice in the final chapter.

Additionally, at both universities there were international students who wanted to teach but they did not have a good mastery of English. At Midwestern, there were
international students interviewed who did not pass the oral English competency test required for teaching on campus. One Nordic international graduate student at Midwestern was informed upon completion of the oral test that she spoke too quickly [though she was asked to complete the task in conversational English] and that this was unacceptable in someone who wished to teach. The concern expressed by domestic students about international students teaching was that the university has an obligation to provide a quality education for its students and having an instructor who is difficult to understand leads to frustration on the part of these students. When teaching placement was difficult, it was perceived by the student participants that the international students were disadvantaged, not only in the opportunity to teach and advance their careers but also, as mentioned previously, in their ability to procure financial support on campus as per their visa requirements. Unquestionably, English language proficiency is a sensitive area for universities to consider. Arguably approaches can be taken by universities and internationalising the curriculum and recognising the role of the curriculum as a powerful tool.

Research on the divide between international and domestic students conducted by Anyanwu and Innes (reported in The Australian: Illing, October 6, 2004) documented the tensions in relation to curriculum, academic standards and social isolation. Internationalising the curriculum can provide one link to social interaction by providing opportunities for understanding of cultural issues and providing the basis to encourage social interaction in class situations through discussion and group work. Australian universities, unlike many of their US counterparts located in small towns are predominantly urban or suburban and most students commute to campus. Social interaction of domestic and international students does suffer from the geography of the
higher education system in Australia, with domestic students predominantly residing at home and working part-time on top of their academic commitments. In contrast US students who predominantly live on or in close proximity to campus tend to spend more time socialising with other students on campus. For Riverina, the consequences are less time at the university for domestic students, less time for interaction with international students and in fact, limited opportunities to foster these interactions. Many of the international students at both universities interviewed for this study desired to be friends with the domestic students. At Riverina, the urban university that one might think would be more cosmopolitan paradoxically reinforces the social isolation of international students.

While universities may provide international education, the presence in large numbers of international students does not necessarily suggest that the university experience is internationalised. Riverina effectively shuts down in the evenings and on the weekends, predominantly due to its urban location. In contrast, Midwestern has the advantage of a significant portion of the student population living on campus, with compulsory on campus living in first year undergraduate programs. In addition, it is situated in a small, university town. Students generally live within the borders of the municipal city. They come to the city to be educated at the university and hence have an opportunity to participate in and develop a stronger relationship with the university and a connection with the location itself. Nonetheless, domestic and international students at Midwestern felt that more effort could be made within the university to promote social interaction between groups. As one international student commented, “If we just wanted to learn, we may as well learn at home, locally. But I wanted to learn here and experience the
culture and interaction with the locals as well. There are not sufficient opportunities to do that. Not really. I would like to see casual gatherings and get togethers.”

This research found that the majority of domestic and international students were open to social interaction opportunities but there were limiting factors previously mentioned that prevented the enhancement of these relationships. These included cultural expectations, likes and dislikes, outside work commitments and the ever present feeling for international students of being in the minority. There is no question that personal, cultural interaction can change pre-existing attitudes and assumptions about those who are culturally the “other”. The difficulties that universities face in relation to fostering social interaction are demonstrated in this research. As one international undergraduate at Riverina commented, “Essentially, the locals want to mix with people with whom they can communicate better. It is their choice. It would be nice if the Australians and the Asians could mix.” Not only do individuals who come to the university have to face the issues stated above, but they also must consider the necessity or the choice to adapt to the culture they find themselves in. As one graduate student stated, “We have to adapt to everything. It was very hard. It was a struggle. I was demoralised. I needed more time to become familiar with the way of speaking.” This is one component of the internationalisation of the campus that is complex. As one domestic student pointed out, “I definitely noticed quite a lot in my lectures that there would be a group of Asian students and then you see all the white kids and I remember thinking, I know it seems silly but I think that is a distinction that is held by both groups. It is really that stark contrast between where people are sitting.”
In addition to the issues of curriculum and social interaction, there are practical barriers that international students face upon their arrival at a host institution. The university website portal for international students provides a beginning for both campuses for information on support services. With some residential colleges without adequate space at Riverina, services were deemed by international student participants to be inadequate in this area. International students on both campuses agreed that the provision of or affordable supply of available housing accommodation was a real issue. Midwestern has graduate housing available on campus but the general perception was that these accommodations were directed toward graduate families, whether domestic or international. These concerns were predominantly expressed by international students. One exception was the experience of an international graduate student where a Riverina faculty member took the responsibility of finding an incoming international graduate student accommodation in close proximity to the university. As one administrator at Riverina stated, since these are adults coming to the university, how much responsibility should the university take for personal arrangements? Operating as an urban campus, Riverina does not have the same infrastructure that has been developed at Midwestern. In this location at Riverina, rental properties in close proximity are in high demand and are expensive. At the time of this research the city development around Midwestern provided more opportunities for housing but nonetheless, accommodation in close proximity is expensive, just like Riverina.

The expense incurred for international students was widely recognised by all participants but the financial struggle was more pronounced for international students at Riverina because of the lack of suitable employment locally. Midwestern international students are generally employed on campus, in accordance with visa regulations. As
discussed previously, Riverina as an urban campus simply does not have the infrastructure developed from having people on campus 24 hours a day. International students at Riverina predominantly have to find employment off campus. This creates tensions and further difficulties for these students in completing their degree. One graduate international student at Riverina described the humiliation she felt in having to clean people’s houses early in the mornings while completing a higher degree. In addition to the basic living arrangements, international students highlighted the disparity in access to scholarships. International students at both universities felt that there were many opportunities available for domestic students to obtain forms of funding, either externally or through the university on both campuses. There was one exception at Riverina, with an international graduate student who was the recipient of an IPRS (International Research Scholarship) that provided her with a stipend and tuition waiver which made her financial position less tenuous than her peers. Students in both countries must demonstrate a capacity to pay for their degree prior to their arrival, so it is not the tuition costs but the cost of living expenses incurred by students throughout the course of their degree that is at issue for many of these students.

