THE STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT
OF INTERNATIONAL ENTREPRENEURIAL ACTIVITIES
AT AUSTRALIAN UNIVERSITIES

By

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ABSTRACT

Universities around the world are increasingly focusing on entrepreneurial activities. In Australia, the growth of international entrepreneurial activities has resulted in the creation of a billion-dollar export-oriented sector. These activities include the recruitment of international students to Australian campuses, the development of Australian university campuses in offshore locations, and the delivery of Australian degree programs at both onshore and offshore locations in partnership with universities, professional associations and private corporations. Australian universities currently receive on average around seven percent of revenues from these sources, with some depending on international entrepreneurialism for as much as one-third of revenues. Managing these activities in an efficient, effective and sustainable manner has thus become critically important to virtually every institution in the Australian higher education sector.

Long dependent on government funding, Australian universities have found the rise of international entrepreneurialism a significant shift. As is the case when businesses become international, universities are faced with the need to manage the complexities, risks and challenges associated with international operations. To date, little empirical work has been undertaken which explores and examines how Australian universities are managing their international entrepreneurial business operations.

The aim of this study is thus to respond to this research gap by exploring how Australian universities, particularly in terms of their Faculties of Business, organise and manage international entrepreneurial activities. The research examines management approaches, practices and processes at five Australian universities. Two are highly international, metropolitan universities recognised around the world as leaders in international entrepreneurialism. Two are smaller, regional institutions, while the fifth university is a medium-

sized metropolitan institution which had in recent times moved aggressively to develop its international activities. Document analysis, observation and interviews with senior institutional managers, academic managers and academics at each university revealed several common themes arising in institutional approaches. These included an emphasis on diversified, offshore growth; a degree of movement towards structural centralisation, particularly in the highly international universities which had been historically highly decentralised; the presence of generally supportive organisational cultures; a perception among academic managers and academics that most international activities remain driven by financial imperatives; the perceived potential for detrimental impacts on academic research arising from increased involvement in international activities; the existence of a common concern among senior institutional managers for the effects of Faculty of Business dominance of international programs in their institutions; a tendency for most organisational learning to be informal, except in the highly international institutions; and a preference for decentralised strategic leadership which included a degree of oversight by internationally experienced senior institutional managers.

A Strategic Advantage Model of Internationalisation is presented representing a theoretical and conceptual synthesis of the findings. Building on previous work undertaken in the field, the model focuses on the need for institutions to achieve best practice and competitive advantage through the leveraging of organisational and strategic competencies, the pursuit of executional advantages, the implementation of strategically decentralised leadership and the development of international business competencies.

CHAPTER 1 – INTRODUCTION

1.1   BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH

This study is about exploring and understanding how Australian universities manage their international entrepreneurial activities, such as international student recruitment and the provision of offshore and distance programs. It is also about understanding how these institutions have pursued innovative ideas and managed their interface with a complex and dynamic environment.

The pursuit of international entrepreneurial activities has become a significant source of revenue for Australian universities. Over $627 million in overseas student fee revenues flowed into university coffers during 1997, with 14 universities receiving over seven percent of their total institutional revenues from this source (DETYA, 1998a). By 2000, this figure had risen to $770 million (Maslen, 2000a, p.10)

Higher education has become one of Australia's biggest and most important service exports, and the nation's universities have successfully exploited the boom in demand for their services. However, some international student markets are entering periods of maturity and saturation (Evans & Kemp, 1997, p.4), and competition is intensifying (Hamilton, 1998, p.13; West Committee, 1998, p.62). Universities are responding by adopting new business approaches, with new modes and methods of delivery being implemented and business structures such as alliances becoming increasingly popular (Logan, 1996, p.7; Booth, 1997, p.1). Some commentators, such as Pokarier and Ridings (1998, pp.11-12), argue that the successes achieved to date may be due more to good luck than good management. Further, they argue that the ability of university managers to respond appropriately to this more complex and competitive environment may be constrained by the

existence of inadequate management competencies and also by the absence of any real commitment to appropriate strategic management processes. This need is further emphasised by the recognition of some institutional leaders that competition between universities for international students is increasingly 'not the jackpot many hoped it would be', with institutional strategies additionally being hampered by poor business practices (Carey, 1999, p.7).

Universities around the world are increasingly focusing on entrepreneurial activities (Clark, 1998), however the emphasis on international entrepreneurial programs is especially high in Australia and the United Kingdom (Knight & de Wit, in de Wit, 1995; de Wit, H., 1998, pers.comm., 23 Oct.). For Australian universities, the revenue derived from these programs has filled much of the funding gap left by reductions in governmental revenue per student since the early 1980s. The government's share of university funding fell from 91 to 60 percent over the decade from 1983 (Marginson, 1997, p.246), and the federal government cut operational grants to universities by 5 percent (in real terms) or some $623.6 million during the 1996-1998 triennium (Garcia, 1996, p.9). This change to the 'mix' between public and private sources of funding will continue until at least 2001, as government forward funding estimates reduce direct federal grants to universities to less than $4 billion for the first time since 1990 (Kemp, 1997, pp.12-13; Healy, 1998a, p.32).

University budgets have been further stretched by a 50 percent increase in student numbers over the decade from 1988 (West Committee, 1997, p.95) and by the refusal of the federal government to pay university salary increases over a minimum "safety net" from 1996 until the present (Coaldrake & Stedman, 1998, p.22).

At the same time, universities have faced rising levels of competition, both internal to the sector and from overseas institutions using non-traditional modes of delivery, taking advantage of the rise of greater international student mobility (Marginson, 1997, p.250; West, 1997, p.1).

In sum, the evolution of a more competitive, internationally-oriented, financially-constrained environment for Australian universities has demanded that external revenues are attracted and funding sources diversified. Perhaps more than any other country except the United Kingdom, Australia has moved to exploit the international demand for educational services through the pursuit of a variety of strategies for program delivery (Bennell & Pearce, unpub., p.30). The risks and potential costs associated with these strategies rise with the degree of dependence of institutions on the revenues which flow from them, and this is making critical the need for effective strategic management of these activities. An exploration of these processes as they currently occur in Australian universities can potentially offer some insights into the process, and an overview of "best practices" may make the management of these activities more effective.

The higher education internationalisation literature as it relates to this area is still relatively sparse. As de Wit and Callan note, 'the present state of the field could be well likened to an academic specialism in the 'pre-paradigmatic' phase of its evolution' (in de Wit, 1995, p.93). Nonetheless, some important work has been undertaken by several authors. Davies (1995) developed a two-dimensional model which analysed university approaches to internationalisation on the basis of the degree of systematic structuring of international activities, and the level of importance placed on such activities by institutional leaders. The model was extended by van Dijk and Meijer (1997) with the addition of a third dimension measuring the type of support given to international activities in universities.

A doctoral thesis undertaken by Rudzki (1998) further added to the field, with the development of several possible strategic management models of university internationalisation. Designated as the 'reactive', 'proactive' and 'fractal' models, the value of the models is in the evolution of a contextual, flexible framework which incorporates institutional differences and which offers various strategic choices which may be pursued following the monitoring and evaluation of existing activities. In addition, its emphasis on the need for appropriate review and strategic change mechanisms is useful. Rudzki's thesis focuses particularly on the management of international activities in Faculties of Business, and this study will do likewise, since business courses are the most popular choice of international students in Australian universities (DETYA, 1998b). In addition, academics, administrators and managers in Faculties of Business should, by definition, have an awareness of contemporary management practices and processes, and to have implemented these where appropriate. One aim of this study will be to explore if this is so.

Another thesis (Knight, 1994) provides a suggested model for the 'internationalisation cycle' in universities, with the cycle proceeding through phases of awareness, commitment, planning, operationalisation, review and reinforcement. The value of the model is in its emphasis on the need for a supportive culture for international activities underlying each phase, in its flexibility in allowing for 'recycling' between the phases of the model, and in its identification of key management tasks associated with the management and organisation of international activities. A thesis by Manning (1998) usefully added to Knight's internationalisation cycle with the addition of organisational structure as a key element in the model.

Several business models of strategic management also offer concepts which usefully inform this study. The 'internationalisation process model' (Ellis &

Williams, 1995, p.54) is one such framework, and its associated 'market entry model of international operations' suggests the need for institutions to consider issues such as appropriate market screening and selection mechanisms, proper consideration of entry mode issues and the implementation of corrective adjustment mechanisms, all of which are relevant for the university international entrepreneurial context. Similarly, conceptual frameworks for the evaluation of potential and existing international business alliances are also of potential relevance to this study (see, for example, Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1992; Hamel, Doz & Prahalad, in Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1992).

The strategic management frameworks of Thompson and Strickland (1998) provide useful 'diagnostic tools' in developing an understanding of university international strategies and the management processes which guide them. In particular, their five-task strategic management model provides a sound starting point for the development of a general understanding of strategy processes, while models which answer the question of "what to look for" in understanding an organisation's strategy and the way in which it is implemented are also of potential relevance in informing this research. Together with Knight's (1994) international education model, the strategic management frameworks provided by Thompson and Strickland (1998) stand at the conceptual core of this study.

Additional concepts of relevance derive from the public sector and higher education entrepreneurial literature (see, for example, Wanna, Forster and Graham, 1996; Slaugher & Leslie, 1997; Clarke, 1998) and from the seminal work on strategy by Mintzberg (1984, 1985, 1994). These will be discussed in Chapter 2 of the thesis.

1.2 RESEARCH PROBLEM AND QUESTIONS

The primary aim of the research is to explore how Australian universities strategically manage their international entrepreneurial activities, with particular reference to the activities of Faculties of Business.

In other words, the research seeks to answer the fundamental question "how do they do it?". In responding to this question, the study aims to describe, analyse and reflect on university management practices and processes in the context of an increasingly complex environment and competitive industry. In sum, the research problem is as follows:

Research Problem

> **With particular reference to Faculties of Business, how do Australian universities manage their international entrepreneurial activities?**

Research Questions

The research questions flowing from the research problem are as follows:

1. What international entrepreneurial activities do Australian universities and their Faculties of Business undertake?

2. Why have they chosen particular activities and modes of operation?

> What is the rationale behind market and mode selection?

3. How are these activities managed and organised?

> Why were these management processes implemented?

How have they evolved?

4. **How are these processes perceived by senior institutional managers, academic managers and Faculty of Business academics?   What implications for the future practice of international entrepreneurialism arise from these perceptions?**

   What are the perceived impacts of these activities?

   In particular, what consequences arise from the dominance of business faculties in these activities?

5. **What are the perceived institutional critical success factors (CSF's) required for the effective management of international entrepreneurial activities, and are these CSFs a potential source of ongoing competitive advantage?**

   Can comparisons be drawn between perceived CSFs in this sphere and those discussed in the higher education or international business literature?

   How significant are potential CSFs such as leadership and organisational learning for institutional effectiveness in this domain?

6. **To what extent do existing models derived from the fields of international education management (eg. Knight, 1994) and strategic management (eg. Thompson & Strickland, 1998) adequately describe the strategic management practices of universities in the international entrepreneurial domain? Are new models demanded by the changing nature of this sector, its institutions and markets?**

1.3 JUSTIFICATION FOR THE RESEARCH

One justification for the research derives from the potential significance of the findings. The major significance of the study is in its potential contribution to the practice of strategic management in higher education. It will shed light on the "how is it done?" dimension of university management as it applies to this sphere and, where it appears to be done well, explore how and why this occurs. In addition, the issue of whether the members of these organisations appear to "learn" from their experiences, in both positive and negative ways, will be explored and discussed.

A second justification for the research comes from the absence of research in this sphere. In relation to the study of internationalisation in higher education, empirical research in the field is viewed as being ethnocentric and limited in a number of other ways:

> *The study of internationalisation of higher education is still rather fragmented, primarily based on American experiences, and conflated with studies in the areas of comparative education, international education, global education, and multicultural education. For Europe, the situation is described clearly by Teichler: "Most of the research available on academic mobility and international education seems to be occasional, coincidental, sporadic or episodic." The same can be said for Canada, Australia, and even for the USA.*
>
> *(Knight & de Wit, in de Wit, 1995, p.29)*

The assertion in relation to Australia appears to continue to be true. A review of the literature reveals that there is little real empirical knowledge about the processes of management of international entrepreneurial activities. One study concluded that Australia's university system possessed considerable strength in its management of internationalisation:

In this mature phase, universities cooperate extensively, in consortia and in other forums. Universities perceiving weaknesses in their own practices seek out good practice in other universities for implementation. This continuous process improvement enhances the quality in practices in internationalisation programs in all Australian universities.

(Back, Davis & Olsen, 1996, p.109)

In contrast, as noted above, commentators like Pokarier and Ridings (1998, pp.11-12) argue that the successes achieved to date may be due more to good luck than good management, and that university strategic management competencies to manage international entrepreneurial activities effectively may be substantially lacking. This study aims to consider these divergent positions by shedding some empirical light on these viewpoints.

In addition, the research which has been undertaken in this field during recent times cites the absence of a research tradition in the area and indicates fruitful areas for study,

Any analysis of internationalisation is faced with the lack of research tradition in this area, in particular with respect to the institutional aspects and effects of internationalisation. Many reports have been published about the programs for internationalisation, but few about the process of internationalising institutional strategy. *(Manning, 1998, p.207)*

In relation to strategy in higher education, it has been stated that:

Research on strategy in higher education is scarcely out of the egg. A large part of the strategy literature in higher education is expository, illustrative, or atheoretical.

(Maassen & van Vught, 1992, p.1493)

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Reflecting a similar position, the absence of an appropriate planning model which truly reflects the characteristics of higher education as distinct from the corporate sector has been lamented:

Writers on higher education have not yet looked deeply and widely into their own experience for a model that is inherent to their setting.

(Chaffee, 1985, p.138)

The research is thus of potential interest to anyone with an interest in understanding and improving strategic management in the public sector in general, and in the university sector in particular. Findings from the research may assist university managers at a range of levels to better match practice to the nature of the institutional contexts and environments which they face. Given the increasing levels of risk associated with international strategies, this potential benefit arising from the research has a high degree of contemporary significance.

1.4   METHODOLOGY

This section outlines the philosophical stance assumed by the researcher, before providing a brief outline of some of the key methodological choices which underlie the study.

The epistemological and ontological stance taken is that of the realist. The major elements of this viewpoint and their relationship to this study may be summarised as follows (following Perry, 1998, p.787). Realism holds that there is an external reality which can be researched. This external reality includes both the tangible and the intangible, and the realist's position in terms of this reality is that:

We think that social phenomena exist not only in the mind but also in the objective world - and that some lawful and reasonably stable relationships are to be found among them. The lawfulness comes from the regularities and sequences that link together phenomena. From these patterns we can derive constructs that underlie individual and social life.

(Miles & Huberman, 1994, p.4)

This process of induction rather than deduction is an essential element of the realist perspective, and makes it suitable for contemporary and pre-paradigmatic studies in fields such as marketing and management. In addition, the focus on an observable reality frees realism from the constraints of relativism which characterise constructivism and critical theory.

Realism is argued to be the most appropriate paradigm for case study research, since:

Case study researchers expect that their knowledge claims can and will be evaluated through common measures like reliability and validity issues, careful evaluation of research topic and methodology, and through review by examiners.

(Perry, 1998, p.787)

This philosophical stance may also be described as emanating from the 'postpositivist' tradition (Guba & Lincoln, in Denzin and Lincoln, 1994, p.109).

Case studies have been chosen as the primary vehicle for this study as they are an appropriate method for 'appreciating the complexity of organisational phenomena' (Yin, 1994, p.xv). Case studies are particularly appropriate for the kinds of 'how, why' questions listed above (Yin, 1994, p.6), and they provide the further potential benefit of offering value to practitioners and

policy makers through their extension of experience (Stake, in Denzin and Lincoln, 1994, p.245).

Although qualitative research possesses weaknesses such as in its degree of subjectivity and in its demands on the researcher, its strengths are viewed by the researcher as being more significant for responding appropriately to the research questions on which the thesis will be based. In particular, the emphasis of qualitative research on stressing interpretations and meanings, achieving a deeper understanding of the respondent's world, and its tolerance for flexibility are all argued by the researcher to be of significance for the purposes of this study (Bahr & Albrecht, in Sarantakos, 1993, p.52).

Within the case studies, interviews have been selected as the primary source of data, since

> *Overall, interviews are an essential source of case study evidence because most case studies are about human affairs.*
>
> *(Yin, 1994, p.85)*

However, since interviews are subject to problems such as bias and poor articulation (Yin, 1994, p.85), triangulation of information has been pursued to ensure the development of a defensible chain of evidence through the use of document analysis and direct observation methods.

Purposeful sampling was used for the selection of cases, whereby cases were selected for their potential information-richness (Patton, 1990, p.169). In this study, the mixed purposeful strategy appeared most appropriate, and in this case the primary criteria used was that two universities should be generally perceived as being highly entrepreneurial in the international sphere, while the other three universities should be perceived as less proactively entrepreneurial in terms of their ranking for international entrepreneurial

income, but intrinsically interesting for other reasons. The three less-international institutions selected included two regional universities and a middle-ranking institution which had recently begun to expand its international activities aggressively. The researcher's home institution and the institution at which the pilot study occurred were purposefully avoided. The sampling framework thus provided a degree of flexibility in the selection of the five focus institutions. This approach was essential, since three institutions approached during the process of case selection refused for various reasons to be involved in the study.

The information was collected via semi-structured interviews based primarily upon the research questions and sub-questions listed above. The study focused on the senior managers and academics within Faculties of Business (or Commerce or Management), since that is the major location in every institution for international entrepreneurial strategies. In addition, the perceptions and views were sought of senior institutional managers with responsibility for international programs, such as Deputy or Pro Vice-Chancellors, as were those of international office directors and international office marketing managers. The study focused primarily on Departments of Management, since the researcher was most familiar with the nature and activities of such departments, with accounting and marketing departments providing the balance of academic and academic manager participants. To provide an appropriate sample of participants, academic managers were asked to suggest the names of academics and other academic managers with a high level of involvement in international activities. Across the five case studies, interviews were undertaken with 13 senior institutional managers, 22 academic managers and 17 academics. A further 11 interviews were conducted in the pilot study phase of this research.

Interviews were recorded via audio tape, with the exception of two participants who objected to this process. In addition, the researcher kept

general notes of key points and themes arising in the interviews. The techniques and methods of Miles and Huberman (1994) assisted in the analytical phase of the study, particularly as they relate to the use of cross-case displays to explore and describe issues and concepts. The use of NUDIST software also assisted in analysis. The reporting phase aimed to produce a thesis which provides readers with the opportunity to draw their own conclusions and understand how these conclusions relate to the broader worlds in which they work and practice.

In sum, a modified grounded theory approach has been taken which is arguably consistent with the exploratory nature of the research undertaken. This approach is also consistent with recent research in the field including that undertaken by Knight (1994), Rudzky (1998) and Manning (1998).

1.5 OUTLINE OF THE THESIS

The thesis follows a seven-chapter format. Chapter One provides an introduction to the study, and has included the background to the research, details of the research problem and questions, justification for the research, an overview of the methodology, definitions, limitations and assumptions. Chapter Two reviews the literature and develops a summary conceptual framework which theoretically bounds the study. This framework centres on the international education model of Knight (1994) and the strategic management models of Thompson and Strickland (1998). Major fields discussed in the literature review include international education management, strategic management, university and public sector entrepreneurialism, and international business. Chapter Three provides the context for the research which follows, and includes an historical overview of international education in Australia, examples of innovations in university international strategies, and a discussion of the high degree of international convergence occurring in the field. Chapter Four describes the methods used

in the study, and includes a justification for the critical/transcendental realist paradigm, as well as justifications for the use of qualitative methods, case studies, and interviews. Details of sampling decisions, site visits, data collection and analysis, and ethical considerations are also included in the chapter. Chapter Five presents the findings of the study in the form of institutional case studies. Cross-case findings and a theoretical synthesis are included in Chapter Six. Chapter Seven summarises these findings and presents the study's conclusions, implications and recommendations. In particular, a Strategic Advantage Model of Internationalisation is presented based on the study's findings. The model adds a number of new elements to the international education models of Knight (1994) and Manning (1998). The significance of the study, considerations of the generalisability of the findings, and linkages between the findings and the extant research are also considered in this chapter.

1.6 DEFINITIONS

There are several key terms which require definition within the context of this study.

Internationalisation

The first of these is the term *internationalisation*. This is a general term to describe the array of international activities, strategies and processes in which universities may be engaged. A generally accepted definition is as follows:

> *The process of integrating an international dimension into the teaching, research and programs functions of a university*
>
> *(Knight, 1994, p.12)*

International Entrepreneurial Activities

One element of internationalisation comprises those activities and processes which are teaching-based, have an international dimension, and for which a significant motivation is the raising of revenue. Thus, for the purposes of this study, the definition of *international entrepreneurial activities* adopted is:

> *Income-generating, teaching-based programs, such as offshore campuses, twinning programs, and distance-based courses, as well as associated structures such as strategic alliances, joint ventures and offshore offices and centres. Traditional methods of recruiting international students to local campuses are also included in considerations of these activities.*

This definition therefore reflects a focus on a relatively narrow range of university international activities rather than the broader conception of internationalisation which underlies many international education research studies (for instance Knight, 1994; Manning, 1998; Rudzki, 1998; Storer, 1998).

Strategic Management

With a key field surrounding the study being *strategic management*, this concept may be defined as follows:

> *Strategic management is the discipline of managing a business and its component parts in an integrated manner to optimise performance by maximising opportunities and internal strengths, minimising threats and internal weaknesses, and exploiting competitive advantage. It is to be contrasted with uncoordinated management, and management that concentrates on internal considerations at the expense of external factors.*
>
> *(Jackson, 1997, p.39)*

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Entrepreneurialism

While the term *entrepreneurial* is used primarily in the revenue-generation context, this may be only one of the motivators for undertaking international entrepreneurial activities. That is, while revenue may be a significant motivator, this could be subservient to objectives such as institutional or Faculty repositioning, as shown in the case of "Australia University" (Poole, 1999, pp.34-37; see also Pratt & Poole, 1999). For this reason, the concept of *entrepreneurialism* underlying the management of international entrepreneurial activities is defined, in a general sense, as part of the 'new public entrepreneurialism' in Australia, involving:

> *...reconstructing the activities of the public sector to increase the long-term viability of agencies (or functions) and enable the public sector to adapt to major change...At its most extreme public entrepreneurialism represents a totally new way of doing business for the public sector. In this sense, entrepeneurial management could promote transformational change...In a more limited sense, entrepreneurialism within public organisations may complement administrative reforms as an extension of commercial activity or innovative ways of performing services.*
> *(Forster, Graham & Wanna, in Wanna, Forster & Graham, 1996, p.2)*

This definition appropriately serves the study's purposes, since there was little if any material published prior to the researcher's site visits in terms of the extent to which each university reflected either the more radical or limited conceptions of entrepreneurialism outlined in the definition.

Strategic Alliances

Organisations can work together in a variety of ways, including establishing joint ventures, management contracts, minority ownerships in each other's company, licensing, or long-term contractual arrangements (Daniels & Radebaugh, 1998, p.18; Griffin & Pustay, 1996, p.413). The vast majority of the offshore operations of Australian universities similarly involve some form of collaborative partnership arrangement with a professional association, private company, or another university. For the purposes of this study, such arrangements are included under the general terms of 'strategic alliance' or 'collaborative arrangement'. Grouping such arrangements in this way is consistent with the international education management literature. These terms are defined as follows:

> *Business arrangements whereby two or more firms choose to cooperate*
> *for their mutual benefit.*   *(Griffin & Pustay, 1996, p.43)*

1.7   DELIMITATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

There are several delimitations, or boundaries, around the study. The thesis explores how Australian universities manage their international entrepreneurial activities. The case studies undertaken represent six of Australia's 36 public universities, and thus the findings are limited to this sample. As noted above, the study focuses in particular on Faculties of Business and Commerce, and Departments of Management, Marketing or Accountancy within these Faculties. The findings therefore do not represent whole-of-university conclusions but are limited to these units of analysis. The completion of nine to twelve interviews in each institution also delimits the study, since this number represents a relatively small proportion of faculty and staff at each university. In addition, the research is exploratory and descriptive and therefore did not seek to assess issues such as quality of

international entrepreneurial programs beyond considering the perceptions of participants in relation to such issues.

No claims for significance beyond these delimitations will be made in the study.

Major limitations on the study included time and finance constraints. The substantive phase of data collection had to take place during Spring Semester 1999 (August-December), the researcher's period of study leave from a full-time university teaching position. As noted in Chapter 4, this limited the ability of the researcher to use a replication logic (Yin, 1994, pp.45-50) in the selection of cases. Financial considerations limited the site visits to one 4-5 day visit per institution. This meant that key participants unavailable during the visits needed to be interviewed by telephone, a less information-rich method than personal interviews (Sarantakos, 1993, p.197). This occurred in relation to two interviews. Financial constraints also limited the study to Australian universities, a limitation given the potential for intrinsically interesting comparative research to be undertaken in the United Kingdom where many institutions are following a similar international entrepreneurial route to their Australian counterparts (Knight & de Wit, in de Wit, 1995, p.11). In addition, similar constraints prevented visits to the offshore campuses of the institutions studied, where no doubt interesting, diverse perspectives are held by leading actors regarding international entrepreneurial activities of Australian universities.

1.8   KEY ASSUMPTIONS

The research was based on the following assumptions. First, that the processes of management of international entrepreneurial activities are perceived to be of interest and importance to university academics and administrators. Second, that an analysis of these processes would be useful

for generating additional attention to the need for the effective management of these activities. Third, that case studies based on interviews with key informants would be an appropriate way of providing responses to the research questions posed.

1.9 CONCLUSION

This chapter has presented the foundations for the thesis. It has introduced the research problem and research questions. Justifications for the research and key definitions were presented, the methodology was briefly described and justified, the structure of the study was outlined, and the delimitations, limitations and key assumptions were stated. On these foundations, the report can proceed with a detailed description of the research, beginning with a review of the literature.

CHAPTER 2 – LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1   INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to review and discuss the relevant theories and concepts surrounding the research problem. Four key fields of literature will be reviewed. Of most significance are the fields of international education management, the study's primary field, and strategic management, the study's secondary field. These fields include those models, studies and concepts which most specifically relate to the subject of the present study. The other literature fields inform and are informed by the theories and concepts contained in these major fields of study. That is, the discussion of international education management in particular and strategic management in general includes a number of concepts developed within the other fields and considered to be of relevance to the management of international entrepreneurialism. To a lesser extent, the evolution of research in the field of international education management is itself informing the development of the other fields such as the university and public sector entrepreneurialism literature.

In sum, international education management provides the primary field of literature on which this study seeks to build. Much of the work undertaken to date in this field has assumed a strategic management perspective. This perspective is also assumed in this study, and thus the field of strategic management bounds the international education management field (see Figure 2.1 below) and additionally serves as the disciplinary linkage or secondary field between the primary field and the two informing fields. Together, the primary field of international education management and secondary field of strategic management provide an overarching conceptual and analytical structure for the study.

The first of the informing fields is the university and public sector entrepreneurialism literature. This field is reviewed in terms of its relevance to the present study. That is, it explores dimensions such as the competencies required for effective entrepreneurship and the criticisms of entrepreneurial practices within university and public sector contexts. International business represents a second field perceived as significantly influencing and being influenced by international education management theory. Key concepts to be considered from the international business literature include the internationalisation process and market entry models, as well as issues relating to the management of strategic alliances.

Research questions guiding the study are justified throughout the chapter through the identification of gaps in the literature appearing worthy of further research. It should be noted that several research questions derive from gaps and deficiencies in multiple fields.

Figure 2.1 provides a conceptual overview of the organisation of the literature review as it follows this introduction.

Figure 2.1 Organisation of the Literature Review
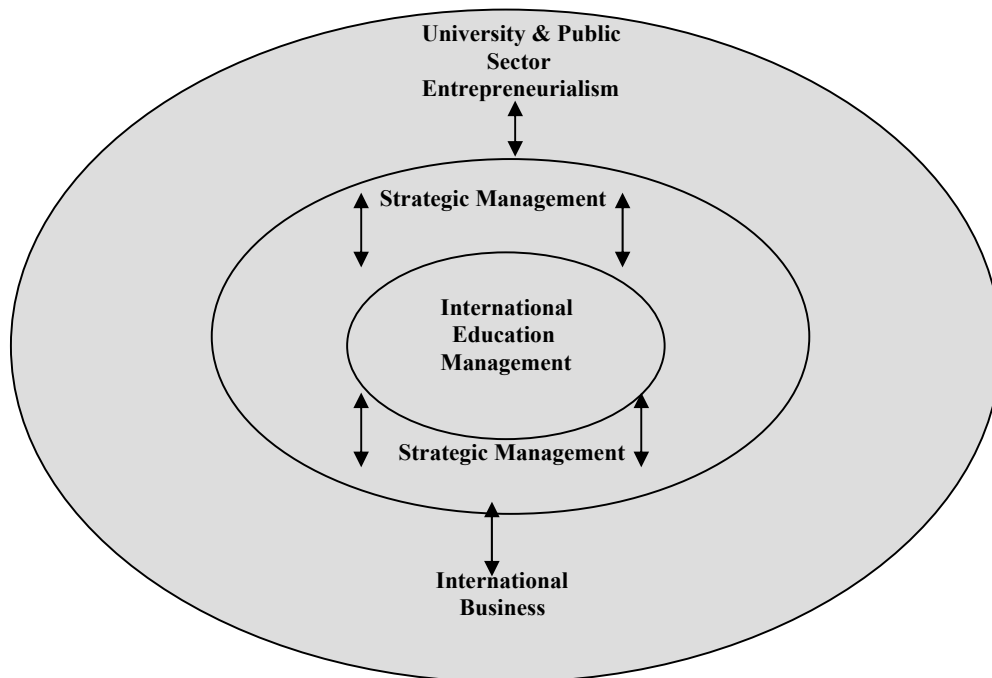
2.2   INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION MANAGEMENT

2.2.1 The Need for Effective Strategic Management

In recent times, the international student market has become increasingly volatile and more competitive (Pokarier and Ridings, 1998, p.9). There is a need to build new markets for new educational products and services alongside existing markets (Evans & Kemp, 1997, p.3). There is also a need to add value to institutional brands and offerings,

Looking back, it is now clear that, in the 1990s, Australian universities quickly gained market share by capitalising on proximity, convenience and low price rather than building reputations based on superior quality, status and prestige. However, over the next decade competition will be much tougher and the market will become much more sophisticated and selective. In order to develop strategic positioning and a quality branding strategy in

this environment, greater attention must be given to the creation of and
projection of added value. *(Milton-Smith, 1999, p.10)*

Further, Laureys (1992, p.7) argues that institutions need to dispense with the philosophy that spontaneous and continuous growth can be maintained indefinitely, since there is a limit to the number of exchange programs and collaborative partners which can be maintained effectively. New programs and partnerships bring additional direct and indirect costs, and these must be controlled in a competitive environment. Such control necessitates the need for institutions to develop priorities, allocate resources accordingly, and institute appropriate evaluation and monitoring systems. Strategic policy development is one potential way by which universities can respond in this new environment. Instituting such processes are argued to have become a necessity, because

universities have to cope with financial restrictions and changing
expectations in the outside world. Universities have to make choices.
Especially, guidelines for long-term development are essential for those
fields that are important for the image of the university. Internationalisation
of education is such a subject. *(Kouijzer, 1994, p.99)*

Internationalisation, whether seen in economic or broader terms, is perceived to have created new demands on universities. In a general sense, there is a need to create structural, attitudinal, and procedural reforms which match the creation of the new needs and demands created by internationalisation (McKinnon, 1992). Such needs include the necessity of adapting universities services in areas like housing, guidance, counselling, finance, accounting and legal services (Kameoka, 1996, p.36). In sum, the need for an appropriate response to these demands has generated calls for a strategic approach to management.

The need for additional research in this field is clear. In the European context, van Dijk and Meijer (1997, p.158) state that there has been little research undertaken to date 'on the way in which international activities are organised, and especially on the results of different organisational models'. Further, van Dijk (in Blok, 1995, p.19) notes that there has been almost no theory developed in relation to the initiation and effectiveness of internationalisation activities. De Wit (1995) also concluded that research in the field remained formative, at best.

> *The study of internationalisation in higher education is still rather fragmented, primarily based on American experiences, and conflated with studies in the area of comparative education, international education, global education and multicultural education.* *(de Wit, 1995, p.29)*

Three theses undertaken in recent years also bear out this theme. The first, by Rudzki (1998) examined issues in the strategic management of internationalisation in United Kingdom business schools. Rudzki described his thesis as 'an exploratory study in an underconceptualised field', and as 'the first major empirical analysis of internationalisation within a subject area of higher education anywhere in the world' (1998, p.47). Research question 6 within this study extends Rudzki's strategic management approach into a new and somewhat different context from that of a thesis by Knight, completed in 1994.

In identifying areas for future research, Knight (1994, p.112) called for more research on the rationales driving the current interest in internationalisation; research on the perceptions of various stakeholders towards international activities; studies of the appropriateness of centralised or decentralised functions administering internationalisation; and case studies of universities

exploring the development and implementation of internationalisation strategies in various contexts. The direction of this study was influenced by Knight's suggestions.

In the Australian context, Manning's thesis exploring internationalisation at three 'best practice' universities concluded with a call for further research into 'the processes of internationalisation in institutions' and 'the impact of internationalisation on institutions and staff working in institutions' (1998, p.210). Research questions 2, 3 and 4 within this study respond to Manning's call.

Also in the Australian context, Back, Davis, and Olsen (1996, p.107) identified an absence of research into the costs of various strategies, and also noted that that their study was limited by its focus only on the "positives" of university internationalisation rather than taking a more critical perspective. This study's sampling strategy and research question 4 respond to these deficiencies, while the response to research question 1 provides a limited update on Back, Davis and Olsen's (1996) stocktake of international strategies in Australian universities.

In sum, there appears to a need for additional research into the strategic management of internationalisation. In particular, strategic management research exploring the management processes and organisation of international entrepreneurial activities across a range of institutions potentially may be useful in informing and guiding institutional managers and strategy makers as they confront an increasingly more complex and uncertain strategic environment.

2.2.2 Models of International Education Management

A number of different approaches to strategy formation and implementation have been suggested in the higher education internationalisation literature. It is important to note, however, that a general theme which appears to be widely accepted is that there is no "one best way" in which strategy should be developed and delivered. Strategic processes will be reflective inter alia of an institution's history and priorities (Aigner, Nelson & Stimpfl, 1992, p.18), and will also reflect its organisational structure, policies, and phase of internationalisation (Aarts, 1994, p.50; Manning, 1998, p.194). This theme, then, is one of finding the most appropriate match with each institution's context and environment. While this is very much a contingency approach to strategic processes (Rudzki, 1998, p.181), the general approach in the literature is also one which seeks to identify the 'broad models or common approaches being adapted by institutions', making it possible to build a 'rough typology' of institutional strategies for internationalisation (de Wit, 1995, p.1).

There have been three major models developed thus far for strategy development and implementation in university internationalisation. Each will be analysed and discussed in the sections which follow.

The Davies Model

The work of John Davies provides an appropriate starting point for this analysis of strategic management models in internationalisation, since his model is linked closely to George Keller's (1983) seminal model of higher education strategy. Davies adapts Keller's strategic planning model to the requirements of internationalisation. Its elements are illustrated in Figure 2.2.

The model's elements are offered as a 'checklist' for universities to enable them to undertake strategic planning for internationalisation in the knowledge that each significant element of their external and internal environments is

being incorporated into strategy development processes. For instance, in the university mission, institutions are encouraged to develop clear statements about the fundamental nature of their involvement in internationalisation, since mission is perceived to 'inform planning processes, agendas and resource allocation criteria, serve as a rallying standard internally, and indicate to external constituencies a basic and stable set of beliefs and values' (Davies, 1995, p.6).

Figure 2.2   Elements in the development of international strategy in universities

Internal

| University mission, traditions, self image | Assessment of strengths and weaknesses in programs, personnel, finance | Organisational leadership structure |

International Strategy →

| External perceptions of image and identity | Evaluation of trends and opportunities in international market place | Assessment of competitive situation |

External

Source: Davies, 1995, p.5.

In undertaking this aspect of the task, institutions should determine the scope of their international activities, decide whether to focus on particular geographic regions, determine if internationalisation is going to be a pervasive or marginal dimension of institutional life, and give consideration to making the mission explicit in terms of objectives for student outcomes, capabilities and the like.

Davies has also developed a model of international strategy implementation, based on two primary elements. The first is the degree to which institutions

are systematic in their treatment of international activities. At one end of the continuum, such activities could be dealt with systematically, with precise and explicit procedures being adopted. Alternatively, international activities could be treated in a more ad hoc manner. The second element in the Davies model is the degree of importance placed on international activities by universities. Such activities could be highly central to the institution, particularly in cases where a heavy dependence on international income exists, or the activities could be considered marginal to the core activities of the institution. Placing these two dimensions together yields the following matrix:

Figure 2.3 Institutionalisation of approaches to university internationalisation.
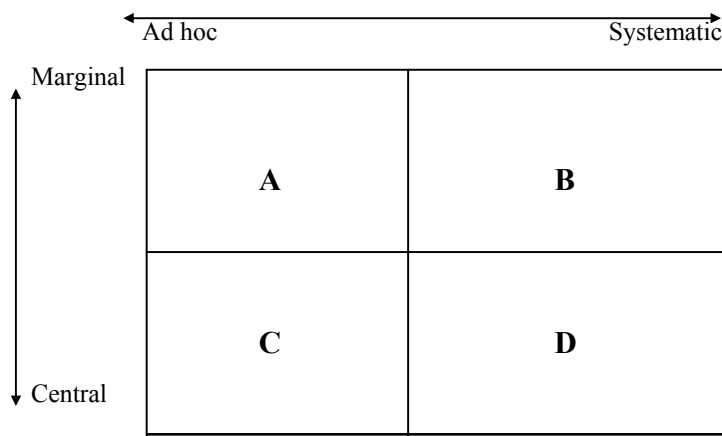
Source: Davies, 1995, p.16.

Quadrant A (ad hoc - marginal) universities undertake small amounts of international business in an unsophisticated manner. Internationalisation represents a low priority on the institution's mission and planning agenda, and is undertaken in an unsystematic manner.

Quadrant B (systematic - marginal) universities also undertake relatively small amounts of international business, but do so in a well-organised and coordinated manner. Efforts are focussed on particular market segments and may be based on well-targeted and organised institutional agreements.

Quadrant C (ad hoc - high centrality) universities undertake considerable international business across a range of market segments and client groups. Marketing is often ill focussed and projects are usually accepted in a "knee-jerk" way. The institution may have numerous international agreements, however many may be largely dormant. Support services may not be sufficient, and quality control is likely to be unsystematic and focused primarily on responses to crises.

Quadrant D (systematic - high centrality) universities also undertake large amounts of international activity, and do so in ways which mutually reinforce these activities. The institution will usually have a well-defined international mission, extensive databases, appropriate personnel and curriculum policies, and well-designed financial systems. A dedicated organisational structure will be in place to support international activities, reward and incentive programs will be implemented, and systematic quality control will occur.

Davies argues that the matrix is not prescriptive, but merely a tool for institutions to assist in analysing their current approach to internationalisation, determine where the institution would like to be, and plan the transition accordingly (Davies, 1995, pp.16-17). This is arguably an appropriate stance since the matrix, by virtue of its very simplicity, of necessity limits the analysis of complex organisational processes to two dimensions, and thus appears to lack conceptual depth. Nonetheless, the model effectively raises two significant questions about the ways in which universities manage internationalisation. First, in terms of the adapted Keller model, an important question is whether institutions actually implement environmental scanning and strategic analysis techniques and processes which reflect the complexities and nuances of the international environments in which they now operate. This issue is reflected in research question 2 of this study. Second, considering

the four-quadrant matrix, a question arises as to whether institutions really pursue consistency in their strategic management processes. That is, do they match the rhetoric of their international missions and policy documents with appropriate action? Further, do they implement, support, monitor, and evaluate their strategies to the degree demanded by the level of sophistication and complexity of those strategies? In other words, do institutions take a Quadrant D approach in their rhetoric but a Quadrant C (or A or B) approach in their actions? Institutional approaches are addressed in the case studies outlined in chapter 5. In addition, the effectiveness of centralised or decentralised institutional management approaches will be considered for each case.

The van Dijk and Meijer Model - Extending the Davies Approach

In a study of Dutch institutions of higher education, van Dijk and Meijer (1997) extended the Davies model with the addition of a third element, the interactive dimension. This dimension measures the type of support provided to internationalisation activities within the institution's structure. At one end of the continuum, support can be 'one-sided', coming primarily from the central level of the institution. At the other end, support can be provided in a two-way process of interaction among central, faculty, and departmental levels. Such support is defined as being 'interactive' in nature. Thus, the three dimensions together measure the type of policy approach taken towards internationalisation, the type of support provided for its activities, and the degree of systematic implementation occurring in the institution. Thus, the 'internationalisation cube' (van Dijk & Meijer, 1997, p159) appears as Figure 2.4.

Common routes through the cube include 1-2-6-8, in which 'slow starters' proceed thoughtfully and systematically through the various phases of internationalisation. Another common route is 1-5-6-8, a route appearing

common among institutions with a strong commitment to internationalisation and an organised institutional culture. These are the 'organised leaders' of internationalisation. Finally, route 1-5-7-8 is common among entrepreneurial institutions undertaking a variety of international activities with a rapid response time to new developments and a strong level of commitment inside

Figure 2.4   The Internationalisation Cube

	policy	support	implementation
1.	marginal	one-sided	ad hoc
2.	marginal	one-sided	systematic
3.	marginal	interactive	ad hoc
4.	marginal	interactive	systematic
5.	priority	one-sided	ad hoc
6.	priority	one-sided	systematic
7.	priority	interactive	ad hoc
8.	priority	interactive	systematic

Source: van Dijk & Meijer, 1997, p.159

the organisation. The systematic organisation of such activities in the direction of Cell 8 is argued to take considerable time (van Dijk & Meijer, 1997, p.165).

Although no ideal route or position in the cube is posited, van Dijk and Meijer (1997, p. 160) conclude that 80 percent of Dutch universities could be located in Cells 7 or 8 of the cube, and that the need for increased interaction/support seems to take on heightened importance as the level of international activity rises. Thus, their preference for "interactive" levels of support is clear. As a final conclusion, van Dijk and Meijer hypothesise that,

When the institution implements a positive policy with respect to internationalisation, this generates a broader support base in the

organisation, larger budgets and more staff members available for internationalisation. This executive and financial support leads to greater participation (in percentage terms) of the institution's students and teachers in internationalisation activities. *(van Dijk & Meijer, 1997, pp.164-165)*

The major contribution of van Dijk and Meijer to the development of theory in the strategic management of internationalisation is in their addition of a third dimension to the model. The "support" dimension adds the element of structure to strategic management considerations, since the implementation of interactive support processes implies the need to structure the institution in such a way that interactive support processes are encouraged. This places structure alongside process as important dimensions in the strategic management of internationalisation. Both issues are addressed in research question 3.

The Rudzki Approach to the Strategic Management of Internationalisation

Like Davies, Rudzki (1998) begins with a general strategic planning model adapted from the corporate literature. The model is based on the work of Johnson and Scholes (in Rudzki, 1998, p.194) which is, in turn, adapted from the approach of Mintzberg. Rudzki (1998, p.194) highlights the model as being 'a useful analytical tool in understanding the process of internationalisation within higher education institutions'. This approach to strategic management of international activities incorporates three interdependent stages.

The first stage is strategic analysis, which initially involves monitoring and evaluating the environment to assess the impact of political, economic, social

and technological trends. Next, data is gathered on the institution's current international activities and the commitment of staff to such activities. This exercise may be undertaken as a series of audits, termed by Rudzki the 'International Audit', to be undertaken by management, and the 'Staff Audit', in which staff complete a questionnaire about their willingness and ability to be involved in internationalisation. The third aspect of strategic analysis is an assessment of opportunities and threats, as in the traditional strategic management model. Next, the strengths and weaknesses of the national system of higher education as it relates to institutional internationalisation are assessed, before issues of power, expectations and organisational culture are considered. The power element arises from the fact that many people within higher education institutions have the power to influence the course of internationalisation. Expectations should ideally be reasonably common between staff, students, and management, while the organisational culture prevailing in an institution will influence the perceptions of internationalisation within it, and thus impact on strategy in direct and indirect ways (Rudzki, 1998, pp.194-202).

The second stage of the process is strategic choice. General choices at this level include whether the institution seeks to provide elite or mass education, and whether it becomes a specialist or generalist in the provision of courses and programs.

The final stage of the strategic management model is strategy implementation. In this phase, resource planning occurs to ensure that appropriate levels of resource are available for implementation. Organisational structures are modified to suit the tasks to be carried out, and an appropriate mix of centralised and decentralised activities developed. In addition, modifications to people and systems require consideration in light of the requirements of the international strategy being pursued (Rudzki, 1998, p.212).

This strategic management model represents a normative framework for planning and managing internationalisation. It provides one response to the question of how universities should strategically plan for internationalisation. How universities actually internationalise represents a somewhat different issue, for it focuses on how the implementation of internationalisation really occurs in practice. Nonetheless, the "how" (research question 2 in this study) of internationalisation will undoubtedly be affected by the "what" of planning mechanisms and the tools used to inform the "how" (research questions 2 and 3).

Rudzki addresses the "how" by suggesting two possible models of internationalisation. The first, known as the reactive model, is argued to have been the more common approach in the internationalisation of United Kingdom universities.

This model appears to have a degree of overlap with the Davies model, as outlined above. In particular, the stages have some similarity to the movement from quadrant A to B and then to C in the Davies model, with the possibility in Stage 5 of a movement back to quadrant B or forward to quadrant D. Similarly, the equivalent stages in the van Dijk and Meijer internationalisation cube would seem to be cell 1, then to cell 2, and then to cell 5 or 6 depending on whether maturity or decline eventuates.

Figure 2.5   The Reactive Model of Internationalisation

Stage 1   CONTACT
Academic staff engage in making contacts with colleagues in other countries, curriculum development, limited mobility, links lack clear formulation of purpose and duration.

Stage 2   FORMALISATION

Some links are formalised with institutional agreements being made. Resources may or may not be made available.

↓

Stage 3   CENTRAL CONTROL
Growth in activity and response by management who seek to gain control of activities.

↓

Stage 4   CONFLICT
Organisational conflict between staff and management leads to withdrawing of goodwill by staff. Possible decline in activity and disenchantment.

↓

Stage 5   MATURITY OR DECLINE
Possible move to a more coherent, that is, proactive approach.

Source: Rudzki, 1998, p.216.

The alternative to the reactive model is presented in Rudzki's proactive model (1998, p.218).

Figure 2.6   The Proactive Model of Internationalisation

Stage 1   ANALYSIS
Awareness of what 'internationalisation' is and what it entails. Strategic analysis of short-, mid- and long-term organisational objectives - answering the question 'Should we internationalise?', 'why bother?'. Staff training and discussions - understanding of options - what types of international actitivies are available. International Audit of existing activities and Staff Audit. SWOT analysis. Cost-benefit analysis.

↓

Stage 2   CHOICE
Strategic plan and policy drawn up in conjunction with staff and explicit use made of mutual interest of staff and organization. Performance measures defined. Resources allocated. Networking with internal and external organisations.

↓

Stage 3   IMPLEMENTATION
Measure performance.

↓

Stage 4   REVIEW
Assessment of performance against policy and plan.

↓

Stage 5   REDEFINITION OF OBJECTIVES/PLAN/POLICY
Process of continual improvement and the issues of quality this entails.
Return to Stage 1 in cycle of growth and development.

Source: Rudzki, 1998, p.218.

The first two stages of this model clearly have considerable overlap with the
strategic management analysis model introduced initially by Rudzki. The
model also introduces a systematic commitment to the kinds of review and
quality assurance processes absent in the reactive model. In its complete
form, it also possesses similarities with Quadrant D of the Davies model and
cell 8 of the van Dijk and Meijer cube.

As an ideal model, the proactive internationalisation model makes theoretical
and logical sense. It does not seek to do more than model a possible process,
to be undertaken systematically and thoughtfully. A similar model will be
developed in this study in response to research question 6. In Rudzki's model,
issues such as the "what" of implementation and strategy content are left as
black boxes. Nonetheless, Rudzki has also developed a third theoretical
model which is purported to more accurately depict what actually occurs in
the internationalisation of UK institutions.

Termed the 'fractal process model', the word 'fractal' is used to indicate that
the model,

> *'can be applied just as much by an individual in a university to his/her
> particular needs and circumstances, as a whole Department, Faculty,
> university, national system or international organisation such as the British
> Council or EAIE'.*   *(Rudzki, R. 1999, pers.comm., 19 October)*

37

In incorporating elements of both reactive and proactive models, Rudzki seeks to develop both a substantive and formal theory of internationalisation incorporating both "why" and "how" issues. In the approach dimension, for example, the model accommodates both overt institutional approaches to internationalisation, where activities are explicit and based on clear strategies and policies (proactive), and reactive approaches in which internationalisation is primarily based on income generation in response to external forces such as cuts in government funding (Rudzki, 1998, p.220).

The adopted approach will thus be based on each institution's specific context, and this will inform its rationales, choice of activities, review mechanisms and subsequent strategic choices.

Figure 2.7   The Fractal Process Model of Internationalisation

CONTEXT

↓

APPROACH

↓

RATIONALE

↓

ACTIONS/DIMENSIONS/ACTIVITIES

Organisational   Curriculum   Staff   Student
Change (OC)   Innovation (CI) Development (SD)   Mobility (SM)

↓

MONITORING AND PERIODIC REVIEW

↓

CHANGE/REPOSITIONING/REALIGNMENT/REARRANGEMENT
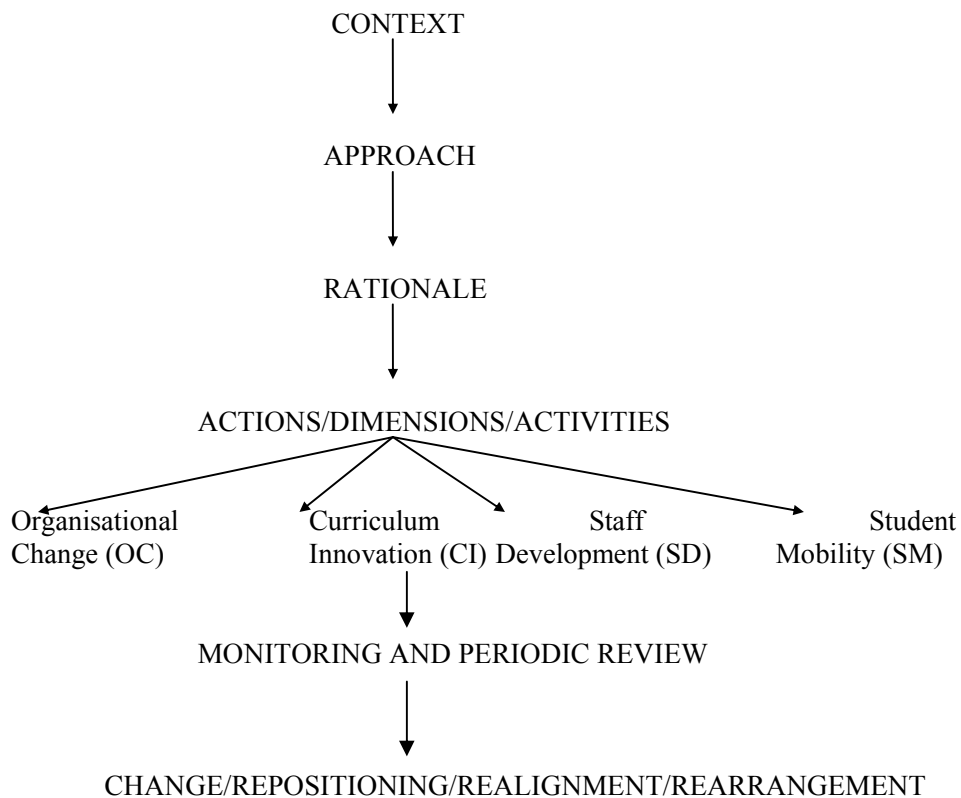
REAPPRAISAL/READJUSTMENT/RECONCEPTUALISATION

<u>Source</u>: Rudzki, 1998, p.220.

The value of the Rudzki model is in providing a contextual, flexible model which incorporates institutional differences and which offers various strategic choices which may be pursued following monitoring and evaluation of existing activities. While it is more descriptive than prescriptive, it is valuable for its emphasis on the need for appropriate review and strategic change mechanisms. In addition, it points toward the potential usefulness of analytical tools for strategic management so that institutions can make strategic choices consistent with their environments and circumstances. The value of such tools is further considered in relation to research question 6.

As with the models discussed above, the fractal process model does raise questions about whether in fact institutions actually are consistent in matching their context, circumstances and competencies with the choice of approach and activities undertaken, and whether the complexity of these strategic processes does match the complexity of institutional internal and external environments. The model appears to make the assumption that consistency does occur, since it is based on a grounded theory analysis of UK and European institutions. However, there is little actual evidence presented in support of this assumption. As McNay (in Blok, 1995, p.37) notes in an analysis of another study, that conducted by van Dijk and Meijer, only four of 13 Dutch universities were considered to be demonstrating all the qualities of policy integration, committed leadership and systematic support for internationalisation (that is, located in cell 8), so it is difficult on research available to see that strategic complexity is being closely matched with environmental complexity.

The Knight Model (with an extension by Manning)

Another strategic process model of internationalisation proposed as a normative or ideal model is the "Internationalisation Cycle" developed by Knight (1994). Based on an analysis of a data from a survey of Canadian universities, the model suggests a way in which universities can

> *translate what seems to be a strong commitment to internationalisation into a comprehensive but practical strategy which integrates and institutionalises the international dimension into university systems and values.*

A six-phase, interactive cycle is thus suggested as an appropriate means of translating commitment into strategy. This model has been extended by Manning (1998) with the addition of structure as a key element in the process.

Figure 2.8 The Internationalisation Cycle
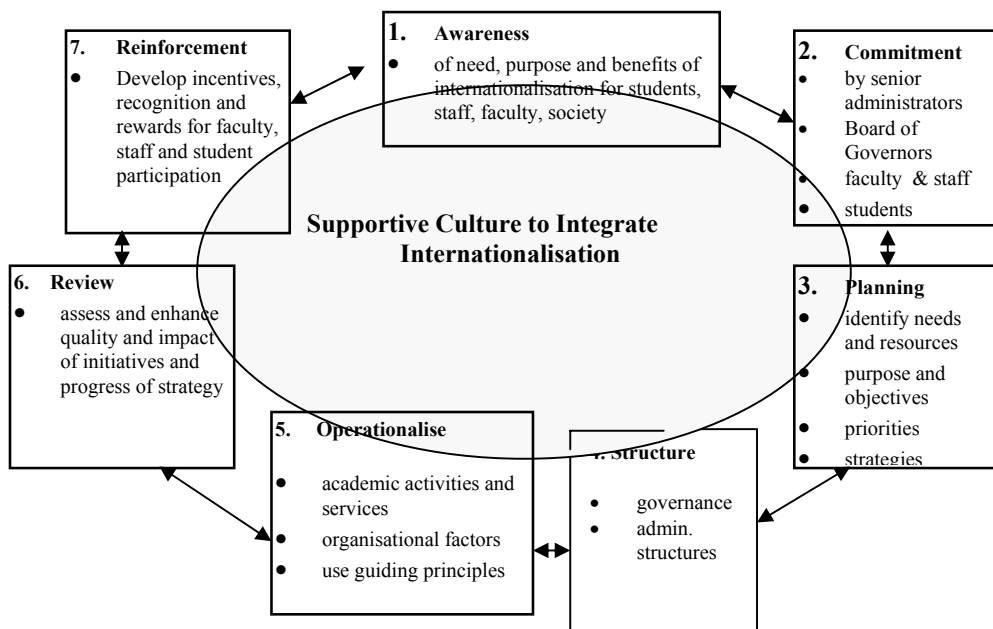
Source: Knight, 1994, p.122.

For awareness, Knight suggests that institutions must stimulate campus-wide

discussions of the need for, purposes, possible strategies, and resource implications of internationalisation. Commitment depends on the demonstrated commitment of senior institutional leaders. Planning processes for internationalisation will reflect the uniqueness of the institution, and should occur at all institutional levels. Operationalisation will also reflect the specific purposes, needs and features of each institution, while review should be systematic and linked to the institution's regular review processes. Finally, reinforcement should occur in both symbolic and concrete ways in order to embed internationalisation into the university's culture (Knight, 1994, pp.121-132).

The Knight model offers another significant element to the theoretical base, namely that of organisational culture. The management of internationalisation occurs in the context of the organisation's unique culture, and this will potentially impact upon the effectiveness of strategies and strategic processes in direct and indirect ways. The issue of culture is addressed in research question 4. In addition, the model indicates that the management of internationalisation occurs in an iterative way, with movement possible both forwards and backwards within the cycle.

It should be noted that in contrast to this study, the models described above consider internationalisation in its totality. In other words, many aspects of internationalisation are generally incorporated into the models, whereas in this study the researcher focuses exclusively on the entrepreneurial aspects of internationalisation in Australian universities. The Rudzki model does, however, focus on the UK context in which entrepreneurial activities and motives appear to be paramount (Rudzki, 1998, p.219), while the Davies model also considers entrepreneurial motives legitimate and of high potential significance to the UK context (Davies, 1995, p.6). This is also the model on which the van Dijk and Meijer cube is based, so it is arguable that the models

do have a degree of potential relevance to the Australian context.

2.2.3 University International Entrepreneurialism - Suggested Characteristics of Effective Internationalisation

A number of suggestions for successful internationalisation are provided by several authors, and these suggestions are summarised in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1   Suggested Characteristics for an Effective Internationalisation Process

Author/s	Characteristics
Green & Gerber (1997, pp.32-39)	Develop global vision, then goals, then objectives using the strategic planning method. If collaborating, seek to find a partner with similar goals and objectives and academic structures. Do your homework, seek a relationship based on trust, and start small.
Doyle (1995, pp.188-190)	International activities may be best strategised via incorporation into normal institutional strategic planning processes.
van Overbeek (1997, pp51,56)	Clearly formulated and operational goals are required. Policies for internationalisation can be evaluated on the basis of standard policy evaluation measures, ie. policy should be explicitly formulated, relevant, include goals and objectives, and indicate the kinds of data to be collected.
Kouijzer (1994, p.102)	To encourage international activities, institutions should use financial incentives, such as the provision of small amounts of funding for innovative or developmental programs; incentives in personnel policies which reward involvement in internationalisation; and the use of information and persuasion, such as translating external developments into terms than can be readily understood

within the university.

Kameoka (1996, p.36)	Successful internationalisation requires a strong leader, adequate resources, staff development, and commitment.
Aigner et al. (1992, p.10)	Success depends on the concepts of service, in which administrators first gain credibility with other stakeholders before seeking to internationalise; cooperation, including the need to network with faculties; coordination; and small scale change.
Knight (1994, p.120)	The elements of collaboration (working together for mutual benefit), customisation (each institution requires a customised strategy), coordination (need for a centralised support system), and innovation (entrepreneurial and creative approaches to internationalisation) should be guiding principles.
Pratt and Poole (1998a, p.19)	The use of sophisticated market selection models and more extensive quality assurance processes are demanded as major elements of the strategic management processes of universities in the management of their international entrepreneurial activities.
Back, Davis & Olsen (1996, p.19)	Good practice elements involve institutions having a series of organisational and program strategies; integration of these strategies, and dynamism between them; a flow of funds from the international student programs to other internationalisation activities; and a centralised institutional base for internationalisation within the university.
McNay (in Blok,1995 (p3.8)	There is a need for congruence between what in international--isation activists would like to do and what senior managers would like; consent at all levels; and consensus reached via iteration, negotiation and mutual accommodation. Policies should be real and regulated rather than rhetorical; plans should be realistic,

resourced, and related across levels, practice should be relevant to client needs, related to practice elsewhere in the mission, and rigorous.

Rudzki (in Blok, 1995, p.28)	A survey of international office directors in the UK considered the most critical factors in successful internationalisation to be: 1.Favourable staff attitudes 2. having the active support of senior management 3. having staff with a specific international brief (the latter two being equal in criticality).
Carnestedt (1997, p.52)	A survey of international office directors (senior managers) in Australia considered the most critical factors in successful internationalisation to be: 1. having the active support of senior management 2. favourable staff attitudes 3. Having staff with a specific international brief. In Sweden, the most critical factors were: 1. favourable staff attitudes 2. Having the active support of senior management 3. having staff who are fluent in foreign languages.

A review of this table reveals three relatively common themes. First, there appears to be a preference for corporate management (or 'managerialist) models in the planning and administration of internationalisation. Although Rudzki (1998, p.192) suggests that there may be other relevant models, these are notably absent from the literature. Corporate management may be defined as

an approach to management which seeks to ensure that all staff and consumers see their organisation as a corporate whole and understand how their contribution fits into the overall objective and which includes processes to determine overall aims and objectives; recognise constraints and opportunities; devise strategies and structures to pursue aims, and allocate resources accordingly; develop evaluation techniques; and

communicate these activities to people both within the organisation and within other bodies. (Dept. of Community Services and Health, in Wanna, O'Faircheallaigh & Weller, 1992, p.77).

Second, there is a distinct preference for incremental rather than radical change in the implementation of international activities, together with an emphasis on intra-organisational collaboration rather than competition, and coordination in preference to fragmentation. Third, empirical research conducted across a number of countries points toward the need for senior management support and favourable staff attitudes as being particularly critical in achieving successful internationalisation. Research question 5 within this study seeks to explore the critical success factors underlying the effective management of international activities in Australian universities, and thus extend the work undertaken to date to this sphere of institutional activity.

2.2.4 Structures for Managing International Entrepreneurialism

A key issue in the literature concerns whether universities should embed their strategic processes in structures which reflect top-down or bottom-up flows of information and decisions. The consensus seems to be that an "either-or" approach to this issue is inappropriate, since either or both can be effective if there is match between the approach chosen and the organisation's context, circumstances and historical approach to organising (van Dijk & Meijer, 1997, p.160; van Dijk, in Blok, 1995, p.19; Back, Davis & Olsen, 1996, p.102).

The question of whether top-down or bottom-up processes should be embedded in organisational structures may thus appear unimportant since, as van Dijk found in a study of Dutch institutions,

we came to the conclusion that the perception of the respondents of the

model used by their own institution, be it top-down or bottom-up, did not tell us very much about the success of implementation.

<div align="right">

(van Dijk, in Blok, 1995, p.19)

</div>

Yet, structure cannot be dismissed so easily, since it continues to relate to effective or ineffective internationalisation in an apparently direct manner. For instance, while Aarts (1994) outlines the success of a 'spontaneous model' of decentralised and bottom-up internationalisation at the University of Limburg, Illing (1997, p.37) comments on a report into internationalisation at Central Queensland University which is highly critical of the use of a highly-devolved and decentralised structure used to manage the university's international entrepreneurial activities. Hundreds of thousands of dollars were to be written-off from failed overseas ventures undertaken by CQU Faculties which were found to differ greatly in their ability to manage funds.

Further, while case studies into successful examples of centralised and decentralised international operations may appear to support the notion that both types can be successful, this does little more than support the notion that some institutions seem to have appropriately matched their structure with their institution's context and circumstances.

The salient point is that processes of strategic management and strategy formation and implementation require a high degree of fit with the nature of the organisation in which such processes occur. Organisations may differ greatly in their modes of operation, and universities are not identical to corporations or indeed to other public sector organisations. Indeed, it may be argued that universities are not even identical to each other in this era of differentiation and specialisation. The key question in relation to structure is whether there is an appropriate match or degree of fit between the organisational structure developed for internationalisation and the traditional

ways in which individual institutions have structured their activities. These issues will be addressed in terms of responses to research questions 3 and 4.

2.2.5   International Education Management – Issues and Problems

A number of current issues are of relevance in defining the contemporary environment for the strategic management of international entrepreneurial activities in the Australian context.

An attack on the quality of management of internationalisation in the Australian context has been made by Pokarier and Ridings (1998). In sum, they argue that Australian universities have been able to hide poor management practices behind the veil of industry growth. So, for example, while the complexities of international marketing demanded the appointment of staff with competencies in the complexities of international markets, universities instead appointed staff from within their own ranks. The universities have thus 'wound up paying specialist wages in this area to decidedly unspecialised staff' (Pokarier & Ridings, 1998, p.11).

It is argued that this limited skills base has resulted in universities targeting soft target markets, primarily consisting of English-speaking countries like Singapore and Malaysia. This is perceived to be an 'unnecessarily narrow focus', in contrast with the success of many North American institutions in marketing to other regions (Pokarier & Ridings, 1998, p.11). It could be equally argued that the countries targeted by Australian universities reflect a shrewd, strategically appropriate approach given Australia's political, security and historical links with many of its Asian neighbours.

To Pokarier and Ridings, the ability of universities to achieve initial easy successes has enabled them to avoid 'serious critical reflection about the level of their institutional capabilities or the narrowness of their marketing

strategies'. The result is that little more than 'tokenistic' attempts to develop the market are made,

Although the need for market diversification has been much acknowledged, consequent 'strategic plans' and actual practices have frequently only been tokenistic…This claim is supported by the apparent failure of the institutions to engage in any serious analysis of both developments in a broader range of markets and of the actual determinants of student choices of destination and institution. The institutions have employed only scant resources in developing an understanding of new target markets. There has been excessive reliance on the limited analysis generated by bodies such as the AIEF (now Australian Education International) and IDP Australia which, being available to all their Australian competitors as well, has provided little basis for institutions to position themselves distinctly in neglected and emerging markets. Consequently, familiarisation visits and institutional links typically have been organised on an ad hoc basis.

(Pokarier & Ridings, 1998, pp.11-12)

This broad call for institutions to improve their strategic management of internationalisation is also one which has been made by Pratt and Poole (1998a) who state that,

In the end, the flattening of growth in some markets may mean that those institutions who do not seriously review their strategies and make the consequential adjustments required will potentially face the relatively higher costs which arise from the maintenance of unsustainable programs.

(Pratt & Poole, 1998a, p.25)

Similarly, Davies urges universities to 'be wary of sustaining commitment to projects beyond the point where continuing income is questionable' (Davies,

1995, p10). Whether or not such revenue-driven approaches are pedagogically sound, competitive pressures are indeed creating intense forces confronting the ability of universities to strategically manage them in a sound manner. Highly competitive markets may force institutions to accept marginal students rather than lose market share, or undertake liaisons with partners who are ill-equipped to participate in international education in an appropriate way (Evans & Kemp, 1997, p.3). Further, the ability of universities to make sound strategic decisions must come into question in the case of those institutions who may not even be aware whether the revenue generated by particular international strategies covers the costs of undertaking them (Booth, 1997, p.7).

Davies (1995, pp.11-12) lists several other organisational tensions arising from the pursuit of international entrepreneurial strategy in universities. First, there are the difficulties associated with the long-range control of franchise activities, both in terms of quality assurance and the general administration of such programs. Second, there are problems associated with the development and implementation of strategies by central marketing units at a rate faster than faculties and departments can cope with. Third, tensions arise from the fragmentation of effort between central units and academic departments, and the competition which arises between academic departments. Fourth, staff overload can occur. Fifth, there are often tensions over the equitable sharing of costs and revenues between central units and departments, and between the home institution and overseas partners. These kinds of tensions are explored in relation to research question 4.