One issue that was highlighted at Riverina with increasing international student enrolments was the provision of physical space, facilities and resources. There was without question a premium on physical space at both universities, particularly for graduate students. This does not just apply to international students. Access to facilities and resources overall at Riverina for both domestic and international students was perceived to be down to luck: luck in which department you happened to be doing your study, and in what resources each department had available. Neither domestic nor international students at Midwestern expressed the same level of concern about
available resources. Perhaps this is for two reasons. Because many students live on
campus, Midwestern has had to provide services and resources to all students. They
have developed these services in response to the demand and need. A significant portion
of the main library is open 24 hours at Midwestern. At Riverina, while many
international students may live in close proximity to the university, many like their
domestic student counterparts do not. Nonetheless, some international students at
Riverina expressed concern about the limited library opening hours and research
resources. Several of their domestic counterparts agreed with them, with one domestic
student observing, “International students here, all the work they do is here. The
resources are critical. I am aware of the difficulties.”

While there was recognition that in general physical space at Riverina is at a premium,
the increasing Muslim population has created a particular problem. Prayer facilities at
Riverina were deemed inadequate by Muslim international students and observed to be
so by domestic students too. Muslim students said that while the prayer room
accommodates eighty people, there can often be upward of two hundred Muslims
present at prayer time. As mentioned in Chapter Six, students experienced difficulties
when events caused the prayer room to be closed to female students. Students having to
pray in their work spaces created difficulties both for the international student sharing
this work place and for the non-Muslim domestic students who shared the office. A
male domestic student relayed this experience which created difficulties for him:

This particular lady prays several times a day. In a room of seven people there
just isn’t room for that, so she rolls out her prayer mat, puts on the garment that
covers the whole body, a special prayer garment and does her prayer between
her seat and my seat. I found that distracting but it is such a delicate area so I
didn’t raise it with her. I talked to the administration people about it and I talked
with the post grad student association as to how I might deal with it. They didn’t
have any suggestions and they didn’t want to touch it themselves, either. It is
obviously a delicate area and no one wants to cause offence.
Not one domestic or international student at Midwestern raised this as a concern. Perhaps this was due to the community resources available in close proximity to Midwestern. Many of the issues raised by students with regard to support services at Riverina are addressed at Midwestern due its location and the availability of on campus or near campus accommodation. As mentioned previously, Midwestern has had to respond to the needs and demands of students residing on campus, whereas due to the lack of residential housing on campus, Riverina has not.

**Conclusion**

While both Riverina and Midwestern have changed their mission statements to move toward greater internationalisation, the universities have had to adapt to the changing global environment and the changing policy frameworks in which their nations operate. There are, as identified here, competing discourses regarding the utilisation of the obtained financial resources. Yet, as stated, internationalisation of the university campus goes beyond economic goals. There are clear goals to internationalise both campuses and a genuine preparedness from the top tier administrators who participated in the interviews to learn from the experiences and perceptions of members of their institutions. There is a genuine desire to support cultural diversity and go beyond the economic goals achieved through many of the internationalisation strategies.

These universities are public institutions that have adopted globalising business practices in their research intensive institutions, and one example of this is their internationalisation. Not only have they adapted to the changing global environment but they have also attempted to maintain their former scholarly and cultural goals. It is the
ideologies behind these attempts that are essentially in conflict. Raising money is business practice. Education at its core is not. The internationalisation goals have become much broader than historically in these universities to encompass the economic dimension of the global environment in which these universities operate. As discussed earlier, though, globalisation is not just about economics and hence both Riverina and Midwestern have attempted to promote broader internationalisation strategies and enact these through their strategic plans. These international dimensions of welcoming international students were a part of each university’s history, but of critical importance was the development of the driving mission of universities – is education all about money or do they have alternative goals? Can there be a happy marriage of the broader internationalisation goals or do they conflict with the financial aims at universities? As evidenced by the mission statements and strategic goals of these universities, a clear goal based on educational not primarily economic goals is crucial to guide each university’s, and ultimately each nation’s, international educational activities.

With the economic direction of governments and universities, higher education has morphed into a user pays, marketable commodity (Volet 1997). One conflict emerges when, for example, Riverina moved towards a user pays system for international students. Those who are paying for their degree want to see the end product and the provision of adequate services while completing their degree. A faculty member at Riverina commented that if students are paying for their degree, it becomes a question of what services the student will receive in the process and if they are receiving value for the money that they are spending. Does paying for one’s education make a difference to the commitment of those students who are paying for their degree upfront versus those who will pay by a deferred system? Domestic and international students
interviewed alike agreed that it does, particularly at Riverina. One domestic graduate student believed that international students were not getting their money’s worth, “Those international students who do not access any of those things [services on campus] are not getting their money’s worth.” An international student concluded that, “To be successful, to be able to be international, you must be able to be [provided with services] because otherwise there will not be a good university relationship. They should be supportive to minimise the difficulty facing international students. At the end of the day the relationship will be there, going back with a doctorate is something that there will be creditability, it is an ongoing thing.” These opinions also relate to the possibility of alumni looking favourably on their alma mater in terms of reputation and in donations.

User pays for the majority of faculty members at Riverina was also an issue of value for money as well as the expectations students have of the faculty members and the resources available to them if students are paying out of their own pocket, “I am getting nervous,” commented one Riverina arts faculty member, “I have two full fee paying international students and they terrify me because why would you want to spend all that money on getting a Masters or PhD that cannot assure you of a job anywhere in the world? PhDs always take longer, they cost more money. I am very nervous. These students wanted to do their degree with me, they didn’t get scholarships, and they are paying for it.”