Such tensions are not easy to resolve, but the need for resolution once again highlights the importance of developing strategic management models and methods which are appropriate to the nature of these potential problems. Several potentially useful models have been discussed thus far, however their

state of development reflects a continuing reality that 'the present state of the field could be well likened to an 'academic specialism in the 'pre-paradigmatic' phase of its evolution' (de Wit & Callan, in de Wit, 1995, p.93). The state of the field consequently demands consideration of concepts and models derived from the corporate management, international business and entrepreneurship literatures. As has been noted, international student fees provided $627 million in revenues for Australian universities during 1998 (rising to $786 million in 2000), representing 7.6 percent of total university income (DETYA, 1998b; Maslen, 2000a, p.10). International education, including the secondary and vocational education sectors, has become Australia's eighth largest export sector (IDP, 1999, p.1). The rhetoric of the industry has evolved in ways reflective of the language of the corporate sector, as in the proposition that the current evolutionary transition represents a movement from 'internationalisation' to 'differentiation' (van Leest, 1998, pp.12-13). A review of related informing fields such as strategic management and international business thus forms an integral element of this analysis.

2.2.6 Contributions from the International Education Management Field to the Study's Conceptual Framework

This study seeks to build on previous work undertaken in the field of international education management. A range of valuable insights and concepts discussed above direct attention to possible interview questions, themes to be explored and the potential format for case study descriptions. These insights and issues include:

- the degree to which institutions systematically manage, provide policy support and structure international activities, and the question of whether institutional rhetoric is matched with action in terms of support and rewards for international entrepreneurialism (Davies, 1995; van Dijk & Meijer,

1997)

- the extent to which institutional strategic management approaches are proactive or reactive, and the issue of whether this affects perceptions of managerial effectiveness (Rudzki, 1998)

- the proposition that a supportive institutional culture is required if international activities are to be integrated and reinforced across the institution (Knight, 1994; Manning, 1998)

- the relevance of the strategic management-based approaches of Knight (1994), Davies (1995), Rudzki (1998), Manning (1998) for the future management of Australian universities moving into the era of "differentiation"

These questions and issues significantly influence the nature and direction of this study. The interview questions and case study descriptions are structured in order to provide appropriate responses to the issues raised. This occurs within the context of a popular model of the strategic management process and a range of associated concepts complementary to and consistent with this approach.

2.3   STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT LITERATURE

The strategy and strategic management literature in higher education borrows

freely from the business and corporate literature. It provides a number of models and concepts which guide this study to a significant degree. These include the general approach of Mintzberg, the strategic management models of Thompson and Strickland (1998), the organisational learning dimension of Miller (1998), the organisational life cycle models of Greiner (1972) and Quinn and Cameron (1983), and contemporary models of strategic management for turbulent environments (Brown & Eisenhardt, 1998).

2.3.1 Mintzberg's Contribution

The general approach selected as an overarching framework for this research, and impacting directly upon the conceptual frameworks viewed as most appropriate for a study of this type is, for want of a better term, "Mintzbergian". That is, it reflects the commonly accepted approach to strategy which Henry Mintzberg formed after undertaking several empirical studies of strategy in different contexts. Strategic management models and frameworks which incorporate these elements are thus seen as more appropriate than those which do not, and are therefore selected as foundational to the research questions which inform the data collection phase of this study.

Mintzberg has made numerous significant observations about strategy on the basis of in-depth studies of various organisations. For instance, from a study of an entrepreneurial firm, Mintzberg and Waters (1982, pp.496, 498) concluded that the formation of clear, imaginative, and integrated visions derived primarily from the ability of entrepreneurial managers to synthesise the mass of information contained in the detailed knowledge and understanding which they possessed of the minutiae of their business. A second important conclusion was that the activity of planning in the entrepreneurial context is that it tends to occur when organisations already have intended strategies which need to be operationalised, rather than by the

accepted wisdom that planning creates strategy.

In a study of formation in adhocracies, Mintzberg and McHugh (1985, pp.195-195) observed that strategies tend to form very differently to that assumed by rational planning models. Rather than growing like 'tomatoes in a hothouse', strategies tend to grow more like 'weeds in the garden'. Like weeds, strategies can spring up anywhere, and these strategies may be viewed as 'organisational' when they come together as patterns and effect organisation-wide behaviour. This "weed-proliferation" or patterning can be a conscious or unconscious process, and the rise of new strategies is seen to occur during distinct periods of divergence punctuating periods of stability or convergence. Finally, the role for managers given this context is not to 'preconceive' strategies but instead to recognise them and to 'intervene when appropriate'.

These conclusions informed Mintzberg's (1994) frontal assault on formalised and rational strategic planning theories. The overriding 'grand fallacy' of strategic planning appears to be a synthesis of these observations,

> *Because analysis is not synthesis, strategic planning is not strategy formation…analysis cannot substitute for synthesis. No amount of elaboration will ever enable formal procedures to forecast discontinuities, to inform managers who are detached from their operations, to create novel strategies. Ultimately the term "strategic planning" has proved to be an oxymoron.* *(Mintzberg, 1994, p.321)*

Analysis is not synthesis for a number of reasons. In the first place, hard data cannot miraculously conceive creative or 'novel' strategies, as many in the rational school seem to assume. Second, managerial work is more simultaneous and "messy" than orderly and sequential, so that strategy-related

managerial work must similarly take place in this disorderly setting. That is, issues of analysis and synthesis are closely linked in the messy realities of managerial work. Managers thus cannot simply sit in a quiet place and develop the kinds of strategies required in contemporary organisations, both for this reason and because strategies of an emergent nature may be just as important, if not more so, than deliberative strategies.

Thus, in extending the weed and hothouse metaphor to theory, Mintzberg (1987, p.69) argues for a conceptualisation of strategy and strategic processes as encompassing both types of strategy, the deliberate and the emergent. While the balance between the types may differ from one organisation to another, both are significant, since,

For just as purely deliberate strategy precludes learning, so purely emergent strategy making precludes control. Pushed to the limit, neither approach makes sense. Learning must be coupled with control.(Mintzberg, 1987, p.69)

In sum, strategic approaches which balance these needs are arguably more appropriate than those reflecting one or other of the extremes. Learning and control are both important, and the balance between them depends on organisational contexts and circumstances.

A significant Mintzbergian (1994, p.205) observation is that a cynical approach is required whenever the use of formal planning techniques is supported by the alleged need to respond to turbulent environments. To Mintzberg, contemporary levels of environmental turbulence are far from unprecedented. While current environments may indeed be turbulent, previous periods have often been similarly labelled by the writers of the time, and may have been just as turbulent, albeit in different ways. Turbulence is a given, and

does not provide any better a rationale for using strategic planning techniques than it does for any other strategic management technique.

A second important observation concerns the use of strategic control mechanisms. Given the real nature of organisational strategy as consisting of both deliberate and emergent elements, strategic controls must be broader than those which simply measure organisational performance of the plan and planning processes. Since strategies may succeed without being initially intended, and because strategies may be perfectly implemented yet still prove inadequate, strategic control should be concerned with the performance of the organisation rather than the importance of planning (Mintzberg, 1994, p.360). Similarly, scrutinisation of strategies best takes place in an ad hoc manner better suited to the reality of strategies as weeds growing all over the place at different times and in different locations, rather than as a distinct, systematic step in the planning cycle (Mintzberg, 1994, p.379).

Finally, in commenting on strategy formation in professional-bureaucratic organisations such as universities, Mintzberg (1994, pp.404-405) affirms an earlier study which concluded that rational planning processes are irrelevant to such organisations, characterised as they are by work which is highly complex but stable in execution (Hardy et al, 1994). To implement formal techniques in these loosely coupled organisations has resulted in, at best, 'a great deal of waste, trying to fit the square pegs of planning into the round holes of organisation'. Strategies do exist in universities, and they tend to be characterised by fragmentation and a degree of relative stability. The role for strategic analysis in such contexts is in providing support for the debate and the interplay through which strategies take shape (Mintzberg, 1994, p.406).

Given the complexity and sophistication of interpretive models, it is arguable that the derivation of an appropriately sophisticated strategic management

model is an impossible task. Many of the debates about the topic remain unresolved, and it may be the case that elements of truth exist in each model. The contests of rational thinking versus generative thinking, deliberate versus emergent formation, and the need for evolutionary versus revolutionary strategic change continue apace (de Wit & Meyer, 1998, pp.75, 151, 243), and models of strategic management must be flexible enough to permit movement between these continuums. Two recent approaches to strategic management potentially offer the means to meet these dual and potentially contradictory needs for complexity and flexibility.

2.3.2   Miller's Contribution – Organisational Learning

In Miller's approach, perspectives on strategic management are viewed as falling into three camps (Miller, 1998, p.37). The traditional rational approach is seen to provide useful planning tools and techniques, but suffers from the rapidity with which plans can become outdated, and the difficulties associated with implementation. At the other end of the spectrum, incrementalism encourages flexibility and concern for strategy implementation, but does not encourage proactivity in controlling the organisation's future.

A perspective which potentially combines the best of both approaches is the 'organisational learning' perspective. Based on the theories of Quinn (in Miller, 1998, p.60), the Miller approach incorporates the continual rethinking and adjustment of incrementalism into a more proactive perspective. Rather than pursuing the aimless 'muddling through' of incrementalism, managers are encouraged to develop plans for the future which are then subject to continual adjustment as new insights are generated into how the firm can more successfully reach its goals.

The model assumes that no one approach dominates an organisation's

decision-making, and that strategic decisions are constantly being made at all organisational levels. Managers may have a vision of where they would like the organisation to become in the future, but move towards this vision in gradual steps rather than quantum leaps. As constant environmental scanners, managers move toward their vision via the process of maintaining strong core businesses at the same time as small 'side-bet' ventures are developed as 'necessary gambles' for future growth.

On the positive side, the organisational learning perspective seeks to take the best of the other approaches, and also benefits from its incorporation of the presence of both deliberate and emergent organisational strategies. Its proactivity arguably represents a better organisational option than pursuing organisational drift, and its development as an example of the "no one best way" approach is significant. In addition, the perspective provides an approach through which managers can implement a more interpretive process of strategic management.

2.3.3 Thompson and Strickland's Contribution – Diagnostic Models

Like Miller, Thompson and Strickland (1998) take a flexible approach to strategic management which combines the contributions of Mintzberg with insights generated by other significant contemporary writers in the field.

This approach, while accepting that good strategies do not necessarily result in good performances, begins with the premise that strategies which are better-conceived and better-executed are more likely to equate with strong organisational performance than those which lack these elements. Few would appear to disagree with Thompson and Strickland's contention that,

the essence of good strategy-making is to build a market position strong

enough and an organisation capable enough to produce successful performance despite unforeseeable events, potent competition, and internal difficulties. *(Thompson & Strickland, 1998, p.3)*

In a similar manner to Miller (1998), Thompson and Strickland view strategy as forming from both deliberative and emergent directions, although the approach does not seem to allow room for purely emergent strategies. Rather, it views changes and alterations to strategy as occurring around the 'game plan' of intended strategy, which is adapted as events unfold (1998, p.9). The frequent 'tweaking and fine tuning' of strategies throughout the organisation is viewed as a normal part of strategic management, with strategy reforming to incorporate the altered elements. Current strategy is thus 'typically a blend of holdover approaches, fresh actions and reactions, and potential moves in the planning stage'.

While viewing revolutionary change occurring too regularly as an indicator of poor entrepreneurship in organisations, this approach sees quantum changes in strategy as necessary in particular circumstances (1998, p.14). The need for entrepreneurial behaviour by managers is central to the Thompson and Strickland approach (1998, p.10). The strategy formation task depends on the use of 'outside-in' strategic thinking. This kind of thinking relies on the use of 'first-rate entrepreneurship' in listening to customers, studying market trends and seeking to enhance organisational competitiveness as the basis for strategy formation. The alternative is the kind of 'inside-out' strategic thinking undertaken by managers with poor entrepreneurial skills. This results in strategic preoccupations with internal organisational problems or 'stale strategies' which are slightly modified versions of current strategies. In addition, the 'outside-in' approach demands the participation of all managers in the exercise of entrepreneurship and the implemention of 'prudent risks' where appropriate (1998, p.13).

A five-task strategic management model underlies this approach. Illustrated in Figure 2.9, the model provides a process approach which assumes that changing circumstances demand a view of strategic management as an 'ongoing, never ending process' with much 'interplay and recycling' between the tasks (Thompson and Strickland, 1998, p.16). It is thus somewhat different from those approaches which view the process as a sequential activity. To the contrary, the five tasks are deeply linked to the normal 'erratic' demands on a manager's time, with organisational and strategic change never expected to occur in an orderly or predictable way. Further, although the organisation's chief executive remains 'the most visible and important strategy-maker', organisational responsibilities for strategic management are viewed as being best delegated to match each manager's normal responsibilities, since the act of participation in strategy-making creates a higher chance of 'buy-in' by managers at other levels, and works to fix responsibilities for the outcomes of strategy to levels at which implementation occurs (Thompson and Strickland, 1998, pp.18-19).

Figure 2.9   The Five Tasks of Strategic Management

Developing a strategic vision and business mission	Setting objectives	Crafting a strategy to achieve the objectives	Imple-menting and executing the strategy	Evaluating performance, monitoring new developments, and initiating corrective adjustments

| Revise as needed | Revise as needed | Improve/Change as needed | Improve/Change as needed | Recyle to Tasks 1, 2, 3 or 4 as needed |
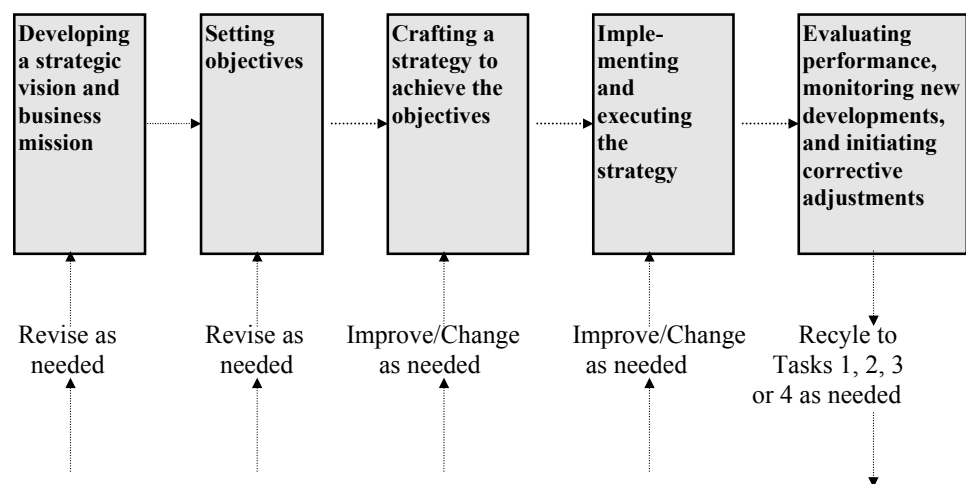
In addition to the five-task model of strategic management, Thompson and Strickland suggest a further conceptual model (Figure 2.10) which may assist in the construction of an appropriate conceptual framework for this research. The model describes the strategy implementation task and consists of eight requirements for managers to consider when building the kind of organisation capable of successfully implementing any significant strategy. While accepting that the approach does need to be crafted to fit each organisation's unique circumstances, the model consists of questions which do need to be answered at some point if implementation is to occur successfully (Thompson & Strickland, 1998, p.270).

Thompson and Strickland view the implementation task as the most complicated and time-consuming of the strategic management process, with proficient execution dependent on organisational learning (1998, p.16). Its aim is to achieve strong 'degrees of fit' between the strategies and the type of organisation which must implement them.

Figure 2.10   Strategy Implementation - Components

Allocating ample resources to strategy-critical activities

Exercising the strategic leadership needed to drive implementation forward

Shaping the work environment and corporate culture to fit the strategies

THE STRATEGY IMPLEMENTER'S ACTION AGENDA
- **what to do now vs. later**
- **what requires much time and personal attention**
- **what can be delegated to others**

Building an organisation with the competencies, capabilities and resource strengths needed for strategy execution

Tying rewards and incentives to the achievement of key strategic targets

Establishing strategy-supportive policies

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Installing information, communication
and operating systems that enable
their strategic roles proficiently

Instituting best practices and
pushing for continuous improvement

In particular, the most important fits are deemed to be those between strategies and organisational capabilities, strategies and the reward structure, strategies and the organisation's internal support systems, and strategies and organisational culture. It is argued that the better the fit, the higher the chance of achieving organisational success. This is a hypothesis worth examining in light of the research to be undertaken in this study.

Further, the Thompson and Strickland approach leans heavily on the need for organisations to build their core competencies and develop their competitive capabilities. This is particularly important for organisations operating in industries in which strategies are easily imitated, as appears to be the case for many of the participants in the university sector. For these organisations, the opportunity exists to 'outexecute' competitors through the development of kinds of core competencies, resource strengths and organisational capabilities which competitors cannot match. Core competencies can derive from anything which the organisation does, and

> *they often emerge incrementally as the organisation moves to bolster skills that contributed to earlier successes or to respond to customer problems, new technological and market opportunities, and the moves of rivals.*
>
> *(Thompson & Strickland, 1998, p.274)*

Relying heavily on the work of Quinn (1992), Thompson and Strickland summarise the requirements for organisations seeking to outexecute their competitors:

In leveraging internal knowledge and skills rather than physical assets or market position, it is superior selection, training, powerful cultural influences, corporate networking, motivation, empowerment, attractive incentives, organisational flexibility, short deadlines, and good databases - not big operating budgets - that are the usual keys to success.

(Thompson & Strickland, 1998, p.274)

Finally, in discussing the linkages between strategy and structure, Thompson and Strickland (1998, p.277) note that there are 'few hard and fast rules'. The critical factor is for organisations to provide the optimal structure in which its key strategy-critical or value chain activities and capabilities can be located. Such activities need to be the central building blocks of organisational structure if they are to have the resources, decision-making influence and organisational impact needed to succeed. One approach to achieving this is to locate together the key processes and functions associated with important activities (Thompson & Strickland, 1998, p.283), and this appears to be an approach utilised by some universities in organising international-entrepreneurial activities (see, for example, Logan, 1994).

It is important to state, however, that the strategy of 'outexecution' may not be enough in some industries. Achieving operational effectiveness may be necessary, but it is a potentially insufficient characteristic for long-term success. One reason for this is that best practices increasingly diffuse more and more rapidly into general organisational practice (Porter, 1996, p.63). Competitive strategy, if it is to really be 'competitive', depends on organisations 'being different'. According to Porter,

it is about deliberately choosing a different set of activities to deliver a unique mix of value. *(Porter, 1996,*

p.64)

Similarly, Hamel (1997, p.33) argues that we have reached the 'end of incrementalism' in relying on differences in quality, cost, time-to-market, and process improvement in creating new organisational wealth. In calling on organisations to consider new voices, conversations, perspectives and passions in their development of strategies, Hamel argues that the best way for organisations to achieve strategic success is to,

renew our commitment to developing and executing innovative strategies. I believe we should spend less time working on strategy as a "thing" and more

time working to understand the preconditions that give rise to the "thing".
(Hamel, 1997, p.33)

It is arguable that the necessity to be different grows as industries move toward maturity. The educational market appears to be only now heading in this direction. For this reason, outexecuting competitors may historically have given rise to competitive advantages for some institutions, and this may continue to be the case. Indeed, it may continue to be the case for some time to come. On the other hand, it does appear that some specific markets are reaching maturity and/or saturation, and the need for differentiation in these markets is clear (Evans & Kemp, 1997, p.3; van Leest, 1998, p.5). The attractiveness of pursuing executional as distinct from differential advantages is thus an important research issue given the contemporary nature of international fee-paying education.

2.3.4 Organisational Life Cycle Models

It has been suggested that the design, development and behaviour of organisations can be predicted by means of organisational life cycle models (Quinn & Cameron, 1983, p.33). Key assumptions made by such models include the notion that structure plays a critical role in influencing strategy (Greiner, 1972, p.38); that each phase of the model is 'both an effect of the previous phase and a cause for the next phase' (Greiner, 1972, p.41) ; that management actions at each phase are narrowly prescribed if the organisation is to continue growing (Greiner, 1972, p.41); and that 'the criteria used to evaluate an organisation's success in one stage of development may be different from criteria used to evaluate success in another stage of development' (Quinn & Cameron, 1983, p.40). A summary model of the organisational life cycle is illustrated in Figure 2.11.

The organisational life cycle model is included in this review because considerations of institutional structures should not be isolated from the reality that the universities studied may be at different stages of evolution and development. Different criteria of effectiveness should accordingly be applied depending on the stage of institutional development in the management of international entrepreneurial activities.

Figure 2.11 Integrative Organisational Life Cycle Model

1. Entrepreneurial Stage	2. Collectivity Stage	3. Formalisation & Control Stage	4. Elaboration of Structure Stage
- marshalling of resources	- informal communication & structure	- formalisation of rules	- elaboration of structure
- lots of ideas	- sense of collectivity	- stable structure	- decentralisation
- entrepreneurial activities	- long hours spent	- emphasis on efficiency & maintenance	- domain expansion
- little planning & coordination	- sense of mission	- conservatism	- adaptation
- formation of a "niche"	- innovation continues	- institutionalised procedures	- renewal
- "prime mover" has power	- high commitment		

Source: Quinn and Cameron, 1983, p.35.

Consistent with this model, it is also argued that university strategies should

reflect the life cycles of the markets being targeted, and that different marketing strategies should be pursued depending on the maturity of the country market being targeted. In the formative stages of a market's evolution, for example, the development of general product knowledge about a country's international education offerings is more important than seeking to create an awareness of niche programs at particular universities. Marketing in mature markets requires attention to maintaining sales volumes against strong competition, chiefly through high levels of promotion and increased product diversification, while marketing in saturated markets may require even more promotion and consideration of different modes of delivery (Evans & Kemp, 1997, pp.3-4). Such modes, like the establishment of offshore campuses and the twinning programs, are increasingly common in mature markets and are often being introduced in earlier stages of the life cycle in less-developed markets (Evans & Kemp, 1997, p.4). In sum, the level of maturity of the country market being targeted should, under this model, suggest the appropriate strategies to be followed.

2.3.5 Strategic Management in Turbulent Environments

Based on case studies of US computing firms, Brown and Eisenhardt (1998) have combined insights from chaos, complexity, systems and evolutionary theories to develop a new framework for strategic management in fast-moving industries. In sum,

> *Competing on the edge contrasts with other approaches to strategy that assume clear industry boundaries, predictable competition, or a knowable future...In contrast, competing on the edge assumes that industries are rapidly changing and, therefore, that the central strategic challenge is managing change.* (Brown & Eisenhardt, 1998, p.7)

Interestingly, this is the point at which Presley and Lesley (1997) concluded in their recent analysis of higher education strategy. Rather than travelling further down the strategy path, they argue that the research agenda should begin with the study of successful and unsuccessful institutional adaptations to change. Change is thus the focus, not strategy or strategic planning, per se.

The foundation level is to compete 'at the edge of chaos'. According to Brown and Eisenhardt,

...too much chaos makes it difficult to coordinate change...too much structure makes it hard for a firm to move...the edge of chaos lies in an intermediate zone where organisations never quite settle into an equilibrium, but never quite fall apart, either. The power of a few simple structures is at the heart of the edge of chaos..The critical management issue is to figure out what to structure, and as essential, what not to structure.

(Brown & Eisenhardt, 1998, pp.11-12)

The major building blocks for competing on the edge are illustrated in Figure 2.12.

Figure 2.12   The Building Blocks for 'Competing on the Edge'
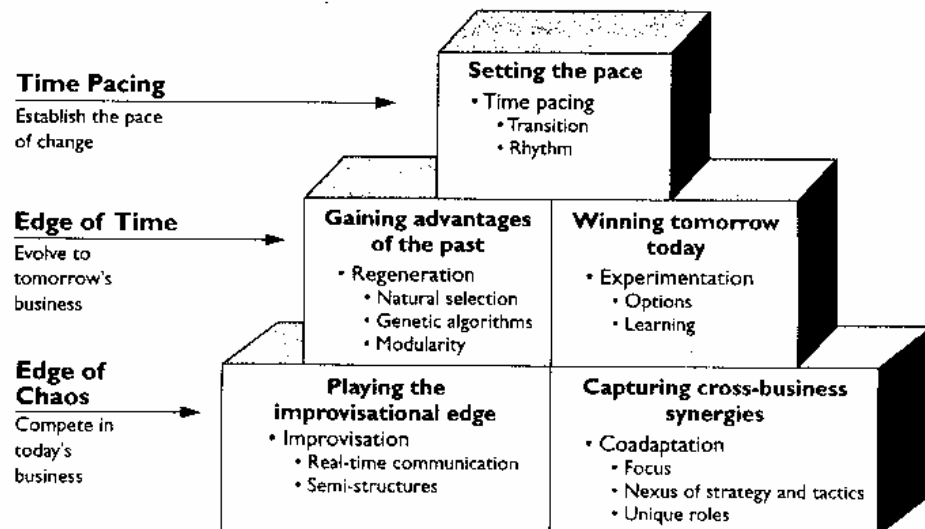
Source: Brown and Eisenhardt, 1998, p.23.

A major element of edge of chaos management is improvisation. Organisations characterised by this trait have adaptive cultures, where managers expect change and thus 'anticipate the need to iterate, backtrack, and adjust what they are doing'. Such organisations also rely on a few key structures and inviolable key structure points such as deadlines, responsibilities for major outcomes, and targeted real-time measures. Finally, real-time communication involves the encouragement of substantial communication of all types throughout the organisation, bounded by real time, the tasks at hand, and a focus on key issues such as customer complaints and competitors' moves (Brown & Eisenhardt, 1998, p.47).

The second major element of edge of chaos management is coadaptation, the achievement of both collaborative synergies and individual successes within multiple-business organisations. Key management practices for coadaptation

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include locating decision making about collaboration across businesses where long-term strategies and short-term tactics meet, primarily in cross-business management groups, targeting collaborative activities to a small number of high payoff areas, and creating roles for each business which does not subsume their individuality into one collective egalitarian mass (Brown & Eisenhardt, 1998, pp.80-88). While universities are not multiple businesses, it could be argued that there are indeed multiple international businesses within each institution, since faculties in some institutions tend to retain a high degree of autonomy for the management of their own international-entrepreneurial programs.

Competing at the edge of time (the second level in Figure 2.12) requires 'thinking simultaneously about multiple time horizons' in order to gain the benefits of past experience while still keeping an eye on the future, competing vigorously in today's markets, and knowing that there will be a significant overlap in how each affects the other (Brown & Eisenhardt, 1998, p.13). Gaining advantage from the past involves the concept of regeneration, in which managers seek to use new activities to refresh the old, thus blending the old and the new, having a critical mass of experienced people assisting in new endeavours, using tactics such as rearchitecture and recombination to accelerate adjustment to change and temper risk, and relying on modularity (segmentation) in strategies, customers, and products to enable adjustment to different rates of change in these areas (Brown & Eisenhardt, 1998, p.120). A second important concept to leverage time is that of experimentation, the willingness to undertake small, fast, cheap probes into markets in order to both make a commitment to the future and retain flexibility for the future (Brown & Eisenhardt, 1998, p.129). Managers effectively using this concept tend to have a simple and clearly defined vision for the future, generally use a variety of low-cost probes to experiment, and tend to give 'constant but thin' attention to the future (Brown & Eisenhardt, 1998, pp.148-149).

At the final level of competing on the edge strategic management, the concept of time pacing concerns,

..creating new products, introducing new services, launching new businesses, and entering new markets according to the calendar...it is about running a business through routine and regular deadlines that become a rhythm...an internal metronome.

(Brown & Eisenhardt, 1998, p.164)

Time pacing provides a stimulus for organisation to continue to innovate and act creatively. It acts to force managers to 'look up from their businesses on a regular basis, survey the situation, adapt if necessary, and then get back to work' (Brown & Eisenhardt, 1998, p.167).

In sum, concepts like bounded instability and competing on the edge are potentially significant to university international entrepreneurialism since the international-entrepreneurial education market now requires constant attention to innovation, to adaptation, and to change if institutions are to maintain their competitive advantage.

2.3.6 A Guiding Conceptual Model - Integrating the Key Concepts Arising in the Primary (International Education Management) and Secondary (Strategic Management) Fields

Focussing particularly upon the contributions of Knight (1994) in the international education management field and Thompson and Strickland

(1998) in the strategic management field, a logical framework arises for the analysis of the case studies to be reported in Chapters 5 and 6. This conceptual approach incorporates Mintzberg's approach to strategy, Miller's organisational learning contribution, and Knight's contribution. The latter takes the form, as noted above, of a comprehensive and widely accepted international education management model incorporating flexibility and the need for an integrating organisational culture to sustain the process over the long-term.

A comprehensive case description based on these models should therefore contain the following elements:

- **Strategies** – tasks 1-3 of the Thompson and Strickland (1998, p.4) model; included in task 3 of Knight's (1994, p.122) model

- **Rationales for Strategies and Modes** – also tasks 1-3 of the Thompson and Strickland model; arguably incorporated within task 1 of Knight's (1994, p.122) model

- **Structures** – a key dimension of Thompson and Strickland's (1998, p.4) task 4 and included in Manning's (1998, p.188) extension of the Knight model

- **Systems** – an array of strategy-supporting systems and review processes (Thompson & Strickland, 1998, p.4; Knight, 1994, p.122)

- **Culture** – an entrepreneurially-supportive culture (Thompson & Strickland, 1999, pp.334-338; Knight, 1994, p.122)

- **Impacts of International Entrepreneurialism on Core University Values and from Business Faculty Dominance** – justified below in the university and public sector entrepreneurialism literature

- **Organisational Learning and Leadership** – the potential significance of organisational learning is justified above in relation to Miller's (1998) contribution. Leadership is a key dimension of the Knight (1994, p.122) and Thompson and Strickland (1998, pp.13-14) models.

This framework provides a set of boundaries within which contributions from the informing fields can be critically analysed and structured. Research question 6 seeks to evaluate the appropriateness of this framework for evaluating and describing both current managerial processes and perceived future demands. Such evolving demands are a consequence of greater institutional competition, the rise of new delivery mechanisms, and the growth of more porous boundaries between national systems of higher education and information generation and dissemination sectors of the economy.

2.4 UNIVERSITY AND PUBLIC SECTOR ENTREPRENEURIALISM LITERATURE

The purpose of this section is to review the literature pertaining to entrepreneurialism in the public sector and, within that, entrepreneurialism in universities. The focus of this thesis, university international entrepreneurialism, is a direct descendent of the fields of entrepreneurship and

entrepreneurialism since such activities represent a significant component of both the Australian public sector's entrepreneurial activities in general and the university sector's entrepreneurial activities in particular (Selth, in Wanna, Forster & Graham, 1996, p.145; Philpott, 1994, p15; Slaughter & Leslie, 1997, p.3; Coaldrake, in Wanna, Forster & Graham, 1996, p.72).

Following a discussion of the rise of public sector entrepreneurialism in Australia, the section will proceed to examine the ways in which public sector entrepreneurship differs from entrepreneurship in the corporate and business contexts, and summarises the suggested characteristics of effective entrepreneurs and entrepreneurial programs in the public sector. Next, the section moves to a discussion of university entrepreneurialism with an analysis of the key differences between university and business entrepreneurship, an overview of the nature of university entrepreneurship, a discussion of the proposed characteristics of effective university entrepreneurship, and a summation of the major criticisms of (and responses to) university entrepreneurialism. The terms 'entrepreneurialism' and 'entrepreneurship' are used interchangeably throughout this study, with the former being used to describe the general concept of entrepreneurial behaviour and the latter used in descriptions of the specific act of being entrepreneurial.

2.4.1   Public Sector Entrepreneurialism

Originating in the public sector reforms of the 1970s and 1980s, recognition of the need for the Australian public sector to pursue entrepreneurial management has proceeded rapidly, particularly in recent years. According to Forster, Graham and Wanna, the 'new public entrepreneurialism' involves,

reconstructing the activities of the public sector to increase the long-term

*viability of agencies (or functions) and enable the public sector to adapt to
major change...At its most extreme public entrepreneurialism represents a
totally new way of doing business for the public sector. In this sense
entrepreneurial management could promote transformational change...In a
more limited sense, entrepreneurialism within public organisations may
complement administrative reforms as an extension of commercial activity
or innovative ways of performing services.*

*(Forster, Graham & Wanna, in Wanna, Forster, & Graham, 1996,
p.2)*

The new demands for entrepreneurial management suggest a complete
reconceptualisation of the way in which the public sector operates, and of the
outputs and outcomes pursued. For some institutions, such as those in the
education sector, the pressures to become entrepreneurial have resulted in the
need to face new risks previously largely unknown to the sector, and to
operate in 'new territories' unfamiliar to these institutions (Forster, Graham &
Wanna, in Wanna, Forster & Graham, 1996, p.3). In sum, public sector
institutions find themselves operating increasingly in unfamiliar environments
characterised by risk and uncertainty.

Managers in the public sector have experienced new tensions created by these
new demands. The aims being pursued by entrepreneurial managers are
quantitatively and qualitatively different to those pursued by traditional public
sector managers. They are broader and 'relate to a wider conception of
purpose and rationale for activity' (Forster, Graham & Wanna, in Wanna,
Forster & Graham, 1996, p.10). Yet, unlike their corporate sector
counterparts, public sector managers continue to be accountable for traditional
notions of public sector accountability such as in the provision of due process,
accountability, detailed reporting requirements, disclosure, and equity and
access demands (Koch, in Wanna, Forster & Graham, 1996, p.34). As will be

shown below, such conflicting demands add an element of ambiguity to the roles of public sector entrepreneurs.

2.4.2 Differences Between Public Sector and Business Entrepreneurialism

Managers in the public sector are often subject to dual pressures in their responses to the demands for entrepreneurialism. While innovation and entrepreneurship is increasingly required of them, a parallel development has been a growing intolerance for entrepreneurial failure by politicians and other stakeholders with an interest in Australian public sector management (Forster, Graham & Wanna, in Wanna, Forster & Graham, 1996, p.13). This makes public sector entrepreneurship markedly different from entrepreneurship in the business sector, since failures are often viewed in that domain as a natural occurrence which may arise in the search for new opportunities.

Within the public sector, the skills required for successful public sector entrepreneurship are totally different to those required in traditional public sector bureaucracies, and tensions thus inevitably arise over objectives, rationales, and performance standards (Koch, in Wanna, Forster & Graham, 1996, p.35). Problems may also be potentially encountered since 'public servants are often ill-trained for this potentially momentous step' (Forster, Graham & Wanna, in Wanna, Forster & Graham, 1996, p.14). A possible reason for this deficiency in entrepreneurial training may be found in the ways in which public sector institutions have historically struggled with management concepts derived from the business sector. The adaptation of such concepts has often occurred with little thought for the peculiarities of public sector management, leading writers like Micklethwait and Wooldridge (1996, p.287) to conclude that most "new" management practices adopted in the public sector are simply borrowed in their totality from the private sector,

so that,

It often seems like a bureaucratic version of Chinese Whispers, with one group of people applying what they think another group of people has said.
(Micklethwait & Wooldridge, 1996, p.287)

It is noteworthy that even those calling loudest for entrepreneurship in the public sector seek to distance themselves to some degree from the concept that governments should be run like businesses. Given the need for governments to pursue democracy and openness, to 'do good' rather than simply turn a dollar, and to provide services with an emphasis on equity and access, proponents of public sector entrepreneurialism like Osborne and Gaebler (1992, pp.19-22) still call for caution in viewing public sector management with a wholly corporatist eye. While governments should seek to operate entrepreneurially to a greater degree than has traditionally been the case, the differences between government and business 'add up to one conclusion: government cannot be run like a business'.

In sum, distinctive differences remain between the public and business sectors, and caution clearly needs to underlie any attempt to view public sector institutions such as universities through the managerialist lense (Bessant, 1995). Nonetheless, it is possible that moves toward entrepreneurialism do involve the creation of new affinities with the private sector (Forster, Graham & Wanna, in Wanna, Forster & Graham, 1996, p.14), and this development will be further examined below in terms of the differences between business sector and university entrepreneurialism.

2.4.3   Characteristics of Effective Public Sector Entrepreneurship

It is suggested that effective public sector entrepreneurs possess five major

characteristics (Forster, Graham & Wanna, in Wanna, Forster & Graham, 1996, p.11). First, leadership is required to promote new ideas and provide visions, and to promote and manage change. Second, creativity and innovation requires the ability to reconceptualise activities, and to challenge existing processes and patterns. Third, an ability to take judicious risks in order to better deploy resources is demanded. Fourth, entrepreneurial managers need to be opportunists who can identify and exploit appropriate opportunities appearing in the environment. Finally, facilitation and coordination skills are necessary in order to coordinate key players, processes, resources, and constituents. Graham and Harper (in Wanna, Forster & Graham, 1996, p.65), identify the three former characteristics as being significant, and add the further need for managers to handle conflict and resolve differences, balance multiple viewpoints and demands, and build teamwork and consensus.

Taking a somewhat different approach, Godfrey (in Wanna, Forster & Graham, 1996, p.49), argues that effective entrepreneurial managers possess two key characteristics, and are increasingly likely to possess a third. The first characteristic is that such managers see themselves primarily as managers rather than bureaucrats, and use commercial models, frameworks and tests of effectiveness. Second, they focus on the needs of their external customers, with the normal adherence to regulations being subordinate, within the law, to meeting these needs. The third characteristic is that such managers emphasise their staff as the key source of their organisation's strength, and emphasise organisational learning as key to institutional sustainability.

Focusing on the kind of environment in which public sector managers operate, Osborne and Gaebler (1992, pp.209-217) argue that entrepreneurial behaviours are more likely to occur when organisational and individual incentives for sharing savings and earnings are institutionalised, innovation capital is made available, enterprise funds and profit centres are created, and

the true costs of providing services are identified.

In sum, it is obvious that in this domain, individual and environmental characteristics are identified which either derive from or sit comfortably with business practices. Nonetheless, differences arguably continue to exist between the sectors, including the conflict between the 'traditions of conventional thinking and avoidance of failure', and the need to explore new territory (Graham and Harper, in Wanna, Forster & Graham, 1996, p.65).

2.4.4   The Nature of University Entrepreneurialism

To Clark, "entrepreneurial" is defined in relation to the context in which it occurs in higher education, thus

An entrepreneurial university, on its own, actively seeks to innovate in how it goes about its business.   *(Clark, 1998, p.4)*

Further, the word "entrepreneurial" is chosen over an alternative term, "innovation' because,

it points more powerfully to deliberate local effort, to actions that lead to change in organisational posture.   *(Clark, 1998, p.4)*

This definition is somewhat different to that proposed in the Macquarie Dictionary (1993, p.314), which defines an entrepreneur as 'one who organises and manages any enterprise', and that proposed in a contemporary management text (Hellriegel, Jackson & Slocum, 1999, p.G-3) which defines an entrepreneur as 'someone who creates a new business activity in the economy'. Here at least there is the concept of creating something new or original, a theme which would at surface-level appear to be fundamental for

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differentiating "entrepreneurialism" from general conceptions of "management".

A different approach is taken by Slaughter and Leslie (1997, p.11) who subsume the variety of business-like activities undertaken by universities under the term 'academic capitalism'. Academic capitalism is said to consist of those 'market and market-like behaviours on the part of universities and faculty' including competition for external sources of funding, explicit for-profit activities, the sale of products and services, and similar institutional activities.

None of these definitions really do justice to the term for the purposes of this research. For instance, Clark's definition is somewhat insufficient since innovation can be viewed differently from different perspectives. For instance, some universities may see innovation as doing something which none of its competitors is doing, while for others the development of imitative strategies following those of perceived leaders may be viewed, within the imitative institutions, as doing the new and creative. However, if the context is broadened to incorporate such differences, then the Clark definition may be deemed appropriate for this study.

Entrepreneurialism in the university sector consists of a number of possible activities (Philpott, 1994, p.15), such as,

- selling degree courses to foreign students
- providing short, in-service training courses for government departments and private companies
- openly and competitively soliciting and winning government or corporate funds for contract research projects
- operating industrial parks for start-up companies

- selling patent rights

- contracting to provide analysis and testing services

- leasing university equipment

- setting up university consulting companies

Different countries tend to focus their entrepreneurial activities on different combinations of these activities. For instance, universities in Australia have focused in contemporary times more on the first and last of these activities, with the first being the focus for this research project. As noted above, over 7 percent of university revenues (or $627 million in 1998) came from international student fees in 1998, while the revenues generated by university consulting companies were estimated at over $240 million in 1998 (Thorp, 2000, p.37). It is important to note that these companies generally undertake a number of the activities listed above, such as patenting, marketing, and the administration of executive development programs, as well as traditional consulting activities, so there is a degree of some overlap between several of these activities.

A number of writers have endeavored to develop estimations of the costs and benefits for universities and academics arising from entrepreneurial activities. In a study of entrepreneurial research at two Australian universities, Leslie and Harrold (1993, p.99) found that respondents in one university estimated the ratio of indirect benefits to direct benefits as being 1.66:1, and estimated them to be 1.98:1 in the second university. Overall, benefit to cost ratios were 3.7:1 and 2.9:1, with the major indirect benefits viewed as being, in order, relations with external bodies, prestige, spillovers to research, spillovers to teaching, and future consulting opportunities. A study of a Western Australian university by Philpott (1994) using similar methodology but focusing on the full range of entrepreneurial activities found fairly similar responses, with prestige ranking first, relations with external bodies second, consulting third

and spillovers fourth and fifth. The major indirect costs identified by the respondents to the Leslie and Harrold study were academic resources consumed, loss of time for basic research, time of higher support personnel consumed, revenue substitution, and equipment loss. The Philpott study also found similar results, with the addition that personal social costs were viewed in this study as the major indirect cost of entrepreneurial activities.

Focusing on entrepreneurial departments within Australian universities, Slaughter and Leslie (1997, pp.121-128) found broadly similar results to the Leslie and Harrold (1993) and Philpott (1994) studies and, in further qualitative research conducted in several Australian universities, made two further significant findings of interest to this study. First, the heads of entrepreneurial research centres were viewed as evolving to the point that they possessed distinct similarities with the managers of small and medium sized business organisations. The one major difference was that they did not appear to take the risks commonly associated with business enterprises, but instead pursued commercial activities in ways which complemented their long-term research agendas (Slaughter & Leslie, 1997, pp.163-164). A second significant finding was that while these senior staff may not have been aware of their unit's long-term strategies, they had nonetheless presided over the creation of new organisational structures, transdisciplinary knowledge, engagement in external activities, and the differentiation of their unit and its work from those of colleagues (Slaughter & Leslie, 1997, p.159). In this way,

they were reshaping their universities and creating organisations like small firms that were always in the process of expansion, often in ways not particularly related to the education process.

(Slaughter & Leslie, 1997, p.159)

It will be potentially significant to see whether the same kinds of processes,

including the development of new structures, strategies and processes, have also been taking place in the management of international entrepreneurial teaching-based activities. This is addressed in research question 3 of the present study.

2.4.5   Differences Between University and Business Entrepreneurship

Two significant differences between entrepreneurship in universities and that occurring in the business sector are discussed in the literature. The first relates to the kinds of decision-making processes which are perceived to be characteristic of university entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurship in this sector is viewed as a collective, rather than purely individual activity in which people come together across a range of institutional units throughout the university to develop and integrate entrepreneurial activities (Clark, 1998, p.4). Similarly, Forster, Graham and Wanna state that a defining characteristic of public sector entrepreneurship is that it,

> *does not rely principally on the rare gifts of special individuals, but on a*
> *group desire in organisations to change, adapt, innovate and entertain risk.*
> *(Forster, Graham & Wanna, in Wanna, Forster & Graham, 1996, p.11)*

In addition to its collective nature, a further defining characteristic of university entrepreneurship is that it tends to lag behind the take-up rate of entrepreneurial management practices in both the business sector and in other parts of the public sector. One study of colleges and universities in the United States found that the incorporation of innovations in areas such as financial management practices tended to lag the corporate sector by up to forty years (Graham & Harper, in Wanna, Forster & Graham, 1996, p.58). Although this figure appears an exaggeration, a recent study conducted by Birnbaum (2000, p.8) affirms the view that arguing that most management 'fads' are taken-up

by universities some time after the corporate sector. Many are introduced at the very time they are being discarded by private sector organisations. In the Australian context, Coaldrake (in Wanna, Forster & Graham, 1996, p.72) states that universities are 'cumbersome institutions not immediately receptive to being drawn by a strata of entrepreneurial management', since they tend to remain heavily bound by formal rules and conventional prescriptions for internal management practices.

The most significant reason for these differences may derive from the existence of the political and social constraints which impact on universities to a much greater extent than on business organisations (Philpott, 1994, p.137). Such constraints may cause university managers to make decisions which appear to outsiders to be less than optimal, so that

Although universities do respond as firms, there are a number of unusual (for a firm) characteristics in the specific dimensions of their responses. Political and social considerations may be given a very high weight in university planning and decision-making, higher than in even the most socially-sensitive and responsive firm. Economically rational decisions may not be made, or may not be made in their simplest form, unless there are additional benefits for the university such as prestige, spillovers to teaching and research, and program and staff quality improvement potentials.

(Philpott, 1994, p.137)

Thus, while universities continue to exhibit characteristics differentiating them from business corporations, their activities, strategies and structures are more closely resembling those of their corporate counterparts. McNay (in Schuller, 1995, pp.106-111) argues that corporation and enterprise models provide a more accurate description for contemporary universities than do traditional models of bureaucracy and the collegium, while Buchbinder and Newson

(1992, p.15) state that universities are moving continually closer to the model of a 'cost-effective business operation'. In sum, while universities remain different to corporations to some degree, they are increasingly being exhorted to pursue the strategies and management techniques of business corporations by outsourcing, reviewing their missions, and forming alliances with other universities and private sector organisations (Mahoney, 1997, pp.44-45).

Such exhortations increasingly seem to be taking on a corporate management hue, even when originating from university leaders. To cite one example, the Administrative Pro-Vice Chancellor of the University of Sydney, Professor Chris Burgess, has been quoted as stating that 'universities will need to be run on hard-nosed, professional business lines to "survive and thrive" with their academic integrity intact' (*The Australian*, 18 March 1998, p.39), while a former senior manager at the University of New England has also used corporate language to describe the challenges facing contemporary university managers,

We must develop comprehensive risk strategies or contingency planning, considering matters such as unplanned deficits, market down-turns for commercial operations, and planned increases of reserves for such contingencies....Universities will no longer be able to be all things to all consumers. The best will focus on key strategic programs through which they will establish or maintain a national or international leadership position. *(Sharpham, 1996, p.8)*

2.4.6   Characteristics of Effective University Entrepreneurship

A recent analysis by Burton Clark (1998) of several European universities widely considered as entrepreneurial revealed the presence of five

characteristics which appeared to be common to each of the institutions. The first characteristic, denoted as the 'strengthened steering core' consists of the capacity of institutions to direct their own activities with the aim of achieving greater speed and flexibility, and a focus on reacting appropriately to changing environmental conditions. Developing an 'expanded development periphery' represents a second important characteristic. This periphery consists of professional outreach offices or project-oriented research centres which mediate between the departments and their external environment. Third, entrepreneurial universities pursue a 'diversified funding base' in order to build discretionary powers over funding and its use. Fourth, an emphasis on the development of a 'stimulated academic heartland' which focuses on the pursuit of entrepreneurial activities across all departments seeks to generate the maximum benefits available from acting entrepreneurially across the institution. Finally, the formation of an 'integrated entrepreneurial culture' which values entrepreneurship is viewed as an essential characteristic if a university is to be truly entrepreneurial (Clark, 1998, pp.5-8).

There is no one "right way" of developing these characteristics. The strengthened steering core, for instance, could be based on either a centralised or decentralised structure, while there is no single model to be emulated in the development of an expanded development periphery (Clark, 1998, pp.137-138). The ability of institutions to implement their entrepreneurial programs in a flexible way is similarly emphasised by Slaughter and Leslie (1997, p.145) in their finding that different universities pursued different paths and structures in developing their technology transfer activities. The path to university entrepreneurialism also takes time. Clark (1998, p.145) views the development of the five characteristics as tending to occur in a process of 'interactive instrumentalism' in which incremental changes occur over a ten to fifteen-year period.

Several writers emphasise the need for "balance" in the management of university entrepreneurialism. To Grigg (in Wanna, Forster & Graham, 1996, p.165), managers must achieve a balance between reactivity and proactivity in the fostering of entrepreneurial activities. In other words, while academic professionals need the freedom and flexibility to pursue entrepreneurialism, too much freedom can potentially lead to problems such as the pursuit of activities too distant from the university's 'strengthened steering core'. Similarly, too much control constrains the kinds of innovation and creativity demanded for effective entrepreneurship. For Brown (1997, p.13), a need exists for the balancing of the needs of internal and external stakeholders, as well as a cautious approach taken towards market information, so that,

For a market approach to succeed, the natural constituency must be supportive, you must listen carefully and humbly to the external constituency, and you must be guided but not enslaved by market information.

(Brown, 1997, p.13)

Attention is also commonly paid to process issues in entrepreneurialism. Fairweather (1988, p.86), for instance, calls on institutions to undertake a realistic self-assessment process in the evaluation of opportunities for university-industry liaisons. This assessment can inform the estimation of the probability of success for the liaison, given current organisational capabilities, and is useful for identifying the levels of additional resources required for the liaison. The development of self-assessment processes by Australian universities in evaluating international entrepreneurial activities is also increasingly evident. Monash University, for example, analyses elements such as the Monash academic focus, host government attitudes, the state of education infrastructure in the host country, and the business environment existing in the host country in determining whether or not to proceed with

particular international strategies (Maloney, 1999). In the Australian entrepreneurial research environment, calls have also been made for the development of institutional 'watchdog committees' to oversee the appropriate development of entrepreneurial activities (Wood, 1992, p.310).

2.4.7   University Entrepreneurialism - Criticisms and Responses

A great deal of concern has been expressed about the consequences of university participation in entrepreneurial activities. Some staff may be unhappy about entrepreneurialism, for a variety of reasons (Kennedy, in Wanna, Forster and Graham, 1996, p.145). Some academics hold strong views on the issue, viewing the rise of entrepreneurialism with 'scepticism or open hostility' (Grigg, 1994, p.296).

Entrepreneurialism in universities is strongly criticised for the way in which it 'strips notions of participation, collegiality and autonomy of their meaningful characteristics' (Watkins, 1993, p.14). It is argued to be a 'perversion' of the traditional purposes of universities, and a process which undermines the concept of accountability as being primarily towards academic peers and the wider community (Weiner, 1995, p.1; Buchbinder & Newson, 1992, p.14; Leslie & Harrold, 1993, p.45). Further, entrepreneurialism is criticised for the ways in which it tends to discriminate against less-vocational and less-applied faculties and departments, and against smaller, regional and newer universities over their older, more established, and larger city-based counterparts (Fairweather, 1988, pp.63,73; Leslie & Harrold, 1993, p.97; Kennedy, in Wanna, Forster & Graham, 1996, p.145; Smith, in Lewington, 1997, p.A47; Dwyer, 1997, p.67; Yerbury, in Garcia, 1995, p.7A; Pratt & Poole, 1998b, p.14).

Three additional criticisms made in relation to the Australian context of

university entrepreneurialism are worthy of note. The first concerns the ways in which many institutions have undertaken restructuring in the creation of 'mega faculties' led by 'super deans', for example, in order to facilitate entrepreneurial activities and assume a more business-like structure. According to Bessant (1995, p.61), a major assumption underlying this restructuring is that top-down managerialist decision-making processes may be more 'cost and administratively efficient than the collegial patterns of decision making developed in universities'. However, in Bessant's view there is almost no evidence available to support this assumption, and none is likely to arise given the absolute incompatibility between 'collegiality and hard-line, classic on-line corporate management'. One possible response to Bessant's criticism is that there is similarly little evidence for the contrary view. Insufficient evidence of an empirical nature exists on both sides of the debate. This issue may be addressed in the current study through analysis of institutional structures and organisational cultures as perceived by participants (research questions 3 and 4).

A second criticism arises from the perceived colonisation of the university culture by the unholy trinity of business, industry, and advertising. The infiltration of such cultures potentially has many detrimental consequences of universities, according to Baldwin (1994, p.130), including the development of poor teaching practices.

> *In the end, the construction of teaching as an activity which is conducted for profit will result in bad teaching, because the driving desire to see people grow and the delight in that development will be missing.*
>
> *(Baldwin, 1994, p.130)*

Although this criticism appears to be based on an argument for altruism that has reasonable surface value, there is almost no evidence of this problem in

the Australian university sector, apart from some notable cases which at this point appear to be notable because they seem to be exceptional. For instance,

- Curtin University academic Dr John Kelmar suspended by the university after appearing on television explaining how he experienced problems after failing nine students, including five international fee-payers, for plagiarism (Johnston, 1995, pp.8, 27)

- former University of Wollongong ethics lecturer Dr Gail Graham, who claims she was 'forced' to lower standards in her subject. Dr Graham claims that problems began after she failed several fee-paying international students, and resulted in her contract not being renewed (Johnston, 1995, pp.8, 27)

In fact, the case is made that teaching quality actually improves when students become 'customers' or 'clients', especially in profit-making contexts (Griffiths, Wehsack & Watson, in Davis & Olsen, 1998, pp.58-59). Nonetheless, if morale is a function, to some degree, of changes to the structure and rules of work, then it is arguable that entrepreneurial activities can significantly affect morale via the effect they have on academic work. Many academics are now regularly involved in supervising offshore delivery of their units and courses, in marking assignments and providing feedback to students thousands of kilometres away in distant offshore programs, in assisting in international recruitment, in developing new modes of course delivery, in switching between academic terms and semesters of varying lengths, and in continuing to adjust teaching and assessment methods to the burgeoning local international student market (Pratt & Poole, 1998b, p.12). Such moves toward more "corporate professionalism" and less "non-market" academic activity place pressure on academics to achieve institutional objectives and to play their part in implementing entrepreneurial strategies, at the cost of increased market surveillance and less individual autonomy

(Marginson, in Smyth, 1995, p.34).

In more recent times, international students have begun to publicise problems such as that caused at the University of Sydney as students undertaking foundation programs administered by Study Group International had lectures continuously disrupted by building work (Lawnham, 2000a, p.47). A recent study of the experiences of first-year international students has concluded that,

> *The Australian university experience did not live up to many overseas students' expectations* *(Alcorn, 2000, p.4)*

The third criticism is based on the ways in which universities market themselves in the more competitive context of contemporary times. Once again, this is seen to result from the influence of business and advertising cultures on universities. The primary consequence of these 'advertising blitzes' is that image is seen to be elevated over substance because institutional 'rivalry and point scoring is the name of the game' (Kenway et al, 1993, p.4).

The vast majority of these criticisms arise from two primary concerns. The first is based on the simple notion that "he who pays the piper calls the tune". Entrepreneurialism, especially that occurring in the research domain, generally involves the input of external funds, much of which may come from business and industry. These funds are seen to potentially pull the university and its researchers in those directions desired by the funding providers, which may threaten traditional notions of institutional autonomy over work, place in jeopardy traditional commitments to basic research, create tensions over the disclosure of research findings, and constrain traditionally open communications between faculties and academic units (Kennedy, p.145, and Grigg, pp.166-167, in Wanna, Forster & Graham, 1996). In addition, Weiner

(1995, p.4) raises an example of the type of ethical issue which may develop given the pressures to achieve additional funds and please external providers.

When administrators know that a fertility clinic or some similar entity can help balance their university's budget, how likely are they to act quickly to investigate and resolve allegations by staff members who bring them inconvenient messages or raise troublesome questions? *(Weiner, 1995, p.4)*

The second primary concern underlying these criticisms relates to the perceived loss of traditional models of collegial decision-making (Bessant, 1995, p.61; Buchbinder & Newson, 1992, p.14). Whether or not collegial decision-making has ever really existed, particularly in the last decade or so, critics of entrepreneurialism lament the loss of an "ideal" model which would appear to have little chance of making a return in the contemporary university context.

In rebutting the criticisms, universities are commonly exhorted to stop lamenting the passing of ideal models which have never existed in their pure form to any real extent, and to instead begin to find ways of adapting to the environmental realities confronting them. In research, for example, it is argued that traditional 'handout mentalities' need to be replaced by a philosophy of 'entrepreneurial self-help' and the development of a more-entrepreneurial culture,

The new growth economics clearly shows that those nations which put an entrepreneurial culture and taste for innovation at centre stage, which pursue the R & D that leads to new technology and which underpin this orientation by a first-class educational system are those nations destined to thrive in the next millennium. *(Nossal, in Healy, 1996b,*

This philosophy is based on the environmental reality that in teaching as well as research, and in international activities which combine one or both of these fundamental university functions, it has been the case that universities have been forced to confront the need to 'diversify or die' (Garcia, 1995, p.7A), and to confront the proposition that private funding may be 'no less pure' than public funding (Hilmer, in Garcia, 1995, p.7A). The bottom line is that government funding for universities, both in Australia and elsewhere, has for some years proven unreliable, making a response to the 'diversify or die' imperative unavoidable.

In responding to entrepreneurialism, the literature suggests that university managers and academics can respond in one of two ways. The first option is to demonise entrepreneurialism and thus seek to reject it entirely or to attempt to limit it to certain university faculties or units. Financially, in terms of sustaining the financial and academic health of universities, this would appear to be an unviable option. The second option is to seek to integrate entrepreneurialism into universities in a manner appropriate to institutional contexts, existing structures, cultures, and histories, and to assume a positive philosophy which views the funds thus generated as potentially providing institutions with the ability to continue to chart their own directions. It has been argued that this approach can assist in the continuation of important but perhaps less financially viable academic programs,

The entrepreneurial response offers a formula for institutional development that puts autonomy on a self-defined basis: diversify income to increase financial revenues, provide discretionary money and reduce governmental dependency; develop new units outside traditional departments to introduce new environmental relationships and new modes of thought and training;

convince heartland departments that they too can look out for themselves, raise money, actively choose among specialties, and otherwise take on an entrepreneurial outlook; evolve a set of overarching beliefs that guide and rationalise the structural changes that provide a stronger response capability; and build the central steering capacity to make large choices that help focus the institution   *(Clark, 1998, pp.146-147)*

This appears to be the response of many universities in Australia, particularly those among those most active in pursuing international entrepreneurial activities. For instance, the Vice-Chancellor of Central Queensland University has justified the opening of 'shopfront' campuses in Sydney and Brisbane in partnership with a private provider in terms of an unavoidable response to new demands,

This hybrid model was necessary because the traditional university, with its emphasis on collegiality and time-consuming process, almost process for its own sake, together with it's embrace of now out of date methodologies of comprehensive management-by-objectives and technological strategic planning is singularly ill-equipped to enter a competitive globalised environment.   *(Chipman, 1999, p.17)*

2.4.8 Implications for this Study

In sum, the literature concerning university and public sector entrepreneurialism offers a number of key insights which both inform this study and provide a conceptual map to guide case analysis. These include:

- the need to apply business models of entrepreneurship with caution

- an awareness that university entrepreneurs require a different set of competencies to their business counterparts. The need to recognise the constrained nature of risk-taking and the significance of internal and external stakeholders are key competency differences

- recognition that a range of negative outcomes may arise from the practice of entrepreneurship in universities, including differences arising from the age, status and geographic location of institutions, as well as internal differences and conflicts between wealthy and less wealthy Faculties and departments (addressed in Research Question 4)

- the path to university entrepreneurialism will differ for each institution, however it may be possible to identify broad commonalities between approaches, as in the Clark (1998) model (addressed in Research Questions 5 and 6)

2.5 INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS LITERATURE

A number of writers argue that internationalisation strategies in higher education have parallels with theories and concepts contained in the international business literature. For instance, Davies (1995, pp.13-14) observes that universities may pursue different competitive positions in different international markets. Potential competitive positions may include seeking to become a 'leader, challenger, follower, struggler or nicher'. The strategic positions of low cost, differentiation, and niche marketer (Porter, 1980, p.35) are also argued to have relevance for university international strategies (Porter, in Brownless, 1996, p.6; Booth, 1997, p.1). Three significant concepts derived from the international business literature are explored in this discussion, namely the internationalisation process model, international market entry model, and the literature surrounding the

management of international strategic alliances.

2.5.1 The Internationalisation Process Model

An international business model with potential relevance to international entrepreneurialism is the internationalisation process model (Ellis & Williams, 1995, p.54). The model postulates that commitment to international markets is an evolutionary process best viewed as a series of sequential steps, although allowing for reassessment and possible retrenchment at any stage. Developed in Sweden during the 1970s (Bjorkman & Eklund, 1996, p.35), the "Uppsala internationalisation process model" describes the process of internationalisation in terms of four stages.

The first phase, restricted national market scope, involves a peripheral commitment to international activities in which organisations primarily concentrate upon their own national markets but accept export orders if received. These companies are the "dabblers" of the Coulson-Thomas (1992, p.27) typology. In the university context, it has been argued that institutions which rely on a plethora of inter-university agreements as the basis for their international activity are characteristic of this phase of internationalisation (Pratt, 1996, p.6).

The real commitment to international business comes with the second phase, international market entry and development. Significant potential risks and benefits are associated with this phase. Major decisions to be made include those relating to market screening and selection, entry mode, implementation and evaluation. Organisations in this phase may be characterised as "waders", moving further into the waters of international commitment in their chosen international product-markets. Major forms of involvement in this phase include contractual modes such as licensing and franchising, as well as

investment modes such as joint ventures and the establishment of independent offshore operations. According to Pratt (1996, p.18), most Australian universities have found it appropriate to operate at this phase of international development, since university operations continue to be characterised by a requirement to maintain significant centralisation of some functions, such as control over curricula.