These perspectives show that internationalisation strategies are more than transnational programs, collaborations and research links. The on campus experiences of the participants in this phenomenon of internationalising campuses have not only a vested
interest in this process but are able to provide pertinent observations for administrators involved in this process. For the majority of the faculty members and for domestic and international students, education is about seeking wisdom, not seeking cash.
Chapter Ten

Conclusion: The Way Forward

Globalisation brought with it many tools for universities to internationalise at a rapid rate – mobility, the internet, global media and communication. As outlined in Chapters One and Two, globalisation and internationalisation are complex concepts and often interrelated. Internationalisation of higher education and hence university campuses is not just about globalisation and globalisation is not simply about internationalising the university campuses. The nexus has been created by government reduction in funding of universities and the thinking about these two phenomena when discussing them with members on these campuses. There are layers of internationalisation strategies developed and utilised on campuses. At the core of these internationalisation strategies is the campus life experience.

Universities have attempted through the implementation of their internationalisation strategies to strike a balance of internationalisation on campus. Universities accelerated their internationalisation strategies particularly through recruitment, linkages and transnational programs. The globalisation tools provided opportunities for expansion but brought pressures, particularly for faculty members with increased levels of commitment with students, increases in offshore teaching and transnational agreements.
These pressures to adapt brought about changing expectations of universities from policy makers, university administrators and students in a globalising world.

The broader internationalisation strategies of an international education and cultural diversity have been attempted on university campuses. The difficulty in the long term for Riverina and Midwestern is that if the investment made by students is not perceived to be returned or demonstrated in the services provided on campus, it might result in a negative perception that these universities are not delivering on a significant component of their internationalisation goals. The quality of the ‘product’ may be in jeopardy. As a consequence, if there is a drop in student satisfaction, this will have an adverse economic effect in achieving one aspect of the internationalisation goal of increasing international student enrolment. Students were not dissatisfied with their educational experience per se, but they did make observations as discussed previously about their international education and social experiences, as well as the services on campus. These are discordant with the perceptions of administrators, particularly at Riverina. There are limits to successful cultural integration and achieving cultural diversity on campuses, yet the participants of this study observed the areas which could provide for more successful implementation of internationalisation strategies on campus. In light of these observations, this chapter looks forward to questions for further research and implications for policy and practice at national and institutional levels.
Implications for policy

Global economies and the fluctuating economic environment will influence the way in which Australia and the US operate in the longer term. Interrelationships of economics and politics illustrate that education is not a neutral activity. It is one that is connected to multiple relations, a field that is “unified around the objectives of understanding better the traditions of one’s own system of education by studying those of others and assessing issues from a global perspective” (Apple as cited in Biraimah 2003:428). If the internationalisation of higher education is the goal of nations and universities, then it should be fundamental to the nation’s and the university’s social, cultural and economic engagement.

Over the last decade Australian universities have made considerable steps towards internationalising their campuses. This has come with government support as the number of educated internationals has increased onshore and offshore. Australian policies have encouraged the application of business models to the higher education sector over the last two decades. A unified policy strategy is not present in US policy on international education. Unlike the US, as previously discussed, Australia has both the luck and the misfortune of a federally controlled higher education sector. This brings with it many opportunities for unified change but a much more overt reliance or subjection to the external factors such as national education policy, unlike the state by state education changes in the US.

Australia has deliberately developed an export industry via international education. It is explicitly related to the economics of the nation since it is the third highest export
earner. International reforms have been undertaken and implemented in an endeavour to foster national competition in the development of an export industry (Sidhu 2006). Once supplementary to public funding, international education has become a substitute for it as expressed by Marginson, “Soft money, hard dependence” (2008:1). Whereas organisations within the US recognise the contribution to the economy of international students, the emphasis there is on finding cheap labour with international graduate students as key contributors to the research productivity of the university and consequently the nation. The funding arrangement of the Area Learning Centres in the US is a means of obtaining income from the federal government and is subject to federal policies in this area. Yet the focus of recent US policy developments, which have more directly impacted on universities, has been immigration issues. These have been directly correlated with national security with the adverse effect of reducing international student numbers nationwide following the implementation of stricter visa policies.

To achieve internationalisation of Australian universities, this research suggests changes at the federal government level. The federal government should continue its promotion of Australia abroad through agreements with foreign governments and institutions. It must also continue to work with universities to reach an understanding and common goal as to what internationalising their campus can mean to them and their place in their community. This entails support for universities to include curriculum goals of international studies in student courses where relevant. The tension arises in attempts to provide a balance in curriculum content of local and international interests.

To work toward greater internationalisation of US universities, the US might consider how to develop a comprehensive outreach strategy to expand offshore programs. These
programs could be used to augment international outreach programs through increases in US funding. The most pertinent impediment for international scholars and students are the visa issues faced by them prior to entry and during their stay in the US. At the time of this research, post 9/11, many of the international students were sensitive to their ‘foreign’ status. One method to increase understanding may be to bolster international, foreign language and area expertise in order to find a basis to welcome international students, encourage study abroad for longer periods in more diverse non-English speaking countries and strengthen scholarly exchange programs.

There is also a need in the US to consider assigning specific roles to appropriate federal agencies and to create an interagency working group to ensure that polices and regulations affecting international education are consistent and coherent. There is a plethora of organisations devoted to or encompassing international education but no integrated approach.

The continued development of an international knowledge based economy can have far reaching effects for both nations. The move from a reliance on manufacturing industries to a knowledge economy will have implications for higher education in the relevance of curricula and modes of delivery. Yet to survive in the global marketplace, both nations will need to consider how to extend relationships to include more source countries and broaden the disciplines they offer international students as well as improve the quality of their curricula and extra curricular programs.
**Implications for practice**

The following discussion provides thoughts on possible ways to further internationalise higher education campuses. There is no uniform approach that can be applied to all university campuses but there are patterns detailed here which can be beneficial to both universities studied as well as to other higher education institutions that are considering or reconsidering their internationalisation strategies. In the end, each university must decide what its market can be and how to utilise its expertise in relation to the marketplace (Cunningham 1988).