Figure 2.13 The Internationalisation Process Model

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                    ┌──────────────┐
                    │  Worldwide   │ ┄┄┄┄┄┄┄┄┄┄┄┄┄┄┄▶
        ┌──────────▶│  Competitor  │
        │           └──────┬───────┘
        │                  ↕
        │           ┌──────────────┐
        ├───────────│ International │ ┄┄┄┄┄┄┄┄┄┄┄┄┄┄
        │           │   Regional   │
        │           └──────┬───────┘
        │                  ↕
        │           ┌──────────────┐
        ├───────────│ International │ ┄┄┄┄┄┄┄┄┄┄┄┄┄┄
        │           │market entry &│
        │           │ development  │
        │           └──────┬───────┘
        │                  ↕
        │           ┌──────────────┐
        │           │  Restricted  │
        └───────────│   national   │◀┄┄┄┄┄┄┄┄┄┄┄┄┄┄
                    │ market scope │
                    └──────────────┘
```
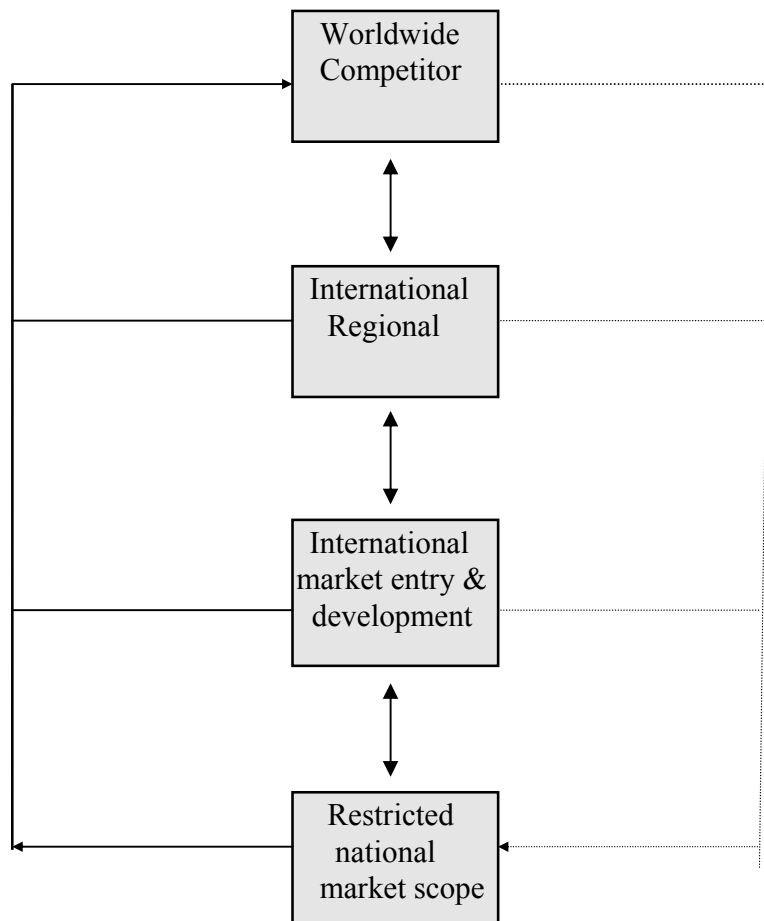
Source: Ellis and Williams, 1995, p.54.

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A third phase in the model involves the development of international regional strategies for regions such as the EU, NAFTA or the Asia/Pacific. This phase may be considered if preconditions such as an evolving move towards a regional focus, the leveraging of knowledge and resources across national boundaries, and the organisation and operation of functions on the basis of regional needs are characteristic of the organisation. Coulson-Thomas's (1992, p.29) "flockers" and "cuckoos" are often regional players who may be content with regional involvement or of insufficient size to consider a fully global approach.

The last phase of the model occurs when the organisation becomes a worldwide competitor, a "diver" fully immersed in international markets playing a game of "global chess" in order to achieve the best possible outcomes in the form of obtaining the lowest factor costs and best available expertise. The key characteristic of this phase is the 'recognition of the need to find a balance between a responsive and flexible local approach and effective global coordination' (Ellis and Williams, 1995, p.307).

The relevance of the worldwide competitor phase for Australian universities at this time remains questionable. After all, Ellis and Williams (1995, p.307) state that 'virtually no company has achieved a satisfactory solution to date', and Yip (1995, p.20) contends that the 'ideal' strategy is not necessarily to seek to become a global competitor as quickly as possible but to match 'the level of strategy globalisation to the globalisation potential of the industry', so perhaps the benefits of globalising specific elements of institutional strategies will not become realisable until the shape of the "global university" itself becomes more obvious, and until the trends in the development of strategic education alliances and the penetration of new technologies in delivering the educational "product" become more definable. In addition, the need for virtually all Australian universities operating internationally to continue to adapt their

products (courses) and teaching strategies to the needs of local markets remains strong (Pratt, 1996, p.17).

So, where are Australian universities currently located within the internationalisation process model?

There is some evidence that the international strategies of Australian universities are evolving toward international regional strategies. The concentration of some universities upon particular geographic regions in their bilateral offshore links has been identified as one indicator of a growing regional focus (Pratt, 1996, p.8). Another indicator of a regional focus is the substantial and growing concentration of Asian students in the on-shore market, as noted above. Whether such activities can be described as comprising a coordinated regional strategy (Ellis & Williams, 1995, p.267), however, remains unclear, since further research is required to determine if Australian institutions focusing upon Asia meet the preconditions for coordinated regional strategies:

- the organisation applies and leverages its accumulated knowledge and resources across borders

- it operates production facilities and or key value-adding activities outside its home country

- individual business functions are predominately organised and operated on the basis of regional rather than national needs

Writers like Pratt (1996, p.18; see also Pratt & Poole, 1998a, pp.14-15) argue that models of business internationalisation provide many relevant insights for university strategy-makers, and that the strategies of most Australian

universities appear to resemble the international and international regional strategies of the business internationalisation process model. Further, it is argued that such models, through their grounding in application and focus on key process elements such as market selection and quality assurance, offer a number of significant concepts of potential use for strategy formation and implementation in the university context.

In particular, two concepts potentially useful to university strategists may be derived from the market entry model, a model which is substantially derived from the internationalisation process model. Both are of increasing relevance to a sector which remains characterised by a high degree of ad hoc planning and insufficient systematic attention given to the potential risks, costs and benefits associated with international activities (Pokarier & Ridings, 1998, p.9; Carey, 1999, p.7).

2.5.2 The Market Entry Model

Two concepts contained in the market entry model are particularly relevant to universities in managing international entrepreneurial activities. These concepts, **market screening and selection** and **corrective adjustment**, are illustrated as follows within the market entry model of international operations.

Figure 2.14   Market Entry Model of International Operations
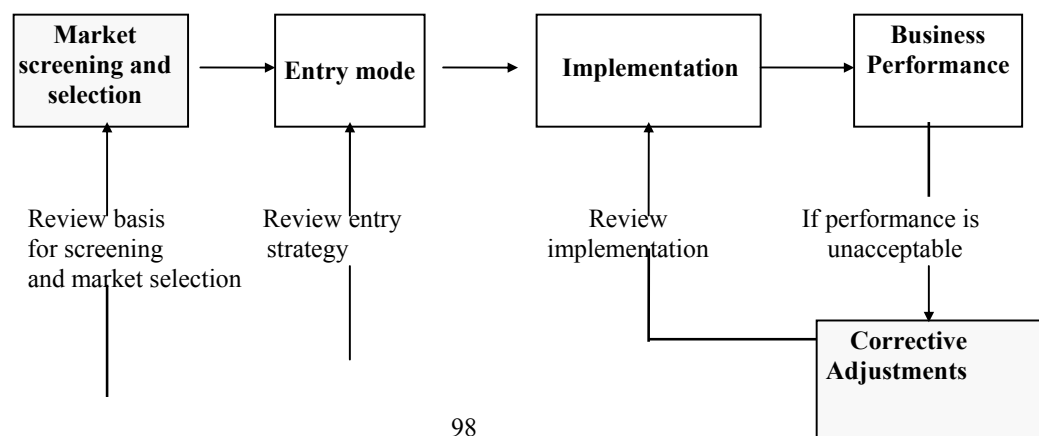
Source: Ellis and Williams, 1995, p.247.

Market Screening and Selection

A range of approaches and country selection techniques exist to assist strategists in the market screening and selection process. Market penetration grids, opportunity-risk matrices and country attractiveness - country strength matrices are examples, however there are few indicators that such tools are being used by Australian universities in selecting locations for their offshore programs (Pratt, 1996, p.18). Whether this is in fact the case will be explored in relation to institutional responses to research question 2. A simple market selection grid is illustrated in Figure 2.15.

Figure 2.15   Illustrative Market Selection Grid

Contextual Factors (U = unacceptable; A = acceptable)	Country A	Country B	Country C	Country D
Political & economic risks	A	A	A	A
Cultural Diversity	A	A	A	U
Specific product-market scores – min.1 to max.5				
Product match	5	5	2	-
Size of market	3	2	1	-
Expected growth	2	3	2	-
Extent of competition	2	1	2	-
Scale of entry	2	2	1	-
Unweighted total	14	13	8	-

Source: Ellis and Williams, 1995, p.235.

Significant penalties exist for poor selections, as the University of New England discovered in its unsuccessful attempt to establish a graduate business school in Dubai, an aborted strategy which cost UNE hundreds of thousands of dollars in unrecovered costs.

Monash University is one Australian institution which does submit potential international activities to careful and comprehensive scrutiny. The selection matrix used by Monash (Maloney, 1999; Pollock, 1999) includes consideration of such factors as:

- the Monash academic focus
- compatibility with Monash educational philosophy
- Australian government attitudes
- host government attitudes
- compliance requirements in host country
- the business environment in host country
- economic and political stability of host country
- safety and security profile of host country
- host country's demand for foreign education
- available financial resources
- Monash's capacity to supply
- compatibility of host education system with Monash/Australian systems
- state of education infrastructure in host country
- communications and transport infrastructure in host country
- demographic profile of host country

The Monash approach may be an exception rather than a typical approach to market selection in this country, since there does appear to be a surprisingly large number of collaborative arrangements between Australian and foreign

institutions which have originated on the basis of personal networks or even chance meetings between academics (conferences and air travel seem to be popular locations). Such origins do not necessarily reflect a deliberative, strategic approach to internationalisation (Pratt & Poole, 1998a, p.21).

Given an environment characterised by more intense levels of international competition and the maturing and saturation of markets such as Hong Kong, Malaysia and Singapore (Evans & Kemp, 1997, p.3; van Leest, 1998, p.5), the need to develop appropriately cautious and systematic strategic approaches to selection is readily apparent. By doing so, institutions can begin to make selections which match institutional strengths and competencies with market needs. It appears that there are at least several potential markets still waiting to be tapped by Australian institutions, including South Africa, the Gulf States and South America (van Leest, 1998, p.12).

In sum, successfully matching institutional competencies with careful market selection approaches is one significant element in developing institutional competitive advantage. Several contemporary leaders in strategic thinking in both the corporate and higher education sectors base their philosophies upon the need for institutions to compete from positions of sectoral leadership rather than as laggards forever catching-up to the techniques and moves of those in front.   In the corporate sector, the accepted mantra is for corporations to 'fundamentally reconceive' themselves to 'regenerate core strategies' and to 'reinvent their industries' (Hamel & Prahalad, 1994, p.15).

Such action demands entrepreneurship shaped around the specific environment confronting the institution and is based upon its individual circumstances. Similarly, the call for entrepreneurship in international strategy development demands systematic attention to those market selection techniques and concepts which may assist in improving the opportunity for

strategic success in this sphere of strategy formation.

Performance Evaluation and Response

Another significant element of the market entry model involves corrective adjustments which should occur on the basis of reviews of each step of the market entry and development process.

In the corporate context, consistent under-performance may result in partial or full withdrawal of markets. Such drastic action is notoriously difficult to undertake in the university context, for a variety of reasons. One reason is that universities are indeed 'vast bureaucracies that react slowly' (Chan, in Spencer, 1998d, p.38). Review processes generally occur so slowly in universities that by the time a review of a department, faculty, or program is complete, the market has changed so much that the review immediately becomes redundant, often leading to the need for a further review.

The attractiveness of corporate theoretical models is strong when the types of international activities being pursued by some countries are considered. A 1996 comparative analysis of universities in the UK, Australia and Sweden revealed that key activities in the UK and Australia are far more business-focused than those in Sweden, which suggests the need for appropriately business-oriented strategies reflective of this more intensive business-focus. Every Australian and 85 percent of UK institutions studied targeted the active recruitment of overseas students, while only 43 percent of Swedish institutions did likewise. Similarly, while 57 percent of Australian universities and 55 percent of UK universities had franchised their courses overseas, only 21 percent of Swedish universities pursued such a strategy (Carnestedt, 1997, p.51).

While it is certainly the case that considerable scope exists for universities to pursue a diversity of international strategies depending on institutional context (Back & Davis, in de Wit, 1995, p.148), the types of strategies actually pursued should arguably reflect the rhetoric of institutional international plans and the existing institutional competencies in implementing and evaluating international strategies. Further, the maintenance of competitive advantage by institutions, as in any organisation, arguably depends upon the ability of the organisation to learn from its strategic management processes, and to take advantage of the possibilities which exist for extending and adapting their international strategies. This depends, in turn, on an awareness of relevant strategic models, theories and concepts, and the ability to turn such concepts, if relevant, into new strategies and adaptations of existing strategies. Whether this process actually occurs in Australian universities is an issue worth exploring. In this study, it occurs in relation to research questions 4, 5 and 6. As noted above, the untrammeled growth of the market may have historically made such issues irrelevant for some institutions. The evolution of some markets toward maturation and, in some cases, saturation, as well as the rise of international competition across the sector will undoubtedly place some institutions in a better position than others to undertake such processes.

Collaborative arrangements with foreign private business organisations in particular should be closely monitored. In some cases the partners are actually or potentially fierce competitors who have entered into a collaborative agreement with the short-term aim of enhancing their competitive position (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1995, pp.370-374). The usefulness of individual Australian universities to particular foreign partners may be outlived when the partner has obtained the required level of competence in administrative and teaching expertise, knowledge or technology (Pratt & Poole, 1998a, p.22). Several other issues relating to the management of collaborative arrangements (or 'strategic alliances') should also be considered.

2.5.3 Managing International Strategic Alliances

Green and Gerber (1997, p.33) cite a number of parallels between the international business literature on strategic alliances and the use of overseas agreements by United States business schools as a primary mechanism for internationalisation. They argue that the strategy of direct investment abroad by some business schools in the establishment of offshore campuses has close parallels with the direct investment strategies of business corporations in pursuing international strategies. In the UK context, Booth's (1997, pp.5-8) analysis of strategic alliances in international education firmly places them within an international business framework which makes direct comparisons between universities and international corporations inevitable.

Strategic alliances are defined as 'cooperative relationships with global competitors' (Barlett & Ghoshal, 1995, p.369). At first glance, this definition may seem irrelevant to universities since, as noted above, such institutions are best defined in models such as the internationalisation process model as being at lower levels than the global competitor stage. Nonetheless, this definition is acceptable, since the international education market is indeed 'global', and the definition is broad enough to encompass the many types of relationship possible between educational institutions, or between education and business organisations. Further, these relationships are 'strategic', since those in the international entrepreneurial sphere are formed to confront the 'imbalance' which exists between institutions and their environments (Clark, 1998, p.xvi).

According to Miller (1998, p.251), the number of alliances being formed in the business sector increased by approximately 30 percent per annum over the period from 1985 to 1997. Alliances are perceived to be worthwhile when each party to the alliance 'has strengths to offset the others weaknesses'

(Miller, 1998, p.251). Other potential reasons motivating business alliances include the need to achieve international market access; to close gaps in the organisation's technical or market knowledge; to develop economies of scale in production or other functional areas; to share dealer and distribution networks; and to concentrate energies in competition against mutual rivals (Thompson & Strickland, 1998, pp.194-196).

Several benefits are perceived to arise from the management of effective strategic alliances. First, neither partner is forced to invest in every capability required to run the operation, as would occur if each organisation set out to work in isolation from the other. Second, financing is potentially easier to attract, since the risks are shared across the alliance partners. Third, mutual gain is possible given the presence of several conditions. If the partners' strategic goals converge while their competitors diverge, gain is possible, as it may be when the size and market power of both partners is modest compared to industry leaders, since neither partner will seek to antagonise the other in that context. In addition, mutual benefit requires a belief from each partner that it can learn from the other while simultaneously limiting access to its own proprietary skills (Miller, 1998, p.251; Hamel, Doz & Prahalad, in Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1995, p.462).

Creating a successful strategic alliance is not particularly easy. Collaboration between organisations often fails due to the conflicts which arise from the presence of different goals, strategies, procedures and organisational cultures in each partner (Miller, 1998, p.252; Thompson & Strickland, 1998, p.196). Other potential pitfalls include language and cultural barriers between partners, the difficulties of working in competitively sensitive areas, the possibility of clashes of egos and company cultures, and the potential for participants in the alliance to become overdependent on each other's expertise and capabilities (Thompson & Strickland, 1998, p.196). This overdependence

may arise from the intentional exploitation of one partner by the other (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1995, p.374). In addition, there are additional costs arising in managing alliances, since achieving cooperation in the context of divided loyalties creates additional strategic and organisational complexity. This complexity derives from the greater environmental certainties facing the combined entity (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1995, p.376).

There is no shortage of helpful advice flowing for the would-be developers of corporate strategic alliances. Much of the advice is general enough to transcend the business sector and potentially apply to universities. Synthesising the advice of Miller (1998, p.252), Thompson & Strickland (1998, pp.197-198) and Bartlett & Ghoshal (1995, pp.372-381) provides the following guidelines:

- pick a compatible partner - take time to build communication and trust

- choose a partner whose products and markets complement rather than compete with yours

- do not depend on the formal contract to make the alliance work - legalism rather than cooperation may result

- learn thoroughly and rapidly about a partner's technology and management - transfer valuable ideas and practices into your own operations promptly

- don't share competitively sensitive information with partners

- view the alliance as temporary (5-10 years) - only continue for a longer period if potentially beneficial

- in the prealliance phase of the process, focus on partner selection mechanisms which utilise full and appropriate information; avoid escalating commitment unnecessarily; and strive for simplicity and flexibility in the scope of the alliance.

- aim to ensure full exploitation of the potential for learning in the alliance

- establish governance structures such as committees which give each partner the opportunity to take the lead in pursuing different tasks

Opportunities for universities to participate in alliances are perceived to be growing on the basis of increased diversity in higher education. Diversity in this context reflects both institutional differentiation and a rise in demand for diverse offerings and delivery modes. The global market forces giving rise to the creation of multinational corporations are perceived to be impacting on universities in similar ways (Booth, 1997, p.1). Booth further notes that while research alliances have proven popular in past times, the most striking trend during the last two decades in Australia and the United Kingdom has been the rise of revenue-focused alliances with overseas partners located in the Asian region. The development of these alliances has been driven by the insatiable worldwide demand for higher education, the inability of domestic systems to satisfy demand, consumer demand for respected brands, and the desire of universities to develop and diversify their income and recruitment sources (Booth, 1997, pp.5-7). Although such collaborative efforts are seen to bring both financial and non-financial benefits, Booth (1997, p.7) states that the need to diversify income is 'usually top of the list' for universities in contemporary environments. Another motivator indirectly related to the same desire is that of forming alliances in an effort to create an elitist image. As with the formation of the Universitas 21 alliance, the rhetoric of altruism may

mask the real purpose of formation, which is to pursue offensive or defensive competitive advantages in the global market (Booth, 1997, p.6).

Several potential pitfalls and barriers exist in the formation of university strategic alliances. Treating collaborations as a 'fringe activity not properly tied into a university's strategic plan' is one way to court problems, while the reality that some poorly-managed universities may not actually know if the income generated by international activities covers their associated costs also represents a real concern (Booth, 1997, p.8). A range of other potential barriers to cooperation has been proposed by King (1996, p.9):

- some institutions have no or only a hazy strategic vision of what they
   want from partnerships
- institutions do not know where their strengths lie and have little knowledge
   of the financial and cultural costs and the benefits of cooperation
- lack of facilitation
- cultural difficulties
- inflexibility at the curriculum level
- difficulty of finding common assessment standards
- managerial difficulties - especially in resolving staff concerns and meeting staff aspirations
- financial and linguistic barriers to entry - eg. start-up costs involved in providing IT equipment

As with business alliances, several guidelines have been suggested to guide university managers in pursuing strategic alliances. To Daniel (1996, pp.98-99), many of the principles developed in industry settings directly transfer to the university setting. For instance, the emphasis on alliance partners together focusing on the whole product rather than on their own segments of the

product is relevant to education, as is the principle that the organisation which controls the customer relationship possesses the greatest leverage in the relationship. Guidelines are also proposed in the context of the prealliance negotiation process. As shown in Table 2.2, Brown (in Booth, 1997, p.8) suggests a series of questions which universities should ask during this developmental phase. Although these questions have a United Kingdom context, they are arguably also applicable to Australian institutions given the similarities existing in the structures, entrepreneurial emphases and traditions of the two nations.

At a systemic level, quality assurance is taken seriously in the United Kingdom. During 1996, the Higher Education Quality Council visited twenty overseas alliance partners in five countries, concluding that the overall level of quality of these alliances was relatively high (Booth, 1997, p.8). In contrast, alliance quality in the Australian context is largely the responsibility of individual institutions, subject to the general guidelines set down by the Federal Government for the setting of fees and the Code of Ethics published by the Australian Vice-Chancellors Committee.

Somewhat tongue-in-cheek, Booth (1997, p.5) suggests 'Booth's Law' of university strategic alliances, which is that 'the success of an international alliance is inversely proportional to the seniority at which it is negotiated'.

Table 2.2   Questions to be considered when universities form strategic alliances

Would the university contemplate a formal link with the same kind of partner in its own country?

Have potential costs and benefits been explored?

Have the programs received the same quality assurance treatments as if they were offered domestically?

Have potential costs and benefits been explored?

Are monitoring mechanisms in place leading to remedial action?

Are there adequate opportunities for staff and student interaction as in the home country?

Are admissions, staff appointment procedures, curriculum and assessment arrangements wholly consistent with those applied by the institution in the home country?

Is there proper quality assurance of publicity material?

Is there provision for joint periodic review of the relationship against the original objectives?

Source: Brown, in Booth, 1997, p.8.

This raises an important question, given that a recent study of strategic alliances in Australian universities revealed that the most common initiators of alliances were senior university managers (Safu & Mamman, 1998).

The study also identified the most significant problems in the management of strategic alliances as experienced by senior institutional managers. During the initiation stage, the major problems were lack of resources, red tape, cultural differences, and poor communication between partners. In the negotiation stage, cultural differences were viewed as the major problem, followed by red tape, differences in goals, and poor communications. The most significant implementation problems were seen to be a lack of resources, red tape, lack of attention to detail, and cultural differences. In sum, problems such as insufficient resources, cultural differences and red tape appear common throughout the management of strategic alliances, while other problems may arise from time to time (Saffu & Mamman, 1998). Reflecting the impact of these problems, 57 percent of university international managers stated that they would undertake the process differently in the future, while 33 percent

stated that they would follow similar procedures (Saffu & Mamman, 1998).

2.5.4   Implications for this Study

Four dimensions of the international business literature are particularly useful for this study. These dimensions provide key knowledge about issues of quality and effectiveness in managing what has become an international business for most universities. Together, they inform several of the study's research questions and direct attention to particular aspects of participant responses:

- parallels between university and business internationalisation processes may highlight the extent to which universities have become international businesses and, in addition, may expose inconsistencies between the demands of internationalisation and institutional responses (Research Questions 1 and 2)

- the development and usage of market screening mechanisms, entry decision frameworks and corrective adjustment processes may indicate the level of maturity of institutional management processes (Research Questions 2 and 3)

- attention to the effective maintenance of international strategic alliances is demanded by the new environment. These include the need to establish appropriate governance structures and exploit organisational learning opportunities (Research Questions 3 and 5)

- the maintenance of educational quality is a key issue, particular where alliance partners are businesses or other non-university organisations. Perceptions of quality management are arguably critical to the long-term

survival of alliance relationships and will be directly addressed within the case studies (Research Questions 4 and 5)

2.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter has presented a number of theories, models and concepts of relevance to the exploration of international entrepreneurial activities in universities. A common link and consistent theme running through the various fields of literature reviewed is that of strategic management processes and models. This is a reflection of the strategic management approach which has been taken to this study. The relevance of these models and concepts to Australian universities and their international entrepreneurial activities is considered in Chapters 6 and 7.

CHAPTER 3 – INSTITUTIONAL, SECTORAL AND POLICY CONTEXT

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This short chapter provides an overview of the study's sectoral, international student and public policy contexts. It also provides a summary of current university approaches to international entrepreneurialism as portrayed in baseline studies and the Australian higher education press. The purpose of the chapter is to provide a contextual base for the case studies which follow in Chapter 5.

3.2 SECTORAL CONTEXT

A review of Australia's system of public higher education over recent years reveals an era of high and sustained growth. In 1998, the sector comprised 671,853 students, an increase of 93 percent over 1983. At that time, there were 348,577 students undertaking university study (DETYA, 1998b, Table 1).

Significant differences in size exist among Australian universities. In terms of 1998 student load (known as Equivalent Full Time Student Units, or EFTSU), the multi-campus Monash University was Australia's largest, with 31,452 EFTSU, while the Northern Territory University remained the nation's smallest institution with just 2,706 EFTSU (DETYA, 1998b, Table 42).

3.3 INTERNATIONAL STUDENT CONTEXT

As described in this study, the term "international student" refers to those students enrolled in and undertaking courses offered by Australian universities for which full-fees are payable. Further, international students are citizens of countries

other than Australia and, if studying in Australia, hold temporary student visas.

Four elements of the international student market are of particular significance in building a picture of the current state of the sector in Australia. First, tracking student numbers from the beginning of the period in which universities were permitted to charge full fees and actively recruit international students reveals the substantial growth occurring in the Australian share of the international student market since that time. Second, an analysis of the disciplinary concentration of international students relative to non-international students provides some indication of the type of courses being pursued both on and offshore. Third, a similar analysis of student numbers by type of course illustrates differences at this level between international and local cohorts. Fourth, it is apparent that international students are concentrated in some universities rather than others. An overview of such international student "densities" will be provided, together with a summary of the degree of dependence of Australian universities on international student fee revenues.

International student numbers have expanded significantly in recent years. As indicated in Table 3.1, the total number of international fee-paying students had increased from 21,015 in the base year (1989) to 72,183 by 1998, a rise of 343%. Of particular significance is the consistency in overall growth rates during this period. Average annual growth in the market was 14.65% per annum. In addition, although international student numbers in both internal and external modes rose substantially, the increasing proportion of external offshore students is particularly noteworthy. As also noted in Table 3.1, the proportion of external students more than doubled, from 4.92% to 10.28% of total international student numbers during this period.

Table 3.1 International Students in Australian Universities, 1989-1998

	Internal Students (%)	Growth on Previous Yr.	External Students	Growth on Previous Yr. (%)	Externals as a Prop. of total (%)	Total No's of Int. Students	Growth on Previous Yr. (%)
1989	19,981		1,034		4.92	21,015	
1990	23,448	17.35	1,195	15.57	4.85	24,643	16.40
1991	27,955	19.22	1,264	5.77	4.33	29,219	18.57
1992	31,673	13.3	2,177	72.23	6.43	33,850	15.83
1993	34,476	8.85	2,334	7.21	6.34	36,810	8.74
1994	37,013	7.36	3,219	37.92	8.00	40,232	9.30
1995	41,888	13.17	4,299	33.55	9.30	46,187	14.80
1996	47,402	13.16	5,786	34.59	10.88	53,188	15.16
1997	56,452	19.09	6,522	12.72	10.36	62,974	18.40
1998	64,764	14.72	7,419	13.75	10.28	72,183	14.62

Source: DETYA, 1998b, Table 86.
Note: New Zealand citizens studying in Australia counted prior to 1996. Figures for 1998 also include 118 international students enrolled at either Avondale College, the National Institute of Dramatic Art, or the Australian Defence Force Academy.

International student numbers have continued to grow strongly since 1998, with 93,400 international students enrolled in Australian universities in 1999 and 108,600 students undertaking programs in 2000, representing growth of over 50 percent during this period (Osmond, 2000, p.5).

In terms of disciplinary concentrations, there were marked differences between international and non-international students. Over half of all international students were studying in the business administration/economics field, with another forty five percent spread between science, arts/humanities/social sciences, engineering, and health. This has continued to be the case since that time (Maslen, 2000b, p.10). In contrast, the arts/humanities/social science area remained the most popular general field for non-international Australian students, with business administration/economics in second place, accounting for 22.3 percent of all non-international students.

A third significant element of the international student context concerns the type of study being undertaken. The major differences between international and non-international students is in the significantly higher proportion of international students undertaking higher degrees by coursework, and lower proportion of international students undertaking bachelors degrees. These differences are

illustrated in Table 3.3.

Table 3.2 International and Non-International Students by Broad Field of Study, 1998 (percentages)

	Agriculture, Animal Husbandry	Architecture, Building	Arts, Humanities Soc.Science	Business Admin., Econ.	Education	Engineer--ing, Surveying	Health	Law, Legal Studies	Science	Vet. Sci.
Int. Students	0.6	3.2	9.9	50.5	2.4	9.1	8.8	1.1	13.6	0.2
Non-Int. Students	1.9	2.2	26.2	22.3	11.9	7.2	11.8	5.2	16.0	0.3

Source: DETYA, 1998b, Tables 6, 87.

Table 3.3   International and Non-International Students by Type of Course, 1998 (percentages)

	Higher Degrees by Research	Higher Degrees by Coursework	Other Postgrad.	Bachelors Degrees	Other Undergrad.	Enabling Courses	Non-Award Courses
Int'al Students	5.8	16.7	4.0	70.6	0.4	0.3	2.2
Non-Int. Students	5.3	6.7	7.6	76.7	2.3	0.7	0.7

Source: DETYA, 1998b, Tables 2, 87.

An examination of international student concentrations by institution reveals that there is substantial diversity in international student densities between institutions (DETYA, 1998b). At the Australian Catholic University, for example, only 245 international students were enrolled in 1998, representing 3.1 percent of the university's total student population. In contrast, the Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology enrolled 6,944 international students, representing almost 31 percent of total student numbers. Other major centres of international student concentration include Curtin University (30.4 percent of students are international), the University of Southern Queensland (28.1 percent), Central Queensland University (22 percent), the University of New South Wales (21.7 percent), and Monash University (20%).   Table 3.4 provides a ranking by

absolute numbers of international students, and an indication of the proportion of international students in each institution.

In addition, institutional revenues from international student fees are shown for each university, clearly indicating the extent to which Australian universities now rely on international entrepreneurial activities. This reliance is further illustrated in Column 5 of Table 3.4, where overseas student fees are calculated as a proportion of total institutional revenues. There appears to be no clear linkages between type of institution and reliance on international student fees, although many of the more dependent institutions are either very large or located in regional areas. In addition, a number of the smaller universities seem to attract relatively smaller numbers of international students as a proportion of their total student population, and consequently rely less on such revenues in overall budgetary terms.

In sum, in the context of an expanding national system of higher education, the growth of the international student population in Australian universities has been substantial. Most international students undertake courses at bachelors degree level in the business administration and economics field. There is also a significant presence of international students in coursework masters degree programs, and in the fields of engineering, the humanities and social sciences, science, engineering, and health, although these fields are much less popular than business administration and economics. While the vast majority of international students study on-campus in Australia, the proportion of students studying externally continues to rise. In absolute numbers of international students, there are clearly four major players in Australian higher education namely the Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology, Monash University, Curtin University of Technology, and the University of New South Wales.

Nonetheless, there are many significant players throughout the sector. Twenty two universities maintain international student enrolments of over 10 percent of

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their total cohorts, and seventeen universities generate at least 7 percent of their total revenues from fees derived from international students. In sectoral terms, Australian universities received $627,342,000 in international student fees during 1998, accounting for 7.6 percent of total revenues. By 2000, this figure had risen to $786 million (Maslen, 2000a, p.10). International revenue-generating activities are thus of increasing significance to the Australian university sector.

Table 3.4 Ranking of Australian Universities by Number of International Students and by Revenue from International Student Fees, 1998

	No.O/S students	O/S students as a prop. of total student population (%)	O/S Student Fees ($)	O/S Student Fees as % of total revenue	Uni rank for dependence on O/S fee income
Royal Melbourne Institute of Tech.	6,944	30.9	50,181,000	17.7	2
Monash University	6,293	20.0	53,897,000	10.3	8
Curtin University of Technology	5,497	30.4	52,053,000	20.8	1
University of New South Wales	5,011	21.7	50,556,000	9.4	9
University of Melbourne	3,085	11.2	33,390,000	6.0	21
University of Southern Queensland	2,757	28.1	15,102,000	14.9	3
University of Western Sydney	2,739	12.1	17,367,000	7.2	16
University of Sydney	2,700	9.4	26,464,000	4.5	29
Victoria University of Technology	2,596	19.4	11,270,000	7.6	14
University of South Australia	2,521	14.2	15,596,000	6.8	18
Griffith University	2,367	13.3	20,717,000	8.6	12
Queensland University of Technology	2,252	9.3	25,563,000	8.9	11
Deakin University	2,196	11.3	15,560,000	6.7	19
University of Technology, Sydney	1,947	11.1	16,029,000	7.9	13
University of Wollongong	1,843	18.8	20,102,000	12.5	5
University of Queensland	1,784	7.5	25,125,000	5.2	24
Central Queensland University	1,777	22.0	12,560,000	12.6	4
Charles Sturt University	1,716	13.0	7,154,000	5.1	25
Macquarie University	1,580	11.2	8,301,000	5.5	23
Edith Cowan University	1,538	11.5	17,609,000	11.6	6
University of Western Australia	1,419	11.8	22,579,000	7.4	15
Murdoch University	1,310	16.5	10,790,000	9.0	10
Swinburne University of Technology	1,299	14.6	10,282,000	10.7	7
La Trobe University	1,217	7.0	14,254,000	5.7	22
University of Adelaide	1,186	9.9	17,986,000	6.7	20
University of Newcastle	1,096	7.4	9,609,000	4.7	28
University of Tasmania	1,027	10.3	7,829,000	4.8	27
Australian National University	820	10.2	8,882,000	2.1	35
University of Canberra	705	9.8	6,147,000	7.2	17
Flinders University	646	7.3	7,228,000	4.9	26
James Cook University	460	6.1	5,017,000	4.2	30
University of New England	432	4.8	4,399,000	3.5	32
Southern Cross University	406	6.8	2,603,000	3.7	31
University of Ballarat	291	7.5	1,612,000	3.1	33
Australian Catholic University	245	3.1	940,000	1.3	36
Northern Territory University	177	6.5	1,433,000	2.7	34

Source: extrapolated from DETYA, 1998a, Table 1; DETYA, 1998b, Table 91.

3.4 THE PUBLIC POLICY CONTEXT

Australian universities undoubtedly have had an international dimension for many years. Student, staff, and research exchanges across national boundaries have been encouraged in most Australian universities, just as they have in systems of higher education throughout the world. What is qualitatively and quantitatively different in the current era, however, is the extent to which the commercial imperative has come to dominate institutional decision-making, and what is also different are the historically high levels of reliance institutions currently have upon external revenues from international activities. Such shifts appear to have been driven primarily by shifts in emphasis in public policy. It is arguable that the major driving force for trends in international entrepreneurialism in this country has been and continues to be the Federal Government. The government remains the major provider of funds to Australian universities, and has exerted its influence on international education through a series of policy changes which have significantly affected the operation and direction of universities throughout the unified national system (UNS). In exploring international entrepreneurialism, it is possible to view a shift in emphases in public policy related to international education periods of "aid", "trade", and "internationalisation". It is also argued that the latest phase in international education may be described as one of "differentiation" (Evans & Kemp, 1997, p.3; van Leest, 1998, pp.12-13).

The Aid Era (1951 – 1984) - Proactive involvement in international activities by the broad higher education sector in Australia began with its participation in the development and implementation of the Colombo Plan for Cooperative Development in South and South-East Asia in 1951. Over the ensuing years, Australian universities welcomed increasing numbers of international students, both sponsored and private. Private students were admitted on the same entry requirements and with the same fee conditions as local students, with numbers controlled by the immigration policies of the day (Back, Davis & Olsen, 1996, p.6). Student numbers grew from about 1,000 to around 5,000 during the period

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from 1950 to 1965. The motivation for involvement in education as aid, both in Australia and among other countries involved in international education during this era, derived from the government's commitment to provide aid to poorer countries, to promote cordial relations with other countries, and to engender an appreciation abroad for the language and culture of the host country. The primary motivation in accepting private students was to equip them to contribute to the economic development of their home countries, and to provide them with an understanding of Australia and Australians (Williams, 1989, pp.9-11).

In 1973, the Federal Government determined to limit the total number of private overseas students to 10,000. Applications were rejected in situations where students could undertake a similar course in their own country. This change occurred at the same time as the government moved to abolish tertiary fees, so that the effective subsidy for private students increased significantly (Williams, 1989, p.11; Back & Davis, in de Wit, 1995, p.123).

Major changes occurred in international education policy in 1979, when the Department of Immigration and Ethnic Affairs expressed concern that the program was not meeting its objectives, and that it was serving as a "back door" to immigration for many students. By contrast, the Department of Foreign Affairs argued that assistance for international students gave Australia valuable benefits in terms of aid, cultural understanding and an understanding of Australian policies. On balance, the government revised its policy in three significant ways. First, it introduced a student 'visa fee', known as the Overseas Student Charge (OSC), which represented around 10 percent of the notional full-cost of a university place. Second, the 10,000-place quota on private students was abolished and replaced with unofficial country quotas reflecting foreign policy priorities. Third, a requirement was introduced that all international students must return home for at least two years before being eligible for immigration (Williams, 1989, p.11; Back & Davis, in de Wit, 1995, p.123).

During the mid-1980s, two reviews of the overseas student program were undertaken. The Committee to Review the Australian Overseas Aid Program argued that 'education should be regarded as an export industry in which institutions are encouraged to compete for students and funds' (Jackson Committee, 1984, p.15). In contrast, the Report of the Committee of Review of Private Overseas Student Policy rejected market-based approaches in favour of the aid and development rationales for accepting international students (Goldring Committee, 1986, p.26).

After a year's deliberation, the federal government responded to these reports with a new international student policy, commencing the transition to a new phase of international education. The new policy reflected the arguments of the Jackson Report at the cost of those contained within the Goldring Report.

The Trade Era (1985 – 1992) - The way in which the federal government altered policy in response to the aid reports marked a new phase in the public policy context of university internationalisation. While maintaining the existing aid component involving sponsored and subsidised students, it moved to reduce the restrictions on universities in their recruitment of fee-paying students. The new policy enabled institutions to recruit international students in unlimited numbers, provided that full-fees were charged, the recruits met normal entry standards, and provided that no local students were displaced by such recruitment (Back & Davis, in de Wit, 1995, p.123). Subsidies continued to be provided for private students from developing countries, however such students were still subject to the Overseas Student Charge, which by 1988 had reached 55 percent of the cost of a student place (DEET, 1993, p.59).

During 1988, the government announced the next round of changes to the international education policy framework. These occurred in the context of the significant changes made to the Australian higher education system by the federal government. Minister John Dawkins sought to restructure and reform the higher

education system in order to make it contribute more directly to the modernisation of the Australian economy. In particular, Dawkins (1987, 1988) argued that the necessary national change depended on the development of a well-educated workforce and that this, in turn, depended on a national system of higher education aimed at meeting this objective. The rhetoric was undeniably instrumentalist,

In a climate of fiscal restraint, and with the economic difficulties we are experiencing, governments have a legitimate role in ensuring that broad national priorities are reflected in the activities of higher education institutions. Similar requirements exist in all other areas of public administration, and higher education institutions cannot expect to receive ever-increasing funding in the form of untied and unconditional grants, with the Government merely acting as banker and post office. *(Dawkins, in Mahoney, 1994, p.126)*

While fiscal restraint was the order of the day, Dawkins undertook a significant expansion in the system, in terms of both institutions and student numbers. The rationale for this expansion, as noted above, was the claimed national need for a more skilled population and the development of a greater degree of adaptability in its citizens (Dawkins, 1987, p.1). In addition, to accommodate this expansion, universities would have to become more efficient, and more effective at exploiting the potential for increased revenue from other sources. Dawkins (1987, p.83) marked overseas student enrolments as a major potential source of such revenues.

In this context, the federal government announced its next major change to international education policy in late 1988, to take effect from 1 January 1990. From that time, there would be no further intake of subsided international students. All would be full-fee paying, with several targeted scholarship programs introduced to replace the aid program. For those institutions who had traditionally enrolled large numbers of subsidised students, the reduction in such

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subsidies created an imperative for them to replace lost revenues as soon as possible. These institutions consequently led the sectoral charge into a more extensive involvement in international entrepreneurial activities (Back, Davis & Olsen, 1996, p.8).

The Internationalisation Era (1992 – 1997) - A significant policy statement on international education was delivered by then Education Minister Kim Beazley in 1992. As part of a 'refocusing' of Government policy, a new emphasis was placed upon the broadening of Australia's educational activity to incorporate further research collaboration, staff exchanges and links, greater student mobility, attention to educational values and quality, the development of a more stable policy and regulatory environment, the provision of a 'sound international education infrastructure', and the development of a 'partnership'-style relationship between the Government and education providers. These objectives reflected 'a shift away from commercialism towards a new professionalism of those involved in Australia's international education effort', and reflected the reality that Australia had 'much to learn from participation in international education' (Beazley, 1992, pp.ii,7,8).

The Differentiation Era   (1997 -) - It has been argued recently that the Australian university sector is moving towards a new phase, having already achieved internationalisation, as defined in the broader sense of an holistic approach covering the broad spectrum of international education activities. In particular, given a strong international education base, it is argued that both systems of international education and the institutions which comprise them should move toward differentiating themselves from their competitors in order to maintain or improve market share. The product life cycle concept holds that differentiation becomes an important strategy in maturing markets, and this is the argument used here (Evans & Kemp, 1997, p.3; van Leest, 1998, pp.12-13).

A number of Vice-Chancellors and other senior players in the Australian

university system continue to assert that the nature of the system is being transformed in ways which make business strategies unavoidable,

> *…universities are having to adapt to a new role as commodity brokers in a competitive global and electronic marketplace' (Poole, 2000, p.48)*

> *Strategic partnerships, nationally and internationally, become important. We are competitors for students at many times…we bench-mark against each other, and we have no choice but to respond to this global imperative. (Twomey, in Jones, 2000, p.5)*

3.5 STRATEGIC APPROACHES AND INTERNATIONAL CONVERGENCE IN TRENDS AND STRATEGIES

3.5.1 Strategic Approaches

A stocktake of the international strategies of Australian universities was conducted in 1995 by Back, Davis and Olsen (1996) on behalf of the Australian Government. Salient findings included:

- international students made up 8.4% of the total Australian university student population and accounted for 6.6% of total university income

- 28 universities reported that their focus for international students was "global", while 9 stated that their focus was "Asian" and 1 said "global and Asian"

- however, of the top ten source countries, which accounted for 70% of international students, nine were Asian

- 1256 student exchange agreements existed with overseas institutions, but only 1307 students left Australia to benefit from such agreements

- there were 997 teaching staff exchange agreements between institutions

- 7 universities had offshore campuses (1400 students), and 27 universities had twinning programs with 93 offshore institutions (14,000 students)

- 22 universities provided distance education to 5,000 students

- there were 1,020 research links between Australian and overseas universities

- 22 universities had country-specific business plans, while 5 universities reported having incentive/reward schemes in place for staff involved in international activities

In relation to trends in numbers, Goddard (1997) reported that the number of international university students studying in Australia increased from 13,674 in 1983 to 53,188 in 1996 and that, by 1998, all of Australia's top ten source countries were Asian. International enrolments in Australian higher education grew by a further 14% in the first half of 1998 over the corresponding period in 1997. This occurred despite fears that such growth would not be forthcoming due to the financial crisis in Asia (Maslen, 1998a, p.2). As noted above, international student numbers had risen to 108,600 by 2000 (Osmond, 2000, p.5).

In terms of the evolution in the types of programs being developed and implemented, Logan (1996, p.7) notes a move from the traditional 'standard' programs to new forms of international collaboration incorporating the development of new 'international products'. Such products would combine the resources of several institutions to produce 'new intellectual, pedagogical, and organisational amalgams which can truly be called international'.

One trend in international entrepreneurialism on the part of Australian

universities has been the development of such new international products, albeit focusing on organisational amalgams rather than upon new intellectual and pedagogical amalgams. In particular, the development of collaborative arrangements between institutions has occurred rapidly. These may be developed between universities in a "multilateral" manner, with two recent examples of particular note:

- the Universitas 21 network of 13 universities, including Melbourne, UNSW, Queensland, Auckland and other foreign universities, has been constructed around commitments to develop internal credit transfer mechanisms, best practice quality systems, and elaborate benchmarking arrangements. It also has the aim of creating a system which is perceived both internationally and by its member institutions to be more important than the national systems of its member institutions. Universitas 21 aims to build a "brand" of education which may be attractive to multinational corporations seeking to offer their staff 'portable career-enhancing education' (Healy, 1997a, p.33; Maslen, 1997a, p.4; Healy, 1996a, p.34; Maslen, 1999, p.1). In recent times, Universitas 21 has formed a strategic alliance with News Limited which will begin offering programs under the Universitas 21 "brand" in 2001. Academics from around the globe will tender to provide courses delivered via News Limited and Microsoft technology. Professor Alan Gilbert, the initiator of Universitas 21 is spending six months in London during 2000 to establish the new programs and assert the dominance of Universitas 21 among the new global alliance players in international higher education (Maslen, 2000c, p.2; Maslen, 2000d, p.7; Maslen, 2000e, pp.1, 3; Richardson, 2000, p.39).

- RMIT, the University of South Australia and universities from New Zealand, the United Kingdom, Holland, North America and Taiwan have formed the nine-member Global University Alliance with internet education provider NextEd as a founding shareholder. Students will be able to take on-line units from member institutions beginning in 2001, although the qualification will

be taken from only one, a difference with the broad-badged Universitas 21 strategy (Maslen, 2000f, p.6).

Alliances may also consist of bilateral relationships between universities. For example, Melbourne and Monash have developed a strategic alliance which incorporates joint international marketing programs and the sharing of staff, libraries, and other resources (Maslen, 1997b, pp.1, 3). A more radical example is the merger of the graduate business schools of UNSW and Sydney University, designed to create a 'mega-business school able to compete with their increasingly active US and European rivals in the Asia-Pacific region' (Spencer, 1998a, p.33).

Alliances may also exist between universities and other institutions, including private sector corporations. While losing a degree of control, universities under such arrangements gain access to much needed capital, and benefit from opportunities to lower risk. Such alliances may also enable universities to access new expertise, skills and contacts, and shortcut traditionally slow bureaucratic decision processes. One example of this type of collaboration is that between Macquarie and Deakin Universities and the Sydney and Melbourne offshoots of the private Perth Institute of Business and Technology. The alliance aims to offer fee-paying diplomas which mirror the first year of university business and commerce degrees and utilise university lecture theatres, library resources, and other student facilities (Armitage, 1996, p.7). Similarly, the licensing of Foundation Year programs to other universities and to private colleges represent is another example of this public-private form of alliance. Queensland University's alliance with the Kooralbyn International School and Monash University's alliance with Edwards College are typical of this form (Illing & Healy, 1997, p.35; Spencer, 1998b, p.35).

The following examples represent innovative public-private alliances developed in recent times:

- a $10 million alliance between the University of Southern Queensland and a Melbourne investment group to expand USQ's web-based operations (Illing, 2000, p.48).

- the signing of an agreement between Edith Cowan University and Singapore Airport Terminal Services for the provision of interactive multimedia courses (supplemented by face-to-face lectures) in aviation security, with some aspects of the program to be provided by the University of Western Sydney (de la Harpe, 1997, p.4)

- the development of an alliance between the University of Queensland and the private Rangsit University of Thailand to establish an international university on the tourist island of Phuket, for which UQ will provide curriculum and teaching materials (*The Australian*, 25 Feb.1998, p.33)

- the implementation of a collaborative agreement between Macquarie University's Graduate School of Management and the Times Publishing Group of Singapore in which Macquarie postgraduate business programs will be delivered in Singapore and Malaysia via collaboration undertaken in program delivery, recruitment, and joint publications (McDermott, 1997, p.4)

- the establishment of Sydney and Brisbane CBD campuses by Charles Sturt University, utilising the resources and expertise of the British private education firm Study Group International. The campuses will provide CSU with revenue from international students, and a new student stream derived from the development of new pathways into CSU degrees (Coorey, 1997a, p.37)

- the signing of an alliance between Macquarie University and the private International College of Tourism and Hotel Management for the joint provision of a one-year degree program designed for graduates of the college's diploma

course. In 1997, the college had a student population numbered around 200, derived from 28 countries, and it operated both courses from its Manly campus (Coorey, 1997b, p.41)

The growth of public-public and public-private collaboration represents a significant contemporary trend in university international strategy. This is occurring in the context of much greater local and international competition.

One of the most innovative entrepreneurial strategies undertaken to date in Australian higher education is the establishment of Melbourne University Private (MUP), a public-private offshoot of Melbourne University. MUP has established subsidiary schools in a range of areas, initially focusing on energy, the environment, communications, and information technology. MUP provides a range of accredited courses from certificate to postgraduate level, and has a target of eventually enrolling around 10,000 students from around the world. Each would pay up to $25,000 per year in tuition fees, thus providing total revenues of around $250 million per annum. The establishment of MUP is one element of Melbourne's ambition to become the "Harvard of the south" (Healy, 1997b, p.33; Maslen, 1998b, p.4; Maslen, 1998c, p.4).

In relation to Harvard, it is noteworthy that the university has licensed its name to the Australian hotel group Accor-Pacific for a health education program (Safe, 1997, p.38). As with Oxford University's decision to commence on-line degree offerings, these decisions by prestigious institutions to allow their "brands" to achieve wider distribution contradict the view that such institutions would not dilute their exclusivity and prestige by participating in such activities. Developments in this area may well be significant, since the global distribution of prestigious brands may threaten local universities in their own efforts to protect market share.

A further trend has been the development of enhanced accessibility by Australian

universities in response to the environmental forces of regional volatility and greater competition. In particular, Australian universities are aware of the price sensitivity of some markets (Blake, in Illing, 1998, p.36), and have acted accordingly. Many of these activities are similarly being undertaken as alliance relationships. Charles Sturt University has signed an agreement with a private distance education provider in Hong Kong to provide CSU degrees at half the price of those currently provided to foreign students on-campus in Australia, and will teach up to half of some degrees in Mandarin (Coorey, 1997c, p.39). In a similar vein, Charles Sturt, RMIT and La Trobe have been granted permission to offer whole degrees as part of their Malaysian twinning programs, thus saving substantial sums for students (Spencer, 1998c, p.35). Monash has become the first foreign university to be permitted to operate a branch campus in Malaysia, and it was anticipated that students undertaking full Monash degrees in Malaysia would pay around 50 percent of the fees paid by international students studying on-campus in Australia (*Campus Review*, 25 Feb – 3 March 1998, pp.1-2). Similarly, the University of Wollongong recently became the first western university to be granted permission to build an offshore campus at Dubai in the United Arab Emirates (Elson-Green, 2000, p.2), while the Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology is to establish the first foreign university campus in Vietnam (Maslen, 2000g, p.5).

3.5.2 International Convergence

A significant question arising from the foregoing discussions is whether these developments can be placed in a broader international context. More specifically, is international convergence occurring to create similar pressures on national systems of higher education in different Western countries such as the United Kingdom and United States, and similar responses in terms of international entrepreneurial activities? If so, then models, theories and concepts developed elsewhere may be of some relevance for the Australian context.

A decline in the government proportion of funding for higher education systems appears to be one pressure common to a number of national systems over recent years. In a study of eleven countries, including Australia, the United States, and the United Kingdom, the university systems of all but one of the countries (France) had faced funding levels which had either fallen or remained stable at the same time as student intakes had dramatically increased (Goedegebuure et al, 1994, p.334). As Burton Clark has noted,

Governments expect universities to do much more for society in solving economic and social problems, but at the same time they back and fill in their financial support and become unreliable patrons. (Clark, 1998, p.xiii)

Similarly, the presence of increased levels of domestic and international competition is widely accepted as a common pressure across a range of national systems of higher education, and this has occurred in the context of expanding international markets for university study (Evans & Kemp, 1997, p.4; see also King, 1996, p.5; Davies, 1995, p.13; Knight & de Wit, in de Wit, 1995, p.13; Logan, 1994, p.41; Lenington, 1996, pp.3-4; Hamilton, 1998, p.13; West Committee, 1998, p.62).

Two aspects of this intensified degree of competition are of particular significance. First, it may be the case that levels of competition will intensify further in the years ahead. Coaldrake and Stedman (1998, p.47) believe that 'the effects of competition and quasi-market forces are only just beginning to be felt in our universities', and that competition will continue to develop from alternative providers in addition to the higher levels of competition developing among traditional universities at local and international levels. Second, issues of international competitiveness and competitive advantage are being identified as critical to the success or otherwise of universities. In terms of international competitiveness, successive national governments have endeavoured to build this concept of competitive advantage into general public policy frameworks for some

years. The term 'international competitiveness' has become a 'key phrase' in the university internationalisation sphere (Back & Davis, in de Wit, 1995, p.149), with a growing imperative for universities to 'secure advantage vis a vis other universities, including institutions overseas (Marginson, 1998, p.43).

Universities have responded to these pressures in various ways. One response has been the development of entrepreneurialism in university activities. Even here, however, responses within national systems have developed in an internationally-convergent manner. Cross-national studies have found surprisingly high degrees of convergence in national responses. For instance, Slaughter found that,

..all four countries (Australia, US, UK, Canada) instituted policies that encouraged commercial research and development and business/vocational curricula, emphasising the value of higher education to national economic activity and displaying a preference for market and market-like activity on the part of faculty and institutions.

(Slaughter, in Currie & Newson, 1998, p.47)

The development of entrepreneurialism in research activities has been one response. Entrepeneurialism in international education actitivies has been another, and similarly has been pursued across national boundaries. In relation to the Australian Government's encouragement of international entrepreneurialism, Slaughter and Leslie (1997, p.103) note that Australia is not alone in witnessing the development and implementation of policies focusing on the encouragement of international recruitment of overseas students and the development of a policy framework which views education as an 'export commodity'. The UK has moved in a similar direction during the last decade (Knight & de Wit, 1995, p.5; Bruch & Barty, in Scott, 1998, p.21), while the United States increasingly is viewing international student recruitment in competitive terms (Lambert, in Hanson & Meyerson, 1995, p.21; Desruisseaux, 1998a, pp.A55-57; 1998b, p.A66; Lawnham, 2000b, p.34).

3.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter has provided the context for the case studies which follow in Chapter 6. In sum, this context centres on a rapidly changing Australian university sector in which much of the change is occurring around the topic of international education. As has been illustrated in this chapter, many Australian universities are pursuing income from international education in order to sustain local campuses, and they are doing so in innovative and often radical ways. Before examining the management of these processes in detail, however, it is necessary to outline and justify the study's methodology.

CHAPTER 4 – METHODOLOGY

4.1   INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to describe and justify the methodology to be used for this study. Beginning with a description of the critical/transcendental realist paradigm, the chapter outlines the reasons for the selection of a qualitative methodology for addressing the research problem and questions, as well as the selection of case studies as the primary qualitative methodology selected. Data collection strategies are outlined, and issues of site selection, units of analysis, site visits, the use of interviews, documents, direct observation techniques, and the piloting of data collection instruments are addressed. Next, data analysis strategies are discussed, analytical steps outlined, and the use of the NUDIST computer program to assist in data coding and analysis justified. Lessons learnt from the piloting of analysis techniques are also covered. Issues of research quality are considered, and the steps taken to optimise the reliability, validity and generalisability of data and findings are outlined. Finally, the ethical considerations associated with the study are discussed, and the researcher's commitment to ethical values elaborated.

4.2 JUSTIFICATION FOR THE PARADIGM AND METHODOLOGY

4.2.1   Justification for the Realist Paradigm

The ontological and epistemological orientation of the researcher should be revealed early in a research study, it is argued, since this orientation will directly affect the conduct of the research project (Morgan & Smircich, 1980, p.498; Deshpande, 1983, p.101). The researcher will bring to the project the biases associated with his/her philosophical orientation, as well as those biases associated with the methodologies which flow from this orientation.

The researcher's philosophical orientation is that of a realist, combining elements of both critical and transcendental realism. Realism emerged in response to the German idealist position that the external world did not exist independently of its perception. Realists argued that the concept of awareness must itself presume the existence of objects independent of that awareness or, in other words, that there is an external world which exists independently of its perception (Hunt, 1991, pp.260-261).

In terms of the meta-typologies outlined by writers such as Denzin and Lincoln (in Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, pp.5, 13), the critical realist position lies within the postpositivist paradigm. In sum, this paradigm relies on traditional evaluative criteria, such as internal and external validity, places emphasis on the discovery and verification of theory, tends to use multiple methods to capture as much of reality as possible, and lends itself to the use of qualitative methodologies and structured analysis.

The postpositivist position contrasts with positivist approaches in its view of the latter as being potentially less capable of dealing with the 'immense complexity of human nature and the elusive and intangible quality of social phenomena' (Cohen & Manion, 1994, p.12). The study of management processes undertaken by humans within the amorphous organisations known as "universities" must arguably be undertaken with a different set of assumptions and methodologies than could be possible in the natural world where 'order and regularity' may be assumed. Critical and transcendental realist positions appear to be an appropriate means of incorporating such complexity, while still assuming the existence of an objective reality. Further, as Morgan and Smircich (1980, p.498) note, the dominant (positivist) methods of research become more and more unsatisfactory as the ontological assumption is relaxed that the world is simply a concrete structure which humans respond to rather than create.

The critical realist position is outlined by Guba and Lincoln (in Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, pp.110-111) in terms of three major elements. Firstly, its ontology is labeled as critical realism, because of its claims that reality should be subjected to the widest possible critical examination. Secondly, objectivity is the 'regulatory ideal' of the critical realism epistemology, with findings subject to critical traditions ('do the findings fit with preexisting knowledge?') and to members of the critical community such as editors, referees and professional peers. Thirdly, critical realism's methodology concentrates on collecting situational information in natural settings, focuses on discovery as an element in inquiry, and seeks respondent viewpoints to ascertain the meanings ascribed to action. Together, these techniques may provide a contribution to theory, such as in the use of grounded theory methodologies (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

The transcendental realist position is outlined by Miles and Huberman (1994, p.4). This position affirms the existence of both the objective and perceptual realities, and assumes that 'some lawful and reasonably stable relationships are to be found among them'. These relationships derive from the 'regularities and sequences that link together phenomena'. In sum, the transcendental realist seeks to identify these linkages and to provide evidence, or causal explanations, for their existence.

In sum, the approach taken, combining elements of both critical and transcendental realist philosophies, is one which considers both objective reality and cognitive meanings to be important, seeks to develop theory as an exploratory and explanatory descriptor of this reality, and aims to subject such theory to the critical judgement of peers and practitioners.

As will be further outlined below, the critical-transcendental realism approach lends itself to the use of qualitative methodologies, and in particular is consistent with the case study approach (Perry, 1998, p.786).

4.2.2   Justification for the Use of Qualitative Methodologies

It has been already been argued that research into the internationalisation of universities is at an early stage of its development (de Wit, in de Wit, 1995, p.29; Rudzki, 1998, p.47). It will be demonstrated in this section that this theoretical status provides a suitable context for the use of qualitative methods in research.

Writers in several related fields argue for greater attention to qualitative research techniques. One complementary field to international-entrepreneurialism in universities is that of international business. Research in this field remains similarly embryonic. Research into International Joint Ventures (IJVs), for instance, has been labeled as 'nascent and preparadigmatic' (Parkhe, 1993, p.227), leading to a call for more qualitative research which may 'permit deeper understanding and sharper delineation of concept domains'. Similarly, writers in the field of strategic management research lament the lack of understanding and insight caused by the preoccupation of researchers with a single set of positivist assumptions (Daft & Buenger, in Fredrickson, 1990, p.96).

A number of writers in the broader domain of organisational studies support this view. For Dubin (1982, p.379), the need to develop theory reflective of organisational complexity demands the study of meanings held by organisational participants, while Deshpande (1983, p.107) identifies qualitative research as the primary tool for the generation and construction of theory, in contrast to the theory verification and testing roles of quantitative research. According to Bonoma (1985, p.207), qualitative research methods are appropriate for fields characterised by high complexity and little existing theoretical knowledge, a view echoed by Strauss and Corbin in their statement that:

Qualitative methods can be used to uncover and understand what lies behind any phenomenon about which little is known…Also, qualitative methods can give the intricate details of phenomena.

(Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p.19)

In addition to this role for qualitative research methodologies, Marshall (1985a, 1987, in Marshall & Rossman, 1995, p.43) states that qualitative studies are useful for the study of complexities and processes; real, as opposed to stated, organisational goals; informal and unstructured linkages and processes in organisations; and in situations where relevant variables have yet to be identified. Each of these has relevance for this study.

As an approach, qualitative research possesses several strengths (Burns, 1997, p.12; Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Lowe, 1991, p.32; Miles & Huberman, 1994, p.10; Sarantakos, 1993, p.52). One strength is in its focus on everyday events in their normal settings, so that a strong impression can be gained of what really takes place in a particular context. This is a particular attraction to practitioners, who often value the 'groundedness' of qualitative research. A second strength is the ability to study process and assess causality on the basis of data collected over a sustained period. Third, qualitative studies are flexible, enabling adjustment of the research to ideas and issues as they emerge. Fourth, a deep understanding of meanings given by people to their work and organisational lives is possible. Fifth, qualitative methodology can contribute to the development of theory through the development and testing of hypotheses, or via the formation of grounded theory explanations.   Finally, qualitative studies are said to 'humanise' research processes through their stress upon the significance and importance of the 'other' being researched.

Major difficulties associated with qualitative research include the time required to undertake qualitative studies, and the costs associated with such

studies. Problems may arise in the analysis and interpretation of data, there is often a difficulty in establishing validity and reliability in qualitative research, and there are ethical issues arising from the movement of qualitative researchers into the 'personal sphere' of those being researched (Burns, 1997, p.13; Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Lowe, 1991, p.32; Sarantakos, 1993, p.52).

The aim of qualitative research, according to Mason (1996, p.6), is to 'produce social explanations to intellectual puzzles', and this should be possible as long as the research remains true to the nature of qualitative research as broadly 'interpretivist', while data generation methods are used which are flexible and sensitive to context, and as long as methods of analysis are used which 'involve understandings of complexity, detail and context' (Mason, 1996, p.4).

In sum, qualitative methods both complement the researcher's critical/transcendental realist philosophical stance, and provide a recognition of the need to explore and to generate early theoretical propositions in an embryonic and under-conceptualised field. In addition, when appropriately and systematically used, such methods potentially complement Mintzberg's criteria for strategic management research, namely:

> *Research based on description and induction instead of implicit or explicit prescription and deduction; reliance on simple, inelegant, as opposed to "rigorous" methods of data collection; the measurement of many elements in real organisational terms, supported by anecdote, instead of a few variables in perceptual terms from a distance; and the synthesis of these elements into clusters, instead of the analysis of pairs of variables as continuous relationships.*   *(Mintzberg, 1979, pp.578-579)*

4.2.3   Justification for the Use of Case Studies

Given the field's under-conceptualisation and embryonic nature, a qualitative research methodology appropriate to this reality is that of the case study. This section will provide several justifications for this choice.

Case studies are defined as:

> *'an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident'.*
>
> *(Yin, 1994, p.13)*

One significant justification for the selection of case studies is that they are an appropriate methodology for research conducted from the realist paradigm (Perry, 1998, p.787).   Case studies are usually contemporary and pre-paradigmatic, thus requiring inductive theory building which would be potentially difficult using the principles of a more prescriptive paradigm. In addition, case study research usually investigates the 'unobservable' perceptions of organisational participants, whereas positivism holds that only the observable should be researched.   On this basis, realism is a more appropriate choice than positivism for case study research.   Finally, the emphasis by many case study researchers on the use of common measures such as reliability and validity necessitates the use of a paradigm accommodating of this approach. Realism is one such paradigm.

In sum, the paradigm of realism is highly amenable to the adoption of qualitative methodologies, and one such methodology which is consistent with the fundamental principles of realism is that of the case study. This argument is somewhat at variance with that of writers like Yin (1994, p.14)

and Stake (in Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, p.236), who view case studies as the first choice in selecting a methodology, rather than as a decision consistent with the paradigmatic choices already made. Case studies may be quantitative or qualitative, and may use a variety of different methodologies such as historical or statistical analysis methods. It is this researcher's view, however, that a defensible methodological justification is one which begins with a justification of the paradigm (realism), moves onto a justification of the general methodology most consistent with that paradigm (qualitative research), and concludes with the specific methodology (case studies) most appropriate to the state of the field being studied (the strategic management of international entrepreneurial activities in universities) and the paradigmatic choices already made.

As has been noted above, the state of the field calls for more exploratory and descriptive research, and this is a strength of case study research. There is wide recognition of the appropriateness of case studies for exploratory research (Bonoma, 1985, p.207; Parkhe, 1993, p.16; Sarantakos, 1993, p.115; Yin, 1994, p.4; Marshall & Rossman, 1995; p.41). In addition, the use of multiple case studies is argued to add confidence to the findings and lead to better understanding and theorising than occurs with a single-case approach (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p.29; Stake, in Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, p.237; Yin, 1994, p.45). Although there are additional costs associated with a multiple case approach, particularly in terms of time and resources, it is argued that the more compelling and robust evidence arising from multiple cases more than outweighs these costs (Bonoma, 1985, p.206; Yin, 1994, p.45; Burns, 1997, p.369).

Case studies possess several other strengths of relevance to this study. In particular, there is the capacity of case studies to aid the development of theory via analytical generalisation (Eisenhardt, 1989, p.535; Parkhe, 1993). According to Eisenhardt (1989, p.548), theory-building approaches are

particularly useful in the early stages of research in a field where little is known about a phenomenon and previous literature and empirical evidence are scarce. Another strength of case study research derives from its increasing acceptance by management practitioners in terms of the contributions which case studies can provide to practice (Gummesson, 1991, pp.73, 76-77). Researchers can thus select the methodology with the realistic hope that it may potentially inform practice if undertaken systematically and appropriately. Finally, case studies are appropriate for the kinds of "how" and "why" questions being raised in this study (Yin, 1994, pp.20-21).

In sum, this thesis aims to understand some of the complexity behind the management processes of Australian universities, and the case study method has been selected since it may be the most appropriate methodology for appreciating the complexity of organisational phenomena (Yin, 1994, p.xv).

4.3 RESEARCH PROCEDURES – DATA COLLECTION STRATEGIES

Descriptions of and justifications for the selection of cases, units of analysis, and methods of data collection within the qualitative case study method are required if there is to be confidence in the study's findings and conclusions. Such description and justification is provided in this section of the chapter.

4.3.1 Case Selection

A purposeful (or "purposive") sampling methodology has been selected for this study. As noted by Burns (1997, p.370), the purposeful approach directs case selection towards those cases which best serve the study's purposes and objectives. The cases chosen should assist the researcher in the processes of discovery, and the generation of insight and understanding into the phenomena under investigation. The 'ideal' site is thus one where access is

possible, and where a rich mix of processes, people, programs, interactions structures is likely to be found (Marshall & Rossman, 1995, p.51).

In focussing on the objectives and purpose of the study, purposeful sampling is directly linked to theory, since the research problem and questions flow directly from gaps in the extant literature and an analysis of the limited theoretical work undertaken to date in the field. This link to theory means that purposeful sampling can also be seen as being theoretical sampling, in which cases are selected primarily for their potential to contribute to the replication or extension of theory (Eisenhardt, 1989, p.533).

In implementing this theory-linked purposeful sampling approach, the use of a replication logic is proposed by Yin (1994, p.45) and Miles and Huberman (1994, pp.29-30). Replication logic views cases as being similar to multiple experiments rather than to the multiple respondents responding to a survey (Yin, 1994, p.45). Thus, cases are chosen which predict similar results, known as a literal replication, or contrasting results for predictable reasons, a theoretical replication. However, the use of replication logic is arguably difficult in an exploratory study in which little is yet known about the institutions to be studied. To predict at the outset a simple relationship between the effectiveness of perceived management processes and the success of entrepreneurial activities would be either naïve or dangerous, or both. For this reason, while purposeful sampling is assumed to be important for the potential future generalisability of results, the difficulty of implementing a replication logic appears problematic for an exploratory study of this nature.

In sum, the logic and power of purposeful sampling lies in the selection of information-rich cases for in-depth study (Patton, 1990, p.169). Within the purposeful sampling framework, a mixed sampling strategy has been selected as appropriate for this exploratory study. One element of this strategy is

intensity sampling (Patton, 1990, p.171), where two cases have been selected exhibiting an 'intense manifestation' of the phenomenon of interest, namely the institution's level of involvement in international activities. Involvement levels are derived from the criteria 'Overseas Students as a Proportion of the Total Student Population', as shown in Table 2.4. Two cases in the sample, designated as "Reid" and "Hickling", are both represented in the top decile of Australian universities on the basis of this criterion. In other words, each has an international student cohort representing at least 20 percent of its total student population. The justification for this sampling logic derives from the pilot study, in which it was found that those participants with a more direct degree of involvement with international activities were more capable of discussing the management of these activities in an informed manner. The implication of this finding is that institutions with greater concentrations of international activity will in overall terms potentially provide more information-rich responses than those with moderate or little involvement in international entrepreneurial activities.

The three other institutions selected were chosen as part of a stratified purposeful sampling strategy (Patton, 1990, p.174). This strategy samples representatives of above-average, average, and below-average institutions to capture the variation which may exist between them rather than some common core. "Samuels University" sits near the midpoint of Australian universities on the above criterion, and is also intrinsically interesting as a university seen to be rapidly becoming more entrepreneurial in its international activities. "Parkes" and "Wentworth" are regional institutions situated in the lower quartile of Australian universities on the basis of their proportion of overseas students, yet both are nevertheless perceived within the higher education community and portrayed in the media as relatively innovative and entrepreneurial institutions. Thus, these institutions will be potentially interesting in particular for their responses to the locational and

size constraints which they face, and which potentially constrain involvement in international-entrepreneurial activities.

One sampling limitation which does bound the findings, however, is that three institutions requested to participate in the study refused involvement. Nonetheless, institutions with generally similar characteristics were found to assume their place and subsequently agreed to participate in the study.

In sum, a mixed approach to sampling is argued to be appropriate for this study. The benefits of this approach are in its flexibility, potential contribution to triangulation of perspectives, and in its ability to meet multiple needs and interests (Kuzel, 1992, Patton, 1990, in Miles & Huberman, 1994, p.28).

As for the number of cases being undertaken, a reliance on theoretical rather than statistical sampling leads to considerations of the nature of the research problem being faced, and the time, money, and other resource limitations facing the researcher (Eisenhardt, 1989, p.537; Patton, 1990, p.184, Seidman, 1991, p.45). The number of cases selected is in accordance with the generally accepted range elaborated in the literature for this type of research (Eisenhardt, 1989, p.545; Perry, 1998, p.794). A desire to undertake all data collection during the researcher's sabbatical in the latter half of 1999 affirmed this decision, as did numerous conversations with experienced qualitative researchers in the management field. In sum, as stated by Patton:

> *The validity, meaningfulness and insights generated from qualitative inquiry have more to do with the information richness of the cases selected and the observational/analytical capabilities of the researcher than with sample size.*
>
> *(Patton, 1990, p.185)*

4.3.2   Selection of Units of Analysis

As with case selection, the type of internal sampling undertaken within cases must be consistent with the premises of qualitative research, the way in which the research questions have been defined, and with the contingencies of the study (Burns, 1997, p.371; Yin, 1994, p.21).

The unit of analysis for this study is the "Faculty", the collective name for a group of departments or schools in Australian universities.   In this case, Faculties of Business (or Commerce) are the focus, since they represent the phenomenon with an appropriately high degree of intensity.   As shown in Table 2.2, over half of all international students are studying in this field.   In addition, it is arguable that such Faculties should be pursuing, on the basis of what they teach, a more "business-like" approach to managing international entrepreneurial activities, and possess an awareness of innovative approaches to the management of such activities.

In theoretical terms, this represents an 'embedded' rather than 'holistic' unit of analysis.   Researching embedded units involves the study of specific phenomena in operational detail, in contrast to the broader view associated with a holistic approach (Yin, 1994, pp.42, 44).   Although a broader view remains important, the constraints on studying universities in their entirety are considerable, and it is arguable that the rich meanings sought in this study are amenable to a more focussed approach.   Nonetheless, this study has not been undertaken in isolation from broader institutional issues such as managing the tensions arising across the institution from the dominance of Faculties of Business.

In addition, to provide consistency across the cases, Schools or Departments of Management have been selected as a major focus, within the Faculties, for the study.   Once again, the desire to obtain a high degree of information

richness has led to the targeting of those who have some familiarity with the general concepts and theories of management. Within the pilot study, this focus enabled a number of participants to enunciate their views in ways amenable to further probing for depth and comprehensiveness. In addition, as a lecturer in management, the researcher has found it relatively easy to generate a rapid and strong rapport with colleagues in the field. The development of rapport is critical for effective interviewing (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, pp.256-257).

A secondary focus is on Schools or Departments of Marketing and Accounting, with three of each targeted in the study to provide a point of comparison for the Schools or Departments of Management. In particular, the greater emphasis given by these departments to quantitative subjects may provide a point of difference with departments of management.