Both universities have embraced their international traditions and history and made every effort to accelerate the internationalisation of their campuses. These universities, just like their peers, cannot be separated from their nation states. They are influenced by and have had to respond to the national policies. Interdependence of nations has become more and more explicit economically in the last decade therefore shifting relationships of collaboration and competition. This has encouraged universities to adopt a different strategic mission than that to which they were historically accustomed. In a world where global movement is now much more commonplace, where technology has enabled world wide instant communication, internationalising university campuses is logical and necessary.

To have success in internationalising the campus, universities might consider an overarching strategic plan that encompasses internationalisation, as Riverina University does and Midwestern is developing further. The principal differences in the opinions of the groups that were part of this research were in relation to the implementation of the strategies. On campus experiences directly related to student experiences were deemed
to be inadequate. Some faculty and all administrators did not know of or were unwilling
to admit the gaps in services and programs. The development of the culture of
internationalisation, one where internationalisation strategies are not peripheral but
integrated into every facet and function of the universities, were deemed to be the most
relevant and critical not only for international students but domestic students as well.
The main criticism was that internationalising the campus experience is not a strategy
that should be peripheral to the benefits of internationalisation such as alliances,
transnational programs and recruitment and enrolment of international students, but a
conscious action for internationalisation to become integrated across all levels and all
areas of the university and at the core of university function.

The gap discussed by Green (2002) between institutional rhetoric on internationalisation
and its realisation in institutional practices, policies and culture was considered. These
universities have made a concerted effort to deliberately create a culture that embodies
their goals, where internationalisation is “lived rather than spoken about” (Green
2002:19). Campuses such as Riverina and Midwestern have moved on multiple fronts
and not just spoken about their intentions but lived them out through promoting faculty
engagement, providing faculty development resources, developing cultural
opportunities through various mediums (lecture series, film festivals, cultural festivals),
providing study abroad and international learning for incoming students in their
orientation.

Overall policies must include measurement of progress and changes to curriculum as
key in order to achieve internationalisation goals of domestic and international students
and for the institutions themselves (Wortman 2002). In order for students do be
successful in an international environment, Sadlak (2001), Hayward (2000), NAFSA
Green (2002) and Siaya and Hayward (2003) argue that institutions will have to expand their internationalisation strategies. To do so, Green and Olson (ACE: 2003) outlined a User’s guide for internationalising the campus noting that internationalising a campus is more than just in name but overall policies with measurement of progress and curriculum as key (Wortman 2002). Volet (1997) argues that internationalisation of the curriculum requires the collaboration of all parties to promote international education at their institution. Trubek (2001:312) also argues that there is a need to be innovative and to refocus on new needs of students and “restructure the alliances on which interdisciplinary enterprise is built.” These initiatives include the development of global studies programs that deal with comparative cultures, global topics and cross-regional issues.

It is clear that the sheer presence of international students alone is not an effective strategy for internationalisation of the university campus. Internationalisation must be embedded in the everyday function of university operations for it to be successful. It must be explicit in the university’s mission and specific strategies must be outlined to attain the goal. Internationalisation needs to be a whole university approach, one that is embedded in all facets of a university. To implement internationalisation across the whole institution, considerable attention should be given to curriculum issues and the development of liberal arts, language programs and area studies to make global education pervasive throughout the curriculum. Volet (1999) proposes that part of the internationalisation strategies of an institution should be the incorporation of teaching that has intercultural dimensions. This approach enables academics to address social interaction issues through pedagogy that uses different communication skills in different learning formats. To do this, universities may need to consider the possibility of making
significant shifts in the delivery of their curriculum in some areas. While acknowledging that there are local issues and that the curriculum will need to maintain its local dimension, at the same time the curriculum can incorporate international elements. These universities function in their nation states, but curriculum changes should be considered if universities wish to work towards globally oriented scholarship. The desire to implement an international curriculum, with its opportunity for exposure within an educational setting to different concepts and understandings, can go beyond curriculum issues and should include attracting students and supporting inter-cultural understanding. Both groups are responsible to begin the process of social cohesion. Arguably this can begin with approaches taken by universities and internationalising the curricula and recognising the role of the curriculum as a powerful tool.

Supporting an inter-cultural understanding could be addressed in a variety of ways as an extension of curriculum approaches. One effective mechanism to work towards globally oriented scholarship is exchange programs. A productive strategy to achieve the goals of internationalisation could be further development of study abroad programs. Study abroad obviously has many benefits but if one of the goals of institutions is to prepare students to participate in a global economy, then study abroad becomes much more of a necessity in an era of globalisation.

To build in greater support networks, particularly for English language development, is a priority. Support of students both pre study and during the process, at all stages of a degree, is crucial. Facilities like an English skill centre, a writing lab where international students can get their assignments checked to correct the grammar, or language assistants to support and to train international students in writing are
possibilities. This service could also provide more support for presentation skills, both written and oral.

On both campuses it was suggested that a welcome wagon might be organised by students. It would provide a smiling face at the airport to greet international students upon their arrival. This could involve carrying bags for people who have been on a flight, getting them some food, making sure that their accommodation is available. This is a precursor to the beginning of the student’s stay on campus and this would supplement the international student orientation week organised and hosted by the international office on each campus. To assist with orientation week, students suggested that easier language could be used for signs around campus. One suggestion was to change the emphasis from the first week orientation, when it seems irrelevant at the time for international students, to a more integrated approach, where events for different nationalities could be targeted throughout the year in addition to an introduction of available services in the first week.

Riverina has an undergraduate mentoring program for all first year students which is introduced in the orientation period. This is something that could be introduced at Midwestern as there were many domestic students who were willing to be involved in this kind of support but there was no formal structure in place. This program provides someone who can answer the ‘stupid questions’, as one student coined it and can help with coping skills. These include the fundamentals of surviving somewhere, providing adequate support in finding day care, doctors and dentists, rental housing, especially for people who are accompanied by family members who are not proficient in English. These practical considerations raise a legitimate question as to how much of that should
be handled by the university, or how much should be taken on by an arriving international student. An opportunity to participate in a mentoring program could be the first step at orientation in establishing relationships and could be expanded to all incoming students, regardless of whether the students are domestic or international, and regardless of level of degree. This would allow for discussion of concerns in their initial time away from their home country – these may include discussing frustrations, confusions or seeking information. This too could include small group discussions, where international students communicate and talk about problems that they are having on campus and in the wider community.

For these internationalisation strategies to be successful on campus, institutional support is crucial. It should not be assumed that faculty are aware of what services are available, nor should a university assume that if it passed all the information on to international students at an orientation that that is sufficient. Services need to be provided continually and staff members need to be employed who become specialists in these services. A support network must permanently be present for those who require it. This direction requires specialised administrative staff that supports all aspects of international education. These individuals have knowledge about overseas operations, funding and interdepartmental cooperation. With these dedicated staff, internationalisation can become embedded in the university. Obviously increasing staff numbers has wider ramifications for the university, as placement of staff in one area may reduce staffing in another.

Many support services and programs are in place but domestic and international students alike perceived that information about them was not always available. Publicity
of the university’s approaches and programs is crucial. Public forums and communications can be used to infiltrate people’s consciousness for internationalisation to become part of the identity of the institution. Networks that are established within universities and across borders can allow for these approaches to develop. At Midwestern, two faculty members, one from the sciences and another from education, noted that there was an approach but it was top down. They perceived that these approaches do not occur in a vacuum but must be bottom up and top down. The conclusion is that these strategies will not succeed if they do not become integrated, that is if all levels of the university are not involved collaboratively in their development, implementation and evaluation.

As discussed previously, in a user pays system, international and domestic students were critical of the services provided and the value for money that international students were receiving. Hence, in the case of these two universities, it appears to be a matter of how resources are allocated rather than simply providing more resources. As discussed earlier, at Riverina, both international and domestic students perceived that international students were not getting their value for money. In 2006, Riverina received $38 million in international student fees. In a user-pays system, students are looking for value for money. Assessment of the allocation of these resources and perhaps their better utilisation may impact on student perceptions. Student satisfaction is one indicator of the success of the internationalisation programs.

Evaluation of student satisfaction is a key. Each university uses a student engagement survey. These surveys, already in place at Midwestern, and introduced at Riverina in the period of this research and modified on each occasion that they are administered,
provide the opportunity to collect valuable data for higher education institutions. Surveys such as these can provide universities with comparable data across the globe and enhance the implementation of their internationalisation strategies and inform the review of their own strategic plans in light of their national policy contexts.

**Reflecting on theory**

Globalising has become embedded in nations’ operating methods and frameworks and in university practices. As this thesis detailed, globalisation provided the impetus to accelerate the internationalisation of universities. For internationalisation to be successful and effective, it must be systemic. Resource dependence is an appropriate mechanism to examine the level of change in universities as a response to government policy. It allows for an exploration of the changing external factors that had an impact on each institution. Central to this theory is that most institutions are not independent of external organisations such as governments. Diversification of resources has become a necessity. This may take different forms and requires the development of different subunits in order for the organisation as a whole to function effectively. These universities have developed existing internationalisation strategies and established new ones. There has been the creation of research institutes to obtain income, academic units to serve disciplinary interests, and various student and community service units to meet the demands of those groups. With this diversification comes a degree of autonomy for universities in their desire to become less dependent on the resources provided by government.
Resource dependence theory was used in this research to examine the internationalisation responses of universities to their environments. The effectiveness of the university’s internationalisation strategies and their ability to create acceptable outcomes and actions was determined by the perspectives of internal key informants. The success of the internationalisation strategies was an internal assessment of the usefulness of the resources by the universities. Resource dependence theory was one mechanism I used to unlock the structures and understand the changes in two universities.

The policy chapters discussed Australian and US policies in the national and local contexts and their move toward diversification of their economies to seek new resources. Administrators of the two campuses were quite aware of the responses required by their universities and how government policies shaped institutional policies and created conditions for resource dependence (Slaughter and Leslie 1997; Sporn 1999).

Resource dependence theory also illuminated the struggle of the distribution of the resources between the different interested parties on both campuses. The different perspectives proffered by administrators in comparison to faculty members, domestic and international students provided an exposure of the divisions that exist at these universities in relation to the success of the internationalisation strategies and their meaning for the participants. This thesis indicates, as Pfeffer and Salancik (1978) state, that the definitions and perceptions of the required resources can change and do so as organisations adapt to their environments. Resource dependence theory allowed for the
examination of the policies and the new environments that these universities were required to respond to.

**Reflecting on methodology**

The case study approach allowed me to examine the macro and micro issues that had an impact on Riverina and Midwestern. Macro issues were seen as those which impacted on the national process of policy making. Micro issues referred to throughout the study were those at the university level, and more specifically those that pertained to the impact of policies on individuals who are part of the institution. There was an explicit relationship between the different levels and contexts of the policy process with a balance between the macro policies and the micro processes.

This macro/micro study employed several methods – collection and analysis of international, government and university policy documents, international, national and site specific statistics, reports and key stakeholders accounts on campuses to contextualise each university within their national setting. Micro issues were examined at the university level with data collected from key stakeholders.

This research used a case study approach to study the university sites. The case study method proved to be a useful tool to gain insights into the phenomena affecting the participants. Participants were selected from the university’s populations at different levels and in different fields. Similar departments were selected in both universities, for example, education, business, music, law and departments within the arts and sciences. This methodological approach proved beneficial in gaining a cross section of
viewpoints and an opportunity for comparison between the universities. Additionally, my own experiences of adapting to a new environment by moving country and my involvement in a different higher education system provided an understanding of the interview responses.