4.3.3 Site Visits

Visits to case study sites took place on the following dates:

Table 4.1 Site Visits

University	Dates
Australia U (Pilot)	20/4 – 10/5 1999
Parkes	20/9 – 24/9 1999
Samuels	27/9– 1/10 1999
Reid	10/10 – 14/10 1999
Hickling	25/10 – 28/10 1999
Wentworth	1/11 – 4/11 1999

The development of a comprehensive case study protocol guided the site visits (Burns, 1997, p.372; Eisenhardt, 1989, p.538; Miles & Huberman,

1994, pp.51-54; Yin, 1994, pp.65-73).   Case study protocols including interview guides are useful in that they remind the researcher to anticipate and prepare responses to the many issues which arise during case study research. For instance, protocols can force the researcher to consider how the case studies will actually be completed (Yin, 1994, p.65).   The protocol, a copy of which may be found in Appendix 1, contains sample copies of:

- a sample introductory letter sent to three senior academic managers or administrators at each case study institution. Letters were sent to three of the following, depending on institutional size and structure: Vice-Chancellor, Pro-Vice Chancellor (International), Director of the International Office, Dean of the Faculty of Business, or their equivalents

- the researcher's "self-help guide" to important issues to be covered during each interview

- a guide to the study, as distributed to each participant

- the topic guide for interviews (pilot version and revised version)

- the ethics approval form to be signed by each participant

- a contact summary sheet for the listing of impressions and reflections arising from each interview, and,

- a sample document summary form for the listing of key information about documents obtained at each site.

- a sample observation summary form for the recording of direct observations at each site

- sample interview and methodological reflection sheets

Seven days after sending the initial letter, those to whom it was sent were followed up by telephone to determine if agreement could be reached to participate in the study. Other key staff were contacted, as outlined below, and heads of department asked to suggest the names of other academic staff with appropriate experience in the administration or teaching of international entrepreneurial programs.

In entering the field work phase, a 'middle route' (Parkhe, 1993) was taken between the extremes of possessing a fully developed and described theoretical framework (Yin, 1994, p.46) on one hand, and having no theory under consideration and no hypotheses to test on the other (Eisenhardt, 1989, p.536). Although the latter reflects the original approach of Glaser and Strauss (1967), this has since been modified by Strauss and Corbin (1990, 1994) with their acceptance of the reality that researchers will carry their 'sensitising' experiences of training, reading, research, and knowledge of explicit theory into the field. Thus, a modified rather than pure grounded theory approach is being assumed throughout the study.

In sum, the middle route approach is reflected in the development of a general conceptual framework, as illustrated in the attempt to situate the study loosely around the models of Knight (1994) and Thompson and Strickland (1998) outlined in Chapter 2, and in the elaboration of a case study protocol, as outlined above. This approach is broadly consistent with that advocated by Miles and Huberman in their advocacy of the use of conceptual frameworks, moderated by the need to avoid over-instrumentation in exploratory research studies (1994, pp.20, 36).

4.3.4 Interviews

Nature of Interviews Conducted

Since case studies are about people and their activities, it is argued that interviews are an indispensable source of case study information (Burns, 1997, p.328; Yin, 1994, p.85). Interviews are thus a key element of this study, and are particularly important given its focus on understanding the meanings of participants about their organisation and its structures, systems, and processes (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Lowe, 1991, p.72). The research interview is therefore defined, for the purposes of this study, as:

> *A two-person conversation initiated by the interviewer for the specific purpose of obtaining research-relevant information, and focused by him on content specified by research objectives of systematic description, prediction, or explanation.*
>
> *(Cannell & Kahn in Cohen and Manion, 1994, p.271)*

Interviews conducted in this study were of a semi-structured nature. As stated above, exploratory research requires less instrumentation than other forms of research, however some systemisation is required if findings are to be at all comparable between cases (Marshall & Rossman, 1995, p.80). The revised interview guide presented in Appendix 1 accommodates this tension between the flexible and the systematic. The general philosophy behind the guide is that its use is not strictly prescriptive, but that all key issues, as derived from the research questions, should be covered at some stage of the interview. Following the advice of Dick (1990, pp.8-9, 39) and Perry (1994, p.21; 1998, p.792), interviews began with general questions to discover the respondent's own meanings and subjective understandings, then increasingly converged on significant issues through the use of probe questions.

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The study aimed to conduct ten interviews of approximately 40 to 50 minutes at each institution. Fifty two interviews across the five institutions plus eleven interviews in the pilot study, a total of sixty-three, is at the upper end of the suggested range for doctoral research (Perry, 1998, p.794), however this was deemed to be an appropriate number based on the nature of the study and based on reflections from the pilot study. As noted above, the aim of the research was to focus the interviews on Faculties of Business or Commerce, so the Faculty Dean was an important research participant. To link the Faculty to the broader institution, the Pro Vice-Chancellor (International Affairs) or their equivalent was also viewed to be an integral study participant. In order to obtain a more detailed understanding of the management of international entrepreneurial activities, several academics from Departments of Management with a strong degree of international involvement were interviewed, as well as the departmental head. Although around sixty percent of the academics interviewed were based in Departments of Management, the remainder came from non-management departments such as accounting and marketing in order to assist with generalising the findings from departmental to Faculty level. Additional perspectives were generated from interviews with the manager or director of the university's International Programs office, as well as the international programs marketing manager.

Interviewees were grouped in three categories. The first, "senior institutional managers", generally included the Vice-Chancellor, Pro Vice-Chancellor (International), Director of the International Office (if considered to be at the level of Dean or above) and Dean of the Faculty of Business, or their equivalents. The second category, "academic managers", generally included departmental heads, International Office Directors below the level of Dean, International Office marketing managers, and departmental managers with international responsibilities holding titles such as Associate Dean, International. The final category, "academics" includes all the academics

interviewed.   The academics possessed a range of international responsibilities and were generally recommended for interview by departmental heads or those staff within institutions assisting in the coordination of the site visits.

Strengths and Weaknesses of Interviews

As a research method, interviewing possesses several strengths. Interviewing allows for careful targeting of a topic, great depth through the direct interaction between interviewer and interviewee, and encourages immediate follow-up and clarification of responses. Interviews can be insightful, and the flexibility inherent in some forms of interviewing permits researcher and respondent to move back and forth between past, present and future via the processes of reconstruction, interpretation, and prediction (Cohen & Manion, 1995, p.272; Guba & Lincoln, 1985, p.273; Marshall & Rossman, 1995, pp.80-81; Yin, 1994, pp.80, 85).

Interviewing's weaknesses include reflexivity, where the respondent provides the answer which they believe the interviewer is seeking, bias resulting from poor questions or in relation to the respondent's answers, poor respondent recall, possible respondent discomfort in sharing sensitive information, the possible underestimation by researchers of the complexity of interviewing, interviewing's time consuming nature, and the dangers which come from being over-dependent on one respondent (Burns, 1997, p.372; Cohen & Manion, 1994, p.272; Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Lowe, 1991, p.72; Marshall & Rossman, 1995, pp.80-81; Yin, 1994, p.80). Tactics used to limit such weaknesses are outlined in section 4.5.

Recording of Interviews

The costs and benefits of tape recording interviews is widely contested in the literature. The proponents of taping argue that it allows interviewers to remain more attentive to respondents, that it ensures that respondents' thoughts are embodied in their actual words, and that accuracy can be stressed through respondent checks and systematic transcription of tapes. In addition, by giving full attention to the respondent, interviewers can be more objective about identifying the key issues to be discussed, while participants may be more confident about responsible treatment of their responses if those responses are recorded accurately (Dick, 1990, pp.36-37; Patton, 1990, p.349; Seidman, 1991, p.87; Yin, 1994, p.86).

Those holding the opposing view argue that recording should not occur if the respondent is uncomfortable, or if freely given assent is not forthcoming (Cohen & Manion, 1994, p.286; Yin, 1994, p.86). Further, it may take longer to establish rapport, interviewers may feel that they can pay less attention to what is being said, and there are substantial time and resource costs associated with transcribing audio tapes (Dick, 1990, pp.36-37). Lincoln and Guba (1985, p.272) go as far as to argue that the effects of possible respondent distrust outweigh any advantages associated with recording.

Although these disadvantages are significant, the researcher concluded that the advantages of recording do outweigh the disadvantages, and that such disadvantages can be limited by the use of field notes, reflective diaries, and similar methodological logs as a complement to the transcribed interview (Patton, 1990, pp.349, 351). In addition, giving respondents the opportunity to *not* be taped is a significant element of the case study protocol underlying this study. Two respondents in this study requested to not be taped.

4.3.5 Documents

The Nature of Documents as Case Study Evidence

Document are an important source of case study evidence, and can include financial data, market information, written archives, business plans, and promotional material. Their role in case study research is to augment and corroborate information from other sources, such as interviews (Yin, 1994, p.81). Used in this way, documents can be an important source of perceptual triangulation (Bonoma, 1985, p.203). In addition, documents have the advantages of being unobtrusive, being able to be viewed repeatedly, and being broad in coverage in terms of time, events, and settings (Yin, 1994, p.80).

Documents, however, can be difficult to retrieve, and a source of reporting bias if the document authors were themselves biased. In addition, they may be inaccurate, difficult to access, and incomplete, leading to biased selectivity (Burns, 1997, p.372; Yin, 1994, p.82).

Documents Used in this Study

Documents were used in this study to provide background material about institutions and their international activities, and to corroborate the evidence provided in the case interviews. Documents accessed and analysed during this study included institutional international strategic plans, university annual reports, course promotional material, campus newsletters and newspapers and, at two institutions, confidential international strategy documents. Such documents provided important sensitising information prior to and during site visits, as well as serving as a valuable resource for the development of appropriate probe questions. They also provided a reference point for corroborating participant comments and, conversely, determining if

institutional rhetoric as conveyed in documents would be corroborated by participants.

4.3.6   Direct Observation

Observations can form another useful source of information in case study research. Site visits create the opportunity for direct observation, and such observations can range from the formal to the informal (Yin, 1994, pp.86-87). The primary strengths of direct observation include its groundedness in reality and context, while weaknesses include its selective nature and potential for reflexivity of response by those being observed (Yin, 1994, p.80). This study uses informal methods of direct observation to indicate:

- relative office locations, office layouts and general office organisation
- symbols of status and power relationships such as in the mode of dress of participants and in the ways in which participants speak to others in the institution

Informal direct observation in this study included observational walks around the campus and its facilities, paying particular attention to functional centres such as the International Student Office and student facilities. There are several ways in which such observations can assist the study. For example, an institution's verbal commitment to providing additional services to international students can be reconciled against the actual existence or otherwise of such facilities. Likewise, a commitment to quality administration of students can be compared to the atmosphere of administrative areas and the presence or absence of queues. While it is accepted that observations of this type are open to selectivity and reflexivity, it is nonetheless asserted that they can potentially add additional understanding and richness to the study (Yin, 1994, p.87).

An "observations form" was completed during each site visit, and a copy of this is included in the case study protocol contained in Appendix 1.

In addition, direct observation processes which assisted the researcher to gain familiarity with the field's issues and people included attendance at two IDP International Education Conferences (Canberra, 1998; Fremantle, 1999). This enabled the researcher to meet with and discuss the research project with leaders in international education as well as providing access to current research being undertaken in the field.

4.3.7 Design and Piloting of the Instruments

The completion of a pilot study is useful, for several reasons. Not only do such studies suggest modifications to the initial research design, but relevant lines of questioning can be developed, logistical issues can be tackled, and fundamental research issues can be raised (Yin, 1994, pp.52, 74-75). The complexities of interviewing are also amenable to a pilot study. In particular, researchers can use their initial experience in the field to trial case protocols and develop some experience of the interviewer-interviewee relationship.

Data collection instruments were trialled in a pilot study at "Australia University" during April-May 1999. The results of this study have been reported elsewhere (Poole, 1999). Several important methodological lessons were learnt, each informing the development of the substantive case studies to follow.

First, a day was lost through one interviewee's unannounced cancellation of the appointment. The lesson here is that appointments needed to be confirmed prior to interview in order to minimise the chance of this occurring repeatedly.

Second, additional letters had to be sent during the pilot study to potential participants who had expressed unease about the nature of the study and the possibility that commercially sensitive information would be divulged. The revised letter placed greater emphasis on the study's confidentiality provisions.

Third, although the interview question guide served its purpose, several revisions were required. The final two questions were deleted entirely, since they did not relate strongly enough to the research questions. Although interesting, responses were not included in the pilot study report (Poole, 1999), as they related more to systemic factors than to institution-specific management processes. The structure of the guide was also revised and tightened to reflect the revised research questions as modified following the pilot study. Individual questions were also edited so as to be more appropriate for an interview "guide" rather than a more structured and prescriptive interview question list.

Finally, reflecting on the interview process led the researcher to evaluate how probe questions were used in the pilot study. Probes should never lead (Burns, 1997, pp.375-376; Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Lowe, 1991, p.81), however this may have indirectly occurred in the pilot study through, for instance, asking more questions about leadership of leaders, and about administration of administrators. Of course, leaders can be expected and did say that leadership is crucial, and administrators said the same of administration! Consequently, greater attention was given in the substantive case studies to achieving more consistency in questioning, and to the use of less directive probe questions.

4.4 RESEARCH PROCEDURES – DATA ANALYSIS STRATEGIES

4.4.1 The Nature of Qualitative Data Analysis

There are the two primary tasks facing organisational researchers undertaking qualitative research. One task is the 'detective work' required to trace patterns and consistencies in the data. The other is to take the 'creative leaps' essential in generalising from data (Mintzberg, 1979, p.584). This discussion of data analysis strategies takes place around these fundamental tasks.

Three assumptions underlie the data analysis undertaken in this study. First, it is assumed that flexibility is required in analysis, as it is with other phases of qualitative research, and that there are no 'simple cookbook procedures' which can be uncritically applied (Yin, 1994, p.125). As noted above, the flexibility of qualitative research is a major advantage of the methodology, and this flexibility must be maintained. In sum, each study calls for the 'bending of methodology to the peculiarities of the study' (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p.5). This is not an argument against the application of a systematic approach, but is rather one which emphasises the importance of flexibility in researching the unexplored and unknown.

Second, while stressing the inductive, methods of qualitative analysis which overlap the inductive with an element of the deductive are assumed to be appropriate for this type of research. Although the researcher accepts the injunction that 'received' theory should not drive a qualitative study (Bowman, in Fredrickson, 1990, p.24), the importance of prior theory in underlying the study and sensitising the researcher is assumed to be of importance in guiding fieldwork and analysis. As Adams and White note (in Perry, 1998, p.796), case studies can become mere 'mindless description' without an appropriate grounding in theory.

Third, although qualitative analysis can result in typologies, matrices and diagrams of great complexity, as is the case with some proposed by Miles and Huberman (1994), this study takes the view of Daft (1983, p.542) that relatively simple models can possess considerable analytical power. That is, complex organisational phenomena may be potentially described through two or three variable models, as long as the variables selected are indeed critical in influencing the phenomena under investigation.

In sum, the values of flexibility, a grounding in theory, and simplicity represent the guiding principles for data analysis in this study.

4.4.2   Phases in the Analysis Process

The analysis process undertaken in this study broadly follows the 'classic' process identified by Miles and Huberman (1994, p.9). The key steps in this process are:

- affix codes
- note reflections
- sort and sift to identify similar phrases and relationships
- isolate these patterns and processes, commonalities and differences
- gradually elaborate a small set of generalisations
- confront these with a formalised body of knowledge in the form of constructs and theories

A key issue in the qualitative research literature concerns when the process of analysis should occur. One view is that analysis should occur incrementally as data is collected (Dick, 1990, p.9; Eisenhardt, 1989, p.533; Patton, 1990, p.377; Yip, 1994, p.49). This can inform future sampling decisions, particularly if a replication logic is being followed. An alternative view

advocates a delay in analysis until data collection is complete, thus avoiding the imposition of meaning from one interview onto another (Seidman, 1991). A middle ground between these positions has been assumed in this study. Some analysis occured during data collection, as with the use of contact summary sheets and the noting of reflections, however the time and resource constraints delimiting the study precluded comprehensive analysis until the completion of the data collection phase.

Analysis of single cases preceded cross-case comparisons so that the development of a strong degree of familiarity with each case could occur. As each case is an idiosyncratic whole, deep familiarity with each case can lead to a more realistic conception of the degree to which cross-case generalisation can occur (Eisenhardt, 1989, p.540; Patton, 1990, p.387).

4.4.3 Analysis of Interviews, Documents and Observations

As noted above, analytical methods followed the phases of the classic process, as identified by Miles and Huberman (1994, p.9). A key element of this process concerned the use of coding techniques for interview transcripts.

Coding is an essential element of the analysis process, since 'without classification there is chaos' (Patton, 1990, p.382). Coding assists in the identification of themes, concepts and meanings in the data, and is potentially useful for a study in which detailed analysis occurs following data collection (Burns, 1997, pp.341, 376).

Codes were developed on the basis of the research questions, and attention was paid to relate the codes in a conceptually consistent manner. Code definitions were formulated, and the coding scheme reconfigured as required by the emerging analytical themes. The movement from descriptive codes to interpretive and pattern codes assisted with the transition from superficial to

deeper levels of analysis. Memos and the use of interim case summaries and vignettes formed an integral element of the analysis. Interim analyses, useful for 'sense-making', served as summarising devices during cross-case analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1994, pp.51-86).

As noted above, document summary sheets were used to summarise the salient points in documents obtained from each site, and to reflect upon their conceptual and theoretical significance.

The Non-numerical Unstructured Data Indexing Searching and Theorising ("NUDIST") computer program assisted with much of the analysis process.

4.4.4   Use of NUDIST in Analysis

Computers can be used in qualitative data analysis in several ways (Mason, 1996, p.112; Miles & Huberman, 1994, p.44; Richards & Richards, in Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, pp.44-47). Such uses include editing, coding, storage of data, search and retrieval, data linking, content analysis, memoing, data display, and theory building. Performing simple tasks such as coding and retrieval is arguably "analysis", since the categorisation of information implies that decisions about the relative merits of different concepts and theories are being made. In sum, such programs assist in theoretical development since they force the researcher to create boundaries and state key concepts. In addition, data analyses can be fed back into computer programs to become further data for later analysis, thus promoting the cyclical development of grounded analytical outputs. It is further argued that those who don't use such programs may disadvantage their research in comparison to those who do integrate computer analysis programs into their analytical efforts (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p.44).

It is recognised that there are several potential dangers inherent in using computer programs for data analysis. Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe (1991, pp.110-115) argue that computers can 'mechanise what should be an intuitive process' and thus damage the power of explanation. Although much of the clerical task associated with analysis may be reduced by computers, they argue that 'no package can substitute for a researcher's interpretive skills'. In addition, an overemphasis on counting and frequencies in data analysis may jeopardise the quality of ideas and experiences which should be the core of qualitative data.

Within this study, data coded with the assistance of NUDIST have been used to assist in the development of theory through the program's search and retrieval function. In addition, NUDIST's assistance with coding via the use of a node-based coding scheme was fundamental to the categorisation and organisation of data. The generation of reports from NUDIST about the text and its coding patterns was also undertaken.

Although NUDIST can be used for cross-variable analysis and similar analytical functions, these were not used to any significant extent during analysis, since the researcher wished to retain as much intuitive power as possible, in line with Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe's criticisms outlined above. In addition, the cautionary advice of Mason (1996, p.112) was heeded. That is, firstly, that data slices should not be treated as more concrete and uniform than they really are. Such slices are loose and flexible groupings of data, not 'tidy and labeled variables'. Secondly, Mason advises that data should not be indexed if it cannot be categorised cross-sectionally. Finally, the importance of context cannot be overstated, since the development of 'cross-sectional categorical indexing systems can make you forget that this means just the comparison of some decontextualised data with others'.

In sum, while NUDIST is helpful for many of the functions associated with qualitative data analysis, it cannot and should not assume control for tasks such as pattern matching, theme development, and the formation of conceptual models, for which responsibility should remain with the researcher.

4.4.5   Piloting of Analysis Techniques

During the pilot study, data analysis occurred in line with the methods outlined above. Transcripts were read and re-read, and margin notes added consisting of initial reflections. Coding occurred via the use of a question-based coding system which was revised during the coding process. Memos were written and emerging themes identified. Preliminary findings were subjected to a search for negative instances and disconfirming evidence. Conclusions were fed back to participants for comment, and these comments generally affirmed the accuracy of description and salience of conclusions. It should be noted, however, that the pilot study was based on a single case, and thus cross-case analytical techniques were not developed until the substantive case studies were undertaken.

4.5   RESEARCH QUALITY ISSUES

4.5.1   Determining Quality in Qualitative Research

Quality is an elusive concept in qualitative research, since quality cannot be as easily determined for a dissertation as it can for a product or service. Debates occur around the meaning of research quality, and there are exhortations from writers like Daft (1983, pp.91-98) for researchers to build in room in their research designs for error and surprise. A balance thus needs to be struck between being under and over-systematic in the instrumentation of quality controls.

Nonetheless, there are three suggested frameworks for judging the quality of qualitative research which usefully underlie this study. The first, suggested by Yin (1994, pp.94-98), lists three principles for data collection:

- *use multiple sources of evidence*
- *create a case study database*
- *maintain a chain of evidence*

For judging the quality of analysis, Eisenhardt (1989, p.548) suggests that three questions are asked:

- *were analytical procedures followed carefully?*
- *does the evidence supplied support the theory?*
- *have rival explanations been ruled out?*

Further, a strong theory-building study is perceived to have a good, although not perfect, fit with the data (Eisenhardt, 1989, p.548).

An over-arching list of standards for judging the quality of a qualitative study is provided by Marshall (in Marshall and Rossman, 1995, pp.146-148). This list includes:

- *the method is explicated in detail so the reader can judge whether it was adequate and makes sense…Data collection and analysis procedures are public, not magical.*
- *assumptions are stated. Biases are expressed.*
- *the research guards against value judgements in data collection and analysis*
- *there is abundant evidence from raw data to demonstrate the connection between the presented findings and the real world, and*

the data are presented in readable, accessible form, perhaps aided by graphics, models, charts, and figures.

- *the research questions are stated, and the study answers those questions and generates further questions.*

- *the relationships between this study and previous studies is explicit…it is clear that the research goes beyond previously established frameworks.*

- *the study is reported in a manner that is accessible to other researchers, practitioners, and policy makers.*

- *evidence is presented showing that the researcher was tolerant of ambiguity, searched for alternative explanations, checked out negative instances, and used a variety of methods to check the findings.*

- *the report acknowledges the limitations of generalisability while assisting the readers in seeing the transferability of findings.*

- *it is clear that there was a phase of "first days in the field" in which problem focus was generated from observation, not from library research. In other words, it is a study that is an exploration, not merely a study to find contextual data to verify old theories.*

- *data are preserved and available for reanalysis.*

- *methods are devised for checking data quality (eg. Informants' knowledgeability, ulterior motives, and truthfulness), and for guarding against ethnocentric explanations.*

- *in-field work analysis is documented.*

- *the researcher is careful about the sensitivity of those being researched – ethical standards are maintained.*

- *people in the research benefit in some way.*

- *data collection strategies are the most adequate and efficient available. There is evidence that the researcher is a finely tuned research instrument.*

- *the study is tied into the "big picture". The researcher looks holistically at the setting to understand linkages among systems.*
- *the researcher traces the historical context to understand how institutions and roles have evolved.*

(Marshall, in Marshall & Rossman, 1995, pp.146-148)

This study seeks to affirm a commitment to high quality research based upon these standards, and this affirmation underlies the discussion of reliability, validity, and generalisation which follows.

4.5.2   Reliability and Construct and Internal Validity

Reliability is generally defined as the 'ability of an instrument to produce consistent results' (Sarantakos, 1993, p.79), while internal validity relates to whether the instrument used is actually measuring the right thing (Sarantakos, 1993, p.80). For Yin (1994, pp.32-37) reliability can be achieved through the use of a case study protocol in which as many as the steps in research as possible are made operational through explicit description. Internal validity can be pursued through strategies such as pattern-matching and explanation building, while construct validity can be pursued via the use of multiple sources of evidence, demonstrating a chain of evidence, and through having key informants verify the case's interim findings (Yin, 1994, pp.34-35).

Although these concepts are interpreted somewhat differently by Lincoln and Guba (1985), many of the suggestions remain the same. Reliability is viewed as a study's 'consistency' or 'dependability', and can be this can be achieved via tactics such as the development of an audit trail, reflective diaries, and methodological notes (Lincoln and Guba, 1985, pp.319-321).

Validity is perceived as the need to establish 'credibility' for the evidence and findings presented, and this can be achieved via tactics such as prolonged engagement in the field, persistent observation, triangulation, peer debriefing, negative case analysis, and member checks of data, interpretations, and conclusions (Lincoln and Guba, 1985, pp.301-315).

Based on the view that these approaches are generally complementary, this study utilises seven primary strategies to maximise reliability/dependability and validity/credibility.

First, researcher bias is minimised by entering the field with a degree of familiarity with the field, strong conceptual interests, and a preparedness to assume a multidisciplinary approach beyond the bounds of just strategic management theory, as outlined in chapter 2 (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p.38; Bowman, in Frederickson, 1990, p.30). In addition, bias is limited by the use of relevant questions, attention to the use of non-directive probe questions, an emphasis on appropriate listening techniques, and on adaptiveness, flexibility and perseverance in gathering data (Burns, 1997, p.375; Miles & Huberman, 1994, p.38).

Second, the tactic of following-up surprises in data collection and analysis is used in order to generate rich data and ensure that novel insights may arise (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p.271). Third, negative evidence is exhaustively pursued in an effort to actively disconfirm what appears to be true (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p.271). A similar tactic, checking out rival explanations, is also utilised. Fourth, the use of a case study protocol (Yin, 1994, pp.32-37) is emphasised, incorporating an interview question guide, document summary sheet and reflexive and methodological diaries. Fifth, while a copy of the transcript is sent to participants for verification, the study assumes Mason's view (1996, p.150) that asking participants to verify the study's conclusions is inappropriate, since some of the conclusions will be based on

theoretical language unfamiliar to some of the participants and, moreover, conclusions are be based on the analysis of multiple cases which would be unfamiliar to participants. Nonetheless, a copy of the analysis for the particular case in which each participant was involved was forwarded with their interview transcript for information and comment.

Sixth, the researcher is committed to outlining the biases and related experience which are brought to the study (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Lowe, 1991, p.138), and to outlining the study's limitations (which appear in Chapter 1). The researcher is currently employed as a Lecturer in Management at the University of Western Sydney, Hawkesbury, and previously served as an Associate Lecturer at Insearch Institute of Commerce, a full fee undergraduate arm of the University of Technology, Sydney providing diploma and certificate courses primarily to international students. Neither institution is included in the sample for the five-case substantive component of this study. In sum, the researcher is, like those academics interviewed, employed indirectly in the field as an academic with a primary teaching responsibility for local students but with a secondary involvement in teaching international students both on-campus in Australia and in supervising a number of off-shore international students. Further, based on the researcher's experience and academic background, a strongly business-oriented approach is taken, in contrast to the more critical approaches taken by some, or the political science, sociological, or organisation studies approaches taken by others.

Finally, triangulation is pursued via the collection of multiple sources of evidence. As noted above, data is derived both from the site visits themselves, documentary analysis and direct observation, in addition to the use of interviews as the primary data source. Moreover, a variety of participants from different perspectives are interviewed within each case, from senior institutional managers to academic managers and academics.

Following Patton (1990, p.188), a mixed purposeful sampling strategy has also been used to add additional institutional perspectives to the problem being studied.

Triangulation, or the use of multiple sources of evidence (Yin, 1994, p.91), is used to overcome the problem of 'method-boundedness' whereby the researcher obtains a distorted or biased slice of reality through an over-commitment to a single source of evidence (Cohen & Manion, 1994, pp.233-234). In order to build some processes of verification into data collection, the study thus uses interviews, documents and observations as sources of evidence. This approach is consistent with the view that triangulation of evidence is a key process in improving the quality of qualitative research (Kirk & Miller, 1986, p.30; Miles & Huberman, 1994, p.267; Stake, in Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, p.241). The approach assumed is also consistent, however, with the view that triangulation is a somewhat problematic concept, since 'different methods and data sources throw light onto different social or ontological phenomena or research questions' (Mason, 1996, p.17). Thus, the position assumed is that,

At its best, triangulation encourages the researcher to approach their research questions from different angles and explore their intellectual puzzles in a rounded and multi-faceted way. *(Mason, 1996, p.17)*

4.5.3   Generalisability of Findings

The issue of generalisation divides many qualitative researchers. One side argues that analytic generalisation can occur on the basis of the systematic use of replication logic in sampling (Perry, 1998, p.790; Yin, 1994, p.35). The other side argues that generalising to broader populations is nearly impossible, since qualitative research aims to provide rich, contextual descriptions which place the onus of transferability onto the reader rather

than researcher (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p.316; Stake, in Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, p.242; Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p.191).

Firestone (1983, p.22) argues that either response is realistic, depending on the purpose of the research. Critical or deviant cases can be used to explore or extend theory, particularly in a single-case approach, while multicase designs can use the logic of replication and comparison to strengthen single-site conclusions and provide evidence for their broader utility.

As previously noted, this study is not based on replication logic, although some cases have been selected as representative of the institutions with a deep level of involvement in international entrepreneurial activities. Since so little was known about the five cases prior to fieldwork, however, the use of a replication logic asserting that cases will show particular findings or results based on prior assertions was arguably impossible. Nonetheless, to avoid the 'mindless description' of many case studies (Adams & White, in Perry, 1998, p.796) several steps have been taken to open up the potential for at least a degree of limited generalisation of the findings. Following Miles and Huberman (1994, p.279), attention has been given to:

- *describing the characteristics of the original sample fully to permit comparisons*
- *examining possible threats to generalisability*
- *using a theoretically diverse sample to promote analytic generalisation*
- *defining the scope and boundaries for possible generalisation*
- *providing thick descriptions for each case*
- *relating the findings to prior theory, and bounding the applicability of any linkages to theory*
- *providing generic cross-case conclusions*
- *preserving narrative sequences*

- *suggesting settings for further testing of findings*

4.6   ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

A commitment to quality in research demands a commitment from the researcher to the highest ethical principles and values. Such values should inform the design of the study, selection of methodology, data collection, analysis, and reporting (Sarantakos, 1993, p.23).   In addition, researchers must develop an appropriate ethical framework to inform the 'practice' of research, since many ethical issues and dilemmas which arise cannot be easily anticipated (Cooper & Emory, 1995, p.97; Mason, 1996, p.167).

The researcher is committed to achieving the highest possible ethical standards in research, and affirms this commitment in the following discussion of the ethical issues and positions which inform this thesis.   In sum, the philosophical position assumed may be stated as follows:

> *Ethics is a matter of principled sensitivity to the rights of others. Being ethical limits the choices we can make in the pursuit of truth. Ethics says that while truth is good, respect for human dignity is better, even if, in the extreme case, the respect for human nature leaves one ignorant of human nature.*   *(Cavan, in Cohen & Manion, 1994, p.359)*

Six key ethical commitments inform this study. These commitments are based on the advice of Burns (1997, pp.18-21), Cohen and Manion (1994, pp.359-374), Cooper and Emory (1995, pp.97-100), Lincoln and Guba (1985, pp.254-257), Mason (1996, pp.159-167), Miles and Huberman (1994, pp.290-297), Patton (1990, pp.355-357), Sarantakos (1993, pp.23-24), and Seidman (1991, p.46). These commitments are of relevance to the overall study in general and to the specific methodologies selected in particular.

The most fundamental ethical commitment relates to the need to receive the informed consent of all participants. This involved providing full information to participants about the character and nature of the study, and offering participants the opportunity to determine and alter their level of involvement with the project at any time. This also implied the need for 'dialogue and ongoing negotiation' between researcher and participants (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p.291). In this study, each participant was given an outline of the aims of the study and the primary research questions, and requested to sign an appropriate informed consent form, a copy of which is provided in Appendix 1. Participants were given access for verification purposes to a copy of their interview transcript, as well as a copy of the case analysis relating to their institution during the write-up phase of the study. Questions from participants were also encouraged as an aid to verifying that informed consent had in fact been given. Participants were also informed of the expected outputs of the research and the potential benefits arising from the study. In addition, participants were informed of the methodology being used for the study and given an idea of the expected time required for each interview.

A second ethical commitment related to the need to be honest at all times with participants. Honesty and integrity are essential for the development of rapport in interviews, and rapport is in turn essential for the openness and cordiality which characterises effective interviews (Cohen & Manion, 1884, p.374; Mason, 1996, p.159). Further, it was recognised that the development of trust requires attention for each participant, and that the potential for trust to quickly evaporate requires ongoing recognition by the researcher (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, pp.256-257).

The third commitment was based on the need to fully debrief participants (Cooper & Emory, 1995, p.100). The need to offer follow-up or debriefing processes is significant, since interviewees can easily feel mentally or

emotionally exhausted following in-depth interviews, and thus may have a desire to see the outputs which arise from their inputs, or they may simply be curious about the outcomes of the research. As noted above, one way to meet this need was to send participants their interview transcript and a copy of the case analysis once it had been completed. In addition, participants were also encouraged to contact the researcher at any time if they had further comments, questions, or issues that they would like to explore.

The fourth commitment was to totally avoid the deception of participants. This study did not use deceptive practices in any way, shape or form, since the richness of the information sought depended heavily on the development of mutual trust between researcher and participants.

Fifth, attention was paid throughout the study to issues of privacy and confidentiality. It is important is note that it was not possible to offer complete anonymity to participants, as the researcher was aware of their identity in the setting-up and conducting of interviews. It was thus more appropriate to offer confidentiality. This commitment included the use of pseudonyms for both individuals and institutions, and the disguising of any data which could identify individuals or the institutions in which they worked. Commercial-in-confidence information was also disguised or deleted, as appropriate. Data was also disguised or deleted from the study if it had the potential to cause any individual participants embarrassment or if there were any potential implications for their employment. Finally, interview transcripts and associated data were securely stored in locked filing cabinets and secure computers.

The sixth ethical undertaking was that of the researcher's commitment to professionalism in the practice of research. One aspect of this is the question of the worthiness of the project (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p.290). Research based on shallow values, such as the singular quest for a degree, is more

likely to be pursued in a shallow way. For this reason, research questions in this study have been developed which, in addition to their originality, arguably make for a contribution to the field, as well as to practitioners operating in the field. A related issue is that of competence boundaries, or whether the researcher is truly equipped to undertake the study. The researcher has endeavoured to undertake appropriate preparation, such as through the undertaking of a research methods subject and the completion of conference papers. Nonetheless, the attitude taken was one of a student, learning from the study as it progressed, and expecting to learn far more from the study participants than could be taught to them. This approach arguably makes for a more solid ethical stance, since there will not be any tendency to cut corners or to embed personal biases into data collection and analysis processes. Such an approach was pursued in the pilot study, where participant feedback resulted in additional attention being paid to the disguising of positions, participant details and general data.