The obvious limitation in any international site visit is time. Although the reflections of some participants at both universities were longitudinal as they reflected on their time at the university, the time on site in Australia at Riverina was short, compared with Midwestern where I was able to be present and live in the community for some time. Hence it was not possible to involve the same number of participants in both locations. Additionally, the onsite data was gathered in significantly different time periods predominantly due to my part/time enrolment status.

Further questions

Some issues and further questions arose from my research. Closer examination of universities is required to establish how, in their policies on internationalisation, each institution chooses to position itself in a globally competitive economy. What obstacles do universities face in their local economies from local and/or regional competitors to recruit international students? How does a university market itself to certain geographical areas – how can it decide which areas best suit the nature of the institution and its history? How can universities diversify their income base? How can universities decide what it is exactly that they want to market to potential international students? What are the overall motivations to do so–income generation or broad international goals that encompass cultural diversity, social interaction and an international
curriculum, and how can these be balances or integrated with each other? These closer examinations will provide information on the different frameworks and patterns and processes developed by higher education institutions across the globe.

Universities have the opportunity to acknowledge cultural diversity to foster intercultural understanding. In doing so a further examination of university sites could elicit viewpoints on cultural diversity: Do students and faculty on campuses wish to embrace differences as a consequence of the presence of international students and faculty members? Alternatively, are international students and faculty required to adapt to the culture they find themselves in or not?

Interaction between international and domestic students is more at the graduate level in the US and at the undergraduate level in Australia. As universities actively pursue international student enrolments, should there be a promotion of undergraduate program numbers in the US to encourage interaction between international and domestic students at an earlier stage in their university experience? Should Australia place greater emphasis on recruiting postgraduate students?

International students bring their own experiences of learning. Further research is required to assess to what extent students should adapt to the way of learning at their host institution. Should the education that all students receive be a mono cultural education or a globally diverse one?

The disciplinary differences are underrepresented in research on internationalisation as there are considerable differences between approaches, rationales and strategies of
institutions and disciplines themselves (de Wit 2002). There is an argument for further research in this area to understand the complexities of different disciplines and their approaches to internationalisation. This research indicates that there are different perspectives on internationalisation in different disciplines, such as the arts compared to the sciences, and further research on the influence of academic discipline responses to internationalisation is warranted (Lub 2007). Knowledge is disciplinary based but as O’Regan (2001) asks, how can it be constructed and implemented in the global context?

Further questions emerge in considering the orientation services provided to international students. Should information be provided to potential international students in various languages?

In the enrolment of international students, should the same entry requirements be applied to international students as to domestic students? If universities are increasing enrolments of international students, who should provide support for faculty members when their workload increases as a consequence of the shifting enrolment patterns?

Student perspectives may differ depending on the length of residence. There are several types of international students – those who have been in their host country for a while and those for a short time. Gathering opinions and perspectives from international students upon their arrival and tracking their progress and experiences throughout their stay on a campus would provide a longitudinal perspective which would no doubt enrich knowledge of the student experience. Additionally, is dissatisfaction more prominent in a user pays system?

This thesis aimed to explore the ways in which internationalisation strategies have accelerated in the Australian and US context. These two systems of higher education
have much in common and there are always lessons to learn. Nonetheless, as mentioned elsewhere throughout this work, it is the differences that also encourage us to consider the alternatives. These universities have successfully embraced the benefits of globalisation yet have had to respond to the changing policy environments by enacting changes to their mission statements, and in their practices, through their internationalisation strategies. Participants at Riverina acknowledged the need of the university to be able to function in a federally driven system in a period of rapid change. For participants at Midwestern, it was in fact the overriding reactive immigration and security issues that created policy changes and had an impact on the productivity of the university and its efforts to internationalise.

These findings have important implications for the internationalisation of universities worldwide, not just in Australia and the US. Globalisation needs internationalisation, for it is not what impact globalisation has but what response it generates that counts. With the changes in public education systems worldwide, there has been an increased role of market forces. Countries and university campuses have their own histories and traditions. The role of the nation state has changed considerably but it is the differences, as well as the similarities, that make internationalisation such a powerful mechanism and an opportunity for all involved in the process to gain cross cultural understanding.
Appendix A

Consent Letter – US
Dear Professor,

I am a Doctor of Philosophy student at Murdoch University, Australia/US investigating responses to globalisation practices in Higher Education in Australia/US and the United States of America.

I would value your help in this study by consenting to take part in an interview. It is anticipated that the time required for the interview would take no more than thirty minutes. The interview will contain questions about policy changes at the university, the university’s role in response to globalisation and the internationalization of universities. All information gathered for this research is confidential and no names or other information that might identify you will be used in any publication arising from the research. If you wish, feedback on the study will be provided to you upon completion of the research.

If you are willing to participate in the study, would you please complete the details below. If you have any questions about this project please feel free to contact either myself (Anne-Maree Ruddy), on 339 6143 or email 30156504@student.murdoch.edu.au or my supervisors, A/Professor Jan Currie on 011 61 8 93602377 or email currie@central.murdoch.edu.au or A/Professor Don Smart, on 011 61 8 9360 2325 or email smart@central.murdoch.edu.au.

My supervisors and I are happy to discuss with you any concerns you may have on how this study has been conducted, or alternatively you can contact Murdoch University’s Human Research Ethics Committee on 011 61 8 9360 6677 or email ethics@central.murdoch.edu.au.

I……………………………………………………..have read the information above. Any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to take part in this activity, however, I know that I may change my mind and stop at any time.

I understand that all information provided is treated as confidential and will not be released by the investigator unless required to do so by law.

I agree for this interview to be taped.

I agree that research data gathered for this study may be published provided my name or other identifying information which might identify me is not used.

Participant signature: ________________________________

Date: ____________________________________________________________________

Investigator: Anne-Maree Ruddy

Date: ____________________________________________________________________
Appendix B

Consent Letter – Australia
Dear Participant,

I am a Doctor of Philosophy student at Murdoch University, Australia/US investigating responses to globalisation practices in Higher Education in Australia/US and the United States of America.

I would value your help in this study by consenting to take part in an interview. It is anticipated that the time required for the interview would take no more than thirty minutes. The interview will contain questions about policy changes at the university, the university’s role in response to globalisation and the internationalization of universities. All information gathered for this research is confidential and no names or other information that might identify you will be used in any publication arising from the research. If you wish, feedback on the study will be provided to you upon completion of the research.

If you are willing to participate in the study, would you please complete the details below. If you have any questions about this project please feel free to contact either myself (Anne-Maree Ruddy), on 0011 1 812 339 6143 or email 30156504@student.murdoch.edu.au or my supervisors, A/Professor Jan Currie on 93602377 or email currie@central.murdoch.edu.au or Dr Jane Pearce on 9360 7021 or email at J.Pearce@murdoch.edu.au

My supervisors and I are happy to discuss with you any concerns you may have on how this study has been conducted, or alternatively you can contact Murdoch University’s Human Research Ethics Committee on 9360 6677 or email ethics@central.murdoch.edu.au.

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I……………………………………………………..have read the information above. Any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to take part in this activity, however, I know that I may change my mind and stop at any time.

I understand that all information provided is treated as confidential and will not be released by the investigator unless required to do so by law.

I agree for this interview to be taped.

I agree that research data gathered for this study may be published provided my name or other identifying information which might identify me is not used.

Participant signature: _______________________________________________________

Date: _______________________________________________________________________

Investigator: Anne-Maree Ruddy

Date: _______________________________________________________________________
Appendix C

Administrator Interview Protocol
Midwestern/Riverina Administrator Interview Protocol

Globalisation

How has Midwestern/Riverina responded to decreases in State funding?

Does your university encourage a commitment to entrepreneurial activity and private income raising? If so, how?

In your Mission Statement, it is stipulated that the university will provide for the development of skills necessary to adapt and excel in a changing world. How does your university prepare faculty and students for an international environment?

OR

In the university Mission Statement, it is stated that the university will: advance, transmit and sustain knowledge and understanding through the conduct of teaching, research and scholarship at the highest international standards...How does your school/department achieve this goal?

The International Market

Has there been a push toward getting international students?

Has your university been influenced by Federal or State policies in relation to internationalization? If yes, in what way has your university been influenced by such policies?

Has there been an increase in the number of international faculty over the last decade?

In your opinion is there sufficient international research and faculty exchange?

The number of enrolments of international students at your university has increased steadily over the past few years. What do you perceive are the overriding factors in this increase?

Do you perceive that there have been changes to international enrolments since 9/11?
- preferences to different nationalities?
- visa processing problems?
Will this debilitate enrolments in the future?

Would you consider Midwestern/Riverina to have an international ethos?

- do you think that Midwestern/Riverina has a mission to serve international students?
- in what ways do you see international students benefiting Midwestern/Riverina?
-what do the international students bring to Midwestern/Riverina?
-has the international student enrolment encouraged cultural diversity on campus?
-has the international student enrolment encouraged respect for diversity?

Has Midwestern/Riverina accommodated international students?

-has there been an effort to internationalise the curriculum?
-have you changed programs?
-added support services such as ESL programs, cross-cultural counselling services, special orientation programs?

Do the extra fees that international students pay cover the cost of services provided?

If the level of international students continues to increase, what would Midwestern/Riverina have to do cater for this increase?

What would you like to see as the international role of universities in society in the future?
Appendix D

Dean Interview Protocol
Midwestern/Riverina Administrator Interview Protocol

Globalisation

How has Midwestern/Riverina responded to decreases in State funding?

Does your university encourage a commitment to entrepreneurial activity and private income raising? If so, how?

In your Mission Statement, it is stipulated that the university will provide for the development of skills necessary to adapt and excel in a changing world. How does your university prepare faculty and students for an international environment?

OR

In the university Mission Statement, it is stated that the university will: *advance, transmit and sustain knowledge and understanding through the conduct of teaching, research and scholarship at the highest international standards*...How does your school/department achieve this goal?

The International Market

Has there been a push toward getting international students?

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Has there been an increase in the number of international faculty over the last decade?

In your opinion is there sufficient international research and faculty exchange?

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Do you perceive that there have been changes to international enrolments since 9/11?

- preferences to different nationalities?
- visa processing problems?
Will this debilitate enrolments in the future?

Would you consider Midwestern/Riverina to have an international ethos?

- do you think that Midwestern/Riverina has a mission to serve international students?
- in what ways do you see international students benefiting Midwestern/Riverina?
- what do the international students bring to Midwestern/Riverina?
- has the international student enrolment encouraged cultural diversity on campus?
- has the international student enrolment encouraged respect for diversity?

Has Midwestern/Riverina accommodated international students?

- has there been an effort to internationalise the curriculum?
- have you changed programs?
- added support services such as ESL programs, cross-cultural counselling services, special orientation programs?

Do the extra fees that international students pay cover the cost of services provided?

If the level of international students continues to increase, what would Midwestern/Riverina have to do cater for this increase?

What would you like to see as the international role of universities in society in the future?
Appendix E

Faculty Interview Protocol
Midwestern/Riverina Faculty Interview Protocol

Globalisation

Has your school/department been affected and if so, responded to decreases in funding?

Does your school/department encourage a commitment to entrepreneurial activity and private income raising? If so, how?

In your Mission Statement, it is stipulated that the university will provide for the development of skills necessary to adapt and excel in a changing world. How does your university prepare faculty and students for an international environment?

OR

In the university Mission Statement, it is stated that the university will: advance, transmit and sustain knowledge and understanding through the conduct of teaching, research and scholarship at the highest international standards... How does your school/department achieve this goal?

The International Market

Do you perceive that there has been an increase in your school/department of the number of international faculty over the last decade?

Is there a policy in your school/department to support the appointment of minorities? If yes, how effective is this policy?

In your opinion is there sufficient international research and faculty exchange?

The number of enrolments of international students at your university has increased steadily over the past few years. What do you perceive are the overriding factors in this increase?

Do you perceive an increase in the recruitment of international students?

Do you perceive that there have been changes to international enrolments since 9/11 in your school/department?
  -preferences to different nationalities?
  -visa processing problems?
Would you consider your school/department to have an international ethos?
   - do you think that your school/department has a mission to serve international students?
   - in what ways do you see international students benefiting your school/department?
   - has the international student enrolment encouraged cultural diversity in your school/department?

Has your school/department accommodated international students?
   - has there been an effort to internationalise the curriculum?
   - are the changes to curriculum to promote an international awareness for domestic students?
   - have you changed programmes?
   - added support services?

If the level of international students continues to increase, what would your school/department have to do cater for this increase?

What would you like to see as the international role of universities in society in the future?
Appendix F

International Offices Interview Protocol
Midwestern/Riverina International Offices Interview Protocol

Globalisation

Has your office been affected and if so, responded to decreases in funding?

Is there an independent commitment to entrepreneurial activity and private income raising in your office? If so, how?

In your Mission Statement, it is stipulated that the university will provide for the development of skills necessary to adapt and excel in a changing world. How does your university prepare faculty and students for an international environment?

OR

In the university Mission Statement, it is stated that the university will: *advance, transmit and sustain knowledge and understanding through the conduct of teaching, research and scholarship at the highest international standards*...How does your school/department achieve this goal?

The International Market

Has there been an increase in the number of international faculty over the last decade?

In your opinion is there sufficient international research and faculty exchange?

Do you perceive an increase in the recruitment of international students?

The number of enrolments of international students at your university has increased steadily over the past few years. What do you perceive are the overriding factors in this increase?

Do you perceive that there have been changes to international enrolments since 9/11?

- preferences to different nationalities?
- visa processing problems?

Would you consider Midwestern/Riverina to have an international ethos?

- do you think that Midwestern/Riverina has a mission to serve international students?
- in what ways do you see international students benefiting Midwestern/Riverina?
- has the international student enrolment encouraged cultural diversity on campus?
- has the international student enrolment encouraged respect for diversity?
Has Midwestern/Riverina accommodated international students?

- are you aware of an effort to internationalise the curriculum?
- have you changed programmes?
- added support services?

Do the support services provided by your office require additional funding other than that provided by the general fund?

- how are these funds provided?
- do the extra fees that international students pay cover the cost of services provided?

If the level of international students continues to increase, what would your office have to do cater for this increase?

What would you like to see as the international role of universities in society in the future?
Appendix G

International Student Interview Protocol
Midwestern/Riverina International Student Interview Protocol

**Background**

How long have you been in Australia/US?

What is your first language?
- do you speak English at home?

How is your stay here being sponsored?
- private or public?
  - if public, which country is sponsoring you, Australia/US or your home country?

Why did you choose Midwestern/Riverina?

In your Mission Statement, it is stipulated that the university will provide for the development of skills necessary to adapt and excel in a changing world. How does your university prepare faculty and students for an international environment?

**OR**

In the university Mission Statement, it is stated that the university will: *advance, transmit and sustain knowledge and understanding through the conduct of teaching, research and scholarship at the highest international standards*... How does your school/department achieve this goal?

**The International Market**

Why do you think that the university is recruiting international students?
- economic or social reasons?

The number of enrolments of international students at Midwestern/Riverina has increased steadily over the past few years. What do you perceive are the reasons for this increase?

Do you perceive preferences to different nationalities here at Midwestern/Riverina?
- have you experienced visa processing problems?

Would you consider your school/department to have an international ethos?
- do you think that your school/department has a mission to serve international students?
- in what ways do you see international students benefiting your school/department?
- has the international student enrolment encouraged cultural diversity in your school/department?

Has your school/department accommodated you as an international student?
- has there been an effort to internationalise the curriculum?
if so, are the changes to curriculum to promote an international awareness for domestic students?

If the level of international students continues to increase, what would your school/department have to do cater for this increase?

Do you think that universities should have an international role?
- what do you see as the international role?
- what should that role be?
Appendix H

Domestic Student Interview Protocol
Midwestern/Riverina Domestic Student Interview Protocol

Background
Are you from in-state?

Is your enrolment classified as in-state or out of state?

Why did you choose Midwestern/Riverina?

Globalisation

In the university Mission Statement, it is stipulated that the university will provide for the development of skills necessary to adapt and excel in a changing world. How does your school/department prepare students for an international environment?
- are there opportunities to study foreign languages?
- study abroad programs?

OR

In the university Mission Statement, it is stated that the university will: advance, transmit and sustain knowledge and understanding through the conduct of teaching, research and scholarship at the highest international standards... How does your school/department achieve this goal?

The International Market

Do you have friends who are international students?
- if no, do you know any international students?

Why do you think that the university is recruiting international students?
- economic or social reasons?

The number of enrolments of international students at Midwestern/Riverina has increased steadily over the past few years.
- are you aware of these increases?
- what do you perceive are the reasons for this increase?
- do you think that it is a good idea to have so many international students here?

Do you think there have been any changes for international students at Midwestern/Riverina since 9/11?
- preferences to different nationalities?

Would you consider your school/department to have an international view?
- do you think that your school/department has a mission to serve international students?
- in what ways do you see international students benefiting your school/department?
- are there disadvantages to having international students?
- has the international student enrolment encouraged cultural diversity in your school/department?

Has your school/department accommodated international students?
- has the curriculum changed due to the presence of international students?
- are the changes to curriculum to promote an international awareness for students?
- are there opportunities to learn about different cultures?

If the level of international students continues to increase, what would your school/department have to do cater for this increase?

Do you think that universities should have an international role?
- what do you see as the international role?
- what should that role be?
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319


320


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337