In sum, the researcher affirmed and continues to affirm a commitment to the fundamental ethical values associated with the rights of participants and the responsibilities of the researcher. Any costs arising from this stance are viewed as acceptable trade-offs for the preservation of the dignity and rights of all stakeholders associated with the thesis.

It should be noted that this study received the approval, without condition, of the University of Technology, Sydney, Human Research Ethics Committee, at its meeting of 13 April 1999.

4.7   CONCLUSION

Consistent with the flexibility inherent in taking a qualitative research approach to the study, this chapter has taken a methodological approach consistent with both the exploratory nature of the study and the nature of the

research problem and research questions posed at the outset of the thesis. The values underlying the methodology include a commitment to research quality and ethical values, and to undertaking a study which is comprehensively described and justified.

Having provided this methodological base, the thesis now moves on to a description of the results of the five case studies, together with an analysis of the significant cross-case issues arising from the case studies.

CHAPTER 5 – RESULTS - INDIVIDUAL CASE STUDIES

5.1   INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to provide the results for each of the five case studies undertaken. Each case study is identified by a pseudonym. The pseudonyms have been chosen by the researcher for intrinsically interesting reasons rather than for any broader purpose of institutional identification. The first two cases, Reid University and Hickling University, are both represented in the top decile of Australian universities in terms of numbers of international students and dependence on international student fee income. The third case, Samuels University, has historically been ranked near the middle of Australian universities on these measures until recent times, when it has moved to rapidly expand its international activities and market share. The fourth and fifth universities, Parkes and Wentworth, represent regional universities seeking to build their international entrepreneurial activities in divergent ways. The justification for the selection of these cases has been previously outlined in Chapter 4 and centered on the desire to sample a range of potentially information-rich cases within a relatively unexplored field.

The presentation of results follows a similar format for each case study, and is generally reflective of the research questions posed earlier in this study. After a general case description, institutional strategies and major activities are described (Research Question 1), rationales for the selection of strategies and modes of operations discussed (Research Question 2), and institutional structures and organisational systems reviewed (Research Questions 3 and 4). The extent to which the institution's culture is supportive of international entrepreneurialism is considered (Research Question 4), as are the perceived impacts of these activities on core university values (Research Question 4). The impacts of Faculty of Business dominance in this domain are described

(Research Question 4), and issues of organisational learning and leadership reviewed (Research Question 5). This format is consistent with the integrated conceptual model derived from the primary and secondary fields of literature and presented in Figure 2.1. An analytical summary table is presented at the conclusion of each case. A theoretical discussion of each case in relationship to other cases is presented in Chapter 6.

This chapter thus provides an empirical foundation for the analysis of cross case issues and themes to be explored in Chapter 6, and for the conclusions appearing in Chapter 7.

5.2 CASE 1 – REID UNIVERSITY

5.2.1 Case Description

Reid University is a relatively large university located in the suburbs of one of Australia's capital cities. In 1998, around 25,000 students undertook Reid programs, equating to 18,100 EFTSUs (Equivalent Full-Time Student Units). Although the university maintains a number of smaller campuses including a new campus in Malaysia, the focus of its work is a compact and picturesque campus located on the city's outskirts. The campus centrepiece is a new complex containing a gallery, café, lecture theatres and chancellery. Designated the "George Reid International Studies Centre", the complex seeks to showcase the Reid mission of becoming "a world renowned university" in its fields of endeavour. The building was completed in 1998 at a cost of thirty million dollars, financed primarily by revenues received from the university's international entrepreneurial activities.

Formerly an Institute of Technology, Reid achieved university status in 1987 following the Federal Government's reforms of the higher education sector. The institution's programs centre on four applied Faculties, namely the Faculties of Business, Arts, Health, and Science and Engineering. In 1998,

the Faculty of Business (FoB) accounted for 36.1% of student enrolments, while Arts (22.2%), Health (19.7%), Science and Engineering (17.1%), and miscellaneous other programs (4.9%) assumed relatively smaller numbers of students. The student cohort remains overwhelmingly undergraduate, with less than 20 percent of students undertaking postgraduate programs. In 1998, over half (55%) of Reid's students were studying full-time, around one-third part-time (37%) and the remainder (8%) studying off-campus as external students.

A tour of the Reid campus revealed a university with a significantly multicultural student population, a friendly atmosphere and a carefully honed image.

Reid University's international student population numbers more than 6,000 students, representing around 30 percent of total enrolments. This makes the university one of the most popular international student destinations in the region. Since 1991, growth has been substantial, with an average annual growth rate in the international fee-paying program of more than 22 percent. Around 45 percent of international enrolments are located in offshore programs, primarily in Hong Kong, Singapore and Malaysia. Singaporean students represent the largest international student group for both onshore and offshore programs, accounting for over one-third of international enrolments. Other significant groupings include Malaysians (23%), students from Hong Kong (23%), and Indonesians (11%).

A friendly and helpful atmosphere greeted the researcher during observational tours of the campus. Despite being one of the busiest academic weeks of the year, staff on several occasions volunteered directions, asked if they could assist, offered advice, or simply proffered a greeting. Many of the staff appeared to be of non-Anglo background, particularly in administrative and customer service areas, reflecting the multicultural nature of the student population.

A carefully developed corporate image is maintained on campus. Not only are the lawns manicured, the gardens well kept, and a host of helpful directional maps maintained, but all administrative and some academic staff wear Reid corporate uniforms and corporate clothing. Offices such as the International Office are located in central campus positions and are well-appointed, spacious and user friendly for both international students and local students exploring the potential for student exchange. To cite one example of a general commitment to quality in international education, the International Office displays its "Quality Charter" on a wall near its information desk. The office encourages student feedback, and appears to fulfil its commitment to quality in a variety of ways, from the appointment of dedicated staff for international student accommodation and student exchange needs to the provision of a plethora of well designed information brochures covering an array of student services.

5.2.2   Strategies

Reid University's strategies for international entrepreneurial activities reflect its historical involvement in international activities. The institution was one of the first in Australia to immerse itself in the international education market, a result of the proactive involvement of several people including an "internationalist" Dean of the Faculty of Business. The Dean had an extensive background in international business and international business education, and had initiated a range of international activities at the Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology (RMIT) prior to joining Reid during the mid-1980s. Many current strategies thus reflect the "first mover" advantages achieved by Reid as a sectoral pioneer in establishing its onshore and offshore international programs, in some cases a decade before its competitors. One partnership developed from 1985 for the delivery of business degrees in Singapore, for instance, was the first of its kind in the region.

The nature of these long-standing relationships has meant that Reid has continued to build on these relationships through the addition of further programs with existing partners in new or current locations. In essence, it has leveraged its first mover advantages into new activities. For instance, one partner in Singapore offers fourteen Reid postgraduate programs in health, design, occupational health and safety, finance, administration and international business, developing the suite of programs as the partnership has evolved.

The second dimension of Reid's strategic focus has been an emphasis on partnerships. As noted in the university's International Student Prospectus,

> *Reid's long-term internationalisation strategy focuses on the development of strategic alliances with industry, government and the community that extends well past Australia's borders and into the neighbouring Asia-Pacific and Indian Ocean regions.*

Offshore, programs are primarily delivered in partnership with professional associations such as the Singapore Human Resource Institute and the Marketing Institute of Singapore, or with major universities such as the Open University of Hong Kong or the Universitas Bina Nusantra in Indonesia. Where this is not possible due to regulatory or other constraints, recognised private providers are partnered. For recruitment for onshore programs, Reid relies on the network of IDP recruitment offices around the world maintained by Australian universities. Private agents are also used in some locations, particularly if there is no IDP office in such locations. The dominant model for offshore delivery is one in which local academic staff deliver eight modules for each subject while four are delivered by visiting Reid staff. Programs are developed in Australia and exams and most other assessment moderated from Reid's Australian campus.

In light of the university's goal of becoming "a world renowned university", four aspects of Reid's contemporary strategic focus are worthy of comment. First, the international goal appears widely shared, since five of the nine interviewees described this objective explicitly when questioned about the institution's mission. The international objective was seen to drive Reid's strategic choice, and to provide a rationale for international activities:

> *Given that Reid has nailed its colours to the mast and said that we're an international university, this is one of our defining characteristics. Its too late for us to say we want to be an elegant, highly focussed, exclusive niche player.* *(Senior Institutional Manager)*

> *Reid's vision is to be an international class university. That's the vision. To do that it has to reach out...We believe that the ethos of Reid is something we should export. And it is worth exporting.*
> *(Academic Manager)*

This goal was also seen to underlie Reid's current strategies of seeking to achieve a significant increase in institutional size, expanding offshore programs and, most significantly, creating a Reid campus in Malaysia. In other words, the international objective requires scale, scale requires the expansion of delivery modes and locations, and expansion demands the evolution of a 'highly distributed operation' throughout the region. While the introduction of an offshore campus represents a move away from the traditional nature of the institution's partnerships, according to Senior Institutional Managers the decision to establish the campus represents the type of strategic flexibility required if international objectives are to be achieved.

Third, and complementing this evolution in strategy, deliberate actions are being undertaken to diversify the institution's programs in terms of disciplinary concentrations, offshore delivery locations, onshore recruitment

sources, and the undergraduate-postgraduate balance. The institution is actively seeking out new markets, particularly in locations such as China, India and the Philippines, and is continuously scrutinising existing programs in terms of their future viability. Growth prospects are seen to be potentially highest for offshore programs since there are physical limits to onshore international student growth capacity. In addition, offshore programs currently earn attractive levels of income for the institution and consume less resources for delivery in comparison to onshore programs.

Fourth, the international objective is given detail in the vision of the Deputy Vice-Chancellor (International) (DVC), in terms of how he sees the international education market evolving in coming years. The DVC foresees the rise of regional brands, akin to the international regional stage of the internationalisation process model. While diversification of delivery modes and location continues to be important, this scenario requires a deliberate limiting of the international goal to the Asia-Pacific region, at least in the medium term. In supporting this vision, the DVC notes that Reid is regularly placed in the top universities in the region while simultaneously being ranked around the middle of the nation's universities in Australian rankings. With the 'inexorable tide of globalisation' continuing to diminish the significance of national rankings, Reid's focus will thus continue to emphasise the region and Reid's place in the region rather than its place in parochial ranking systems, as noted in Reid's 1998 Annual Report,

In 1998, Reid was ranked in the prestigious Asiaweek survey as the 'best science and technology university in Australia' and the third strongest university in the Asian region for academic reputation. Such acknowledgment identified Reid as one of the best known and most highly respected universities in Asia, a reputation achieved through its pioneering role in international education. With the 'pioneer advantage' receding, the University must meet the challenges of fierce head-to-head competition with some of the most esteemed and resource-rich universities

in the world.

In sum, Reid's strategies are regionally focussed and remain primarily partnership-driven. Within the broad strategies of diversification and increase in scale, Reid's strategies continue to reflect its institutional strengths in administering partnerships and leveraging its locational, delivery and reputational advantages.

5.2.3   Rationales for Strategies and Modes

Reid's early movement into international entrepreneurialism was characterised by opportunism and aggressiveness. As stated by one academic manager, somewhat tongue in cheek,

> *If it had blood pumping through its veins and had a wallet to afford things*
> *we would discuss it (laughs).*   *(Academic Manager)*

As noted by another academic manager, this approach sometimes meant that Reid University had two or three partners in some countries. Even then, however, it is asserted that none of Reid's partners lost money on their dealings with the university.

The first mover advantage gained by the university enabled the institution to develop excellent relationships with a number of partners. Where this did not occur, the university had the time to implement changes to partnership arrangements and, where necessary, terminate such arrangements. This occurred in one instance with a twinning partner in Malaysia who performed poorly and was replaced by an alternative institution. Moreover, the early establishment of a presence in key markets and the credibility of Reid's reputation enabled the university to make mistakes which were not perceived as negatively as they may have been for institutions establishing international programs in later years. The further development of partnerships depends on

the strategy of establishing new partnerships and managing existing partnerships while emphasising the management of the university's image and reputation in a manner mutually beneficial to both sides. For one academic manager, the appropriate metaphor was provided by the Asian notion of recognising your standing by the quality of your concubines or bed partners. In this case, Reid was happy with the vast majority of its bed partners.

The choice of countries to target for both onshore and offshore activities is perceived to have been driven by their proximity to Australia and thus potential ease of travel, and by their depth of English language expertise. In terms of the latter, it is interesting that two academics expressed some concern that diversifying into countries with lesser English expertise would potentially bring new strains and pedagogical problems to the university.

The rationale for focussing on partnerships as the major strategic vehicle is clearly annunciated by Reid's DVC. In the first place, partnerships assist in the management of risk, since the acceptance and credibility of an institution in local markets may be enhanced by the fact that the overseas university is operating with a local stakeholder. Secondly, much complementary learning can be acquired from working with a well-established partner. Thirdly, solid local partners can give the overseas partner access to an established distribution system in terms of access to the market and delivery of programs. Finally, the establishment of 'academic colonies' in overseas location is perceived to be both risky and something of an insult to the local education community,

> *There is something slightly obnoxious and potentially dangerous in having academic colonies around the world. It is safer, wiser and more acceptable to be working with partners in a way that seems to demonstrate that there is a mutuality of benefits and complementarity in roles.*
>
> *(DVC - Senior Institutional Manager)*

The preference of universities and professional associations as partners of choice over private providers has arisen as a result of experience and the growth of knowledge of international markets. The reputation and credibility of Reid degrees is perceived to make alliances with other universities easier to establish, while professional associations have been preferred for their ability to provide expertise in particular disciplinary areas and for their contacts with major stakeholders in government and the professions.

The establishment of a campus in Malaysia was motivated by a number of rationales, including the ability of such a campus to attract students from third countries such as China and The Philippines who may otherwise find it difficult to obtain study visas or sufficient finance to study in Australia. Another motivation for the campus was that the university saw Malaysia as strategically important in terms of future opportunities, and thus a significant presence in the country could potentially assist in exploiting such opportunities.

Financial considerations are viewed as key to understanding the general rationale for Reid's pursuit of international entrepreneurialism. As government funding has contracted, international actitivies have provided a vital source of operational and discretional funds for the institution. In addition to the provision of new teaching areas and rewards for staff, international revenues have funded projects such as the George Reid International Studies Centre, as noted above. Not only are such benefits a direct result of this activity, the Reid Centre is perceived to be an investment in the university's long-term international vision. In particular, the Centre comprises an International Studies Centre which is launching postgraduate and executive programs in cross-disciplinary international studies. In this way, the financial motive becomes intertwined with the internationalisation motive. One is seen to fund the other, and thus internationalisation as a core objective and value of the university is viewed as impossible to pursue

without the resources provided by an extensive engagement in international entrepreneurial activities.

In sum, while several participants mentioned both financial and more altruistic considerations as dual rationales for international entrepreneurialism, other participants identified a more explicit link between the two. One senior institutional manager stated that the Dean of Business, in an early 1980s document, had identified internationalisation as being driven by resources and that the resources thus gained could assist to make the institution less parochial,

> *But that was very subsidiary, although we've tended to prop that up because of the internationalisation issue, but I think in many cases our internationalisation has actually been a desire to become more internationally relevant and competitive so we can sell better, which has been a really good thing for the university. So internationalisation has followed as a commercial necessity…It's been very pragmatic, very outcomes focussed. There's nothing wrong with that.*
>
> *(Senior Institutional Manager)*

The rationales for Reid's strategies and modes of operation have very much been based on the evolution of Reid's international strategies. Learning from experience, an openness to experimentation, and an eye to the ultimate international objective have characterised Reid's strategic decisions in the international domain.

5.2.4 Structures

Reid University manages its international activities through a highly decentralised structure which is progressively becoming less decentralised as new structures are developed. Nonetheless, the institution remains at the decentralisation end of the centralisation/ decentralisation continuum.

The institution's Faculties are a significant element of the university's structure. While initiatives can arise from anywhere in the institution, the majority of current strategies have arisen from the activities of the Faculties. In particular, the Schools within the Faculties have historically had substantial devolved powers to initiate programs and manage resources. A unique aspect of Reid's structure is that there is a Faculty International Office (FIO) located within the Faculty of Business (FoB), and the FIO is in many ways more important to Reid's portfolio of international activities than the institutional International Office (IO).

The FIO has particular responsibility for administering the FoB's offshore programs. It has a staff of approximately thirty, of whom around two-thirds are organised into workteams of four or five people who are responsible for specific international partnerships. Other staff have responsibility for matters such as staff travel to partner locations, finance, and information technology. Experts on Asia are also employed to lend advice as needed. The partnership teams develop detailed knowledge about the nature of their partnerships and the needs of Reid's offshore partners, thus providing a focussed and customised service for both Reid and its partner institutions.

The FIO liaises closely with the Schools comprising the Faculty of Business. While Heads of School and other staff within the Faculty may initiate new activities, the FIO assists to shepherd the proposals through the filtering and assessment processes of the university. Following the development of a proposal, subsequent feasibility study and approval of the FoB executive, the FIO works to move new proposals through the rest of the institution in a target time of four to six weeks. Participants without exception lauded the work of the FIO, with academics in particular praising the office for its support of their international work. The FIO also works closely with the institutional International Office (IO), particularly in the development of international policies.

The university-wide IO has two primary roles. First, it has general responsibility for university international marketing, primarily in terms of the recruitment of international students for onshore programs. Second, the IO Director, an Associate Professor with the rank of Dean, works to develop institutional policies for international programs. These policies serve to bound the decentralised university structure through an evolving system of requirements and regulations. Major policies developed in recent years have included a Human Resources Policy for staff involved in international activities, Quality Assurance Policies, and policies for developing linkages with foreign universities. In addition, the office administers an international student exchange scholarships program. Quoting the work of Jane Knight (see Chapter 2), the IO Director refers to the need for 'key processes' to be embedded in institutional policies, a requirement driven by the substantial and diverse involvement of the university in international activities. The Human Resources Policy has already been cited in an Australian Government study as an example of best practice in international education (Back, Davis & Olsen, 1996). As a former Head of the FIO, the IO Director understands the need to work separately but alongside the FIO, and seeks to involve the FIO in much of the IO's work.

A relatively new structure directly impacting on the management of international entrepreneurial activities was established during 1997. Designated as "Reid Global", the structure is headed by a Deputy Vice-Chancellor, International (DVC) and is responsible for the George Reid Centre, the institutional International Office, general university marketing, and offshore programs. Reid Global thus assumes the major responsibility for international activities across the institution. While program emergence and development remains primarily a responsibility of the Faculties, the DVC has established Country Reference Groups to consider and vet new activities before they are approved. While Reid Global remains relatively small in size, it has recently moved to take a slightly higher percentage of

international revenues in order to fund its activities, an issue which attracted a great deal of at times hostile debate across the institution.

Responses to this restructuring and realignment are mixed. The DVC, formerly Dean of the Faculty of Business, is aware of the need to avoid stifling the Faculty-based entrepreneurialism which is a key reason for Reid's success, and is moving slowly and carefully to develop the role of Reid Global. Nonetheless, the introduction of Reid Global is seen as an essential part of consolidating the image and reputation of Reid across the region, limiting the potential duplication of international efforts across the relatively autonomous Faculties, and bringing some coherence to the international activity portfolio in light of the international mission. Senior institutional and academic managers interviewed with FIO and IO oversight see the changes as painful but unavoidable. As stated by one,

> *I think its better for the Schools to have autonomy, but within the framework of a university system that ensures we have identified the elements of quality that we want in our teaching facilities, the way we do our delivery, and ensuring that our financial modelling, enrolment and graduation processes are consistent and sound.*
>
> *(Academic Manager)*

Similarly, the Director of the institutional International Office viewed the changes as necessarily reigning in some less appropriate, previously devolved responsibilities while continuing the institutional focus on delivering the programs through the Faculties.

Two other academic managers with Head of School responsibilities expressed greater caution about the changes. One argued that the role of Reid Global should be limited to a general oversight or 'clearing house' role given that the Faculty of Business has a long record of success without major problems. The other Head saw Reid Global as a progressively working to

'shanghai' the Faculty of Business and take its programs. While some oversight was necessary, the oversight processes of Reid Global were perceived as being unjustified red tape representing a move from academic freedom to managerialism which was working to destroy the initiative of the Faculty and its Schools,

> *The way the university is moving now, we're all going to have to go across and be vetted, checked, cross-ticked, thrown out the window, stamped on, thrown back…all for the sake of administrative correctness…I think there are better ways of spreading the good news than putting a straightjacket over things.* (Academic Manager)

In sum, while the structures in place to manage international entrepreneurial activities remain substantially decentralised, there is a move toward greater centralisation and formalisation. This restructure has brought new tensions to the university and a degree of concern from both proponents and opponents in terms of the potential for the new structure to stifle the institution's entrepreneurial culture. Despite the trenchant criticism expressed by one academic manager, the overwhelming view is that the new structure will become embedded over the next twelve months and that it will not stifle entrepreneurialism to any great degree. Still, a watching brief has been assumed by most participants.

5.2.5   Systems

The major types of systems to be considered are reward, communication, administrative/information technology (IT), and quality systems. In terms of the former, rewards were unanimously viewed as attractive, both in terms of rewards for individuals and those going to Faculties and their Schools. For individuals, the university developed an elaborate and comprehensive manual for offshore work with the aim of making such work attractive for staff. Academics receive additional payments for offshore teaching and marking,

expenses incurred when travelling, and four or five star accommodation while overseas. In addition, staff are able to use the money to sub-contract work such as marking to other qualified colleagues. For senior managers in Schools such as accounting, the additional revenue has enabled payment of salary supplementation to staff, thus attracting talented professional staff to academe, and has also enabled the sharing of profits with both academic and administrative staff within the School.

Communication systems were also viewed as operating effectively, an important requirement given the university's evolution toward a more dispersed model of delivery with an offshore campus and a plethora of partnerships throughout the region.

Administrative and IT systems were perceived to lag behind the development of international activities, however there is a general acceptance that this is the nature of university entrepreneurialism, in that the demands of new programs are rarely foreseeable prior to program introduction and development. The decentralised nature of Reid's structure has meant that some Schools have developed their own administrative and IT sub-systems in order to meet particular demands, while the Faculty's International Office has worked to build additional capacity to cater for the needs of new programs as they are introduced.

These systems are based upon by an institution-wide commitment to quality. A Director of Quality is located within the Faculty of Business, and has conducted numerous quality audits of international programs administered by the Faculty. In addition, a rolling program of student surveys is conducted to generate customer feedback of program dimensions and support services. The results of these surveys comprise a key input into the university's continuous improvement process. A further catalyst for the review and improvement of internal processes has been the FIO's successful achievement of ISO9002 international quality accreditation for the Faculty's

international activities. A desire to maintain quality certification continues to drive the Faculty's ongoing commitment to continuous quality improvement. One concern expressed by three academics interviewed was that quality could suffer if the Faculty continued to develop new programs at current rates. A typical question asked by one academic was 'how much moderation can we do?'. It was also noted that although academics receive feedback from international student surveys conducted onshore, this is not necessarily the case for those surveys undertaken offshore unless explicit problems arise. The desire of academics to continuously improve their pedagogies in offshore locations is thus impaired by this shortcoming.

5.2.6 Culture

All participants viewed the university's culture, whether at institutional, Faculty or School level, as being supportive and encouraging of international entrepreneurialism. The university's longstanding involvement in international entrepreneurial activities was perceived to have engendered a culture which had become part of the university's fabric,

> *By and large, a culture has developed so that it strongly supports not only international student recruitment onshore and offshore but internationalisation of the university and its programs. I think that's now a distinctive feature of the university. I think that we've gone so far down the track that there is no retreat. It's a defining feature of the university.*
> *(Senior Institutional Manager)*

This is not to say that the culture is free of tensions and debates. In fact, several participants identified an active culture of discussion and debate around issues such as the balance between onshore and offshore programs and the emphasis given to various modes of delivery.

The culture is seen to be one which encourages initiative and rewards

involvement. While one academic lamented that he was beginning to tire of the demands of offshore teaching and felt that insufficient thanks was forthcoming from the university for this work, others saw the incentives as surmounting such potential problems. The two Heads of School interviewed both saw a great deal more potential for institutional engagement in international entrepreneurialism. If anything, the culture was seen to be sometimes too encouraging of the pursuit of international engagement,

Its not your typical bureaucracy, you know, and probably is almost too far the other way. I don't think people in a private corporation would get away with some of the undisciplined behaviour which occurs here!

(Senior Institutional Manager)

5.2.7 Impacts

The impacts of international entrepreneurialism on universities are discussed at two levels, namely perceived impacts on the core values of the university and the potential tensions arising from the dominance of Faculties of Business and Commerce in international activities.

Impacts on Core Values

A degree of participant ambivalence characterised responses to this question. Several respondents stated that the core values of Reid University centred on the goal of becoming an internationally recognised university, and that this had been substantially achieved. One academic manager argued that the core values had thus been strengthened by the university's international activities, since they had enriched campus life, reduced the constraints of isolation suffered by a university in Australia, and created a network of Reid graduates around the world. Teaching skills were enhanced and course content improved, according to one academic. The consensus, however, was that while core values had not been harmed, at a personal level the ability to

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deliver results in both teaching and research had been hampered by extensive involvements in international activities. Three of the four academics interviewed described the unavoidable compromises arising from offshore teaching commitments. One detrimental consequence, for example, is regular absences from classes in Australia. One academic expressed frustration at the need to appoint substitute lecturers who may or may not deliver the subject in the manner expected or desired. Another identified the frustrations of students as lecturers moved in and out of subjects, and this academic tried to offer 'bribes' to students to ensure that their restlessness did not turn into something worse,

We all notice how this impacts on our classes and how they feel back here. So even though you've got someone taking your classes for you, and last time I went I said to my class "I'm going to give you a week off, an extra weeks holiday", and I pushed the whole semester back because I didn't want to say one more time "by the way I'm going away again, somebody else is coming in". Even though the other person is really qualified, they're not used to that person. And I actually got to the point where I thought I should buy them some Mars Bars or something which I brought back for them all, and they were all okay then. It was almost like a bribe!

(Academic)

A second significant impact occurs in relation to research. Academics spoke of the difficulty of completing research degrees and publications while undertaking a normal onshore teaching load and additional offshore responsibilities,

It gives rise to tensions when the university wants something on one hand and something else on the other. It's pumping out the message "research, research, research" and you say well hang on, you're sending me overseas on all these trips and you want me to do this, this and this, and you want me to put skills into my unit. *(Academic)*

While one academic argued that regular sabbaticals might help to solve the problem, another noted that the university's intention to move to a trimester academic program in the near future may alleviate the problem since academics could more easily select their degree of involvement in the offshore program.

One academic manager stated that the research issue permeated the university, since research-oriented Faculties and institutional managers ensured that research remained a key criteria for promotion and castigated the Faculty of Business for its relatively lower level of research output. This issue is considered further in the following section.

Impacts of Faculty of Business of Business Dominance

The dominance of the Faculty of Business in international activities was noted by all participants with the exception of those academics who felt insulated from such tensions. In particular, differences between the FoB and the Faculty of Science and Engineering were identified. While other Faculties had moved toward a growing involvement with international entrepreneurialism, Science and Engineering was perceived to be deliberately avoiding such engagement. Several participants remarked on the existence of a 'haves and have nots' dichotomy within the institution, however there was an acceptance that such dichotomies are common across the sector as a result of the popularity of business and IT programs among international students. According to the DVC, the 'have nots' want international revenues to be placed in a central pool, tend to resent the travel and accommodation provided to the 'haves', and see themselves as 'running the university' while the 'haves' travel the globe. On the other hand, the 'haves' see themselves as working hard to make valuable revenue for the university, compromising in the process their time for activities such as research. Academic managers in the Faculty of Business resented the manner in which the 'have nots' put their

case, particularly given the FoB's willingness to support other Faculties and service units such as the library. This resentment gave rise to comments to 'have not' colleagues such as,

> *You increase your offshore students and we'll increase our ARC (research*
> *grants).* *(Academic Manager)*

Although internal systems had progressively tightened to ensure some distribution of funds to other Faculties, it was also recognised that inequalities continue to exist which remain unmanaged, a consequence of the need to maintain both an entrepreneurial culture and relatively decentralised structure. In addition, International Office staff at both Faculty and institutional levels described their philosophy of working collegially and supportively with other Faculties, and instanced several successes achieved when working with other Faculties and Schools.

4.2.8 Organisational Learning and Leadership

Organisational learning occurs at several levels. At the academic level, many participants identified the benefits for teaching arising from the deep level of engagement with Asian countries and people. Academic staff have collectively made more than 550 visits to offshore locations during the year, providing a 'corporate development program which costs the university nothing'. A significant amount of informal networking occurs between staff, and the university runs regular cross-culture training sessions for staff. Formal courses in a variety of languages and cultures are also run at no cost to internal participants, and these are undertaken by significant numbers of academic and administrative staff. At School level, Heads of School meet regularly to discuss international issues, ensuring that new initiatives do not proceed without the collective approval of the Faculty executive. A Faculty International Committee comprising International Coordinators from each School is also perceived to encourage cross-School learning.

The Faculty International Office is another important centre for learning. The FIO retains a strong corporate body of knowledge which is engendered by a focus on long-term partnerships administered by work teams which experience little turnover in staff and which provide a mechanism for promotion from within. The quality certification process is also perceived to have encouraged learning within the Faculty and a culture of continuous improvement,

> *At every phase of the process of supporting an offshore program we are*
> *continually looking for how to do it better and how we might do it smarter.*
> *(Academic Manager)*

At institutional level, the creation of Country Reference Groups comprising key stakeholders involved in the management of particular programs and those with an interest in specific countries is viewed as one mechanism with the capacity to promote cross-Faculty learning. The importance of organisational learning from international activities is emphasised by one senior institutional manager,

> *Learning is probably the key to being successful in the international*
> *marketplace.   (Senior Institutional Manager)*

In addition, learning was seen to occur as a result of the long experience of Reid in international programs. In particular, significant learning was seen to derive from mistakes made over the years. Further, several participants identified institutional learning arising from the transfer and promotion of key senior staff in the institution. The International Office Director had previously served as Director of the Faculty International Office, while the DVC International had been a previous Dean of the Faculty of Business.

Not all participants were satisfied with institutional learning, however. One

senior institutional manager argued that the university's loose, decentralised structure constrained learning, since Heads of School and other Faculty staff could continue to make poor decisions about new activities in the absence of appropriate controls. Mistakes continue to be made as a result of insufficient central discipline.

In terms of leadership, the foresight of senior institutional managers such as the DVC in developing the international program was seen as critical for the subsequent international success of the institution. The development and ongoing maintenance of a decentralised structure where Heads of School, in particular, had and continue to have significant power to pursue entrepreneurial initiatives was viewed as critical to institutional success. Lead from the top, entrepreneurial leadership exercised at many points and in many locations have assisted Reid to become one of Australia's most internationally entrepreneurial institutions.

5.2.9 Case Summary

A summary of the case findings is presented in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1 Analytical Summary of Case Findings for Reid University

	Senior Institutional Managers (2)	Academic Managers (3)	Academics (4)
Mission-Strategies	• become a world-class university • achieve synergies between activities • diversification	• become a world-class university • pursuing growth offshore • partnership focus • diversification	• become a world-class university • partnership focus
Rationales	• response to increasingly international world • partnerships manage risk, enhance learning, avoid academic colonies and provide access to distribution systems • building on existing offshore programs	• markets have generally been English-speaking, close to Australia • opportunistic in the past • need for $	• building on success and name/learning from experience • response to high demand in some countries • professional partners share a similar ethos • need for $
Structures	• Reid Global established to provide an institution-wide management system - necessary given need to maintain corporate image and avoid previous mistakes • International Offices at both institutional and Faculty of Business levels	• differing views about Reid Global and its potential impacts – academic mgrs protective of decentralised structure • Faculty International Office viewed as highly effective	• Faculty Int. Office provides excellent support • wary of Reid Global – 'we like the devolution of power to ourselves'.
Systems	• Rewards – sought to make offshore more attractive • Admin, IT and Quality – detailed procedures and policies in place, ISO accreditation achieved. IT systems always lag.	• Rewards – excellent for depts and individuals. Need for clarification of promotion issues. • Admin systems streamlined • IT systems lag in development • Quality approach comprehensive	• Rewards – excellent • Admin – generally supportive • Communications – good.
Culture	• Entrepreneurial culture a 'defining feature' of the university • Culture encourages active debate of issues	• good 'risk culture' • acceptance of continued expansion for survival – 'we've dived in deep but there's still plenty of water underneath' • culture encourages initiative and flexibility	• strongly entrepreneurial culture reinforced by Faculty and deparmental support • culture beginning to be stretched by demands

	Senior Institutional Managers (2)	**Academic Managers (3)**	**Academics (4)**
Impacts – On Core Values	• international engagement is a core value and is occurring across the institution	• international activities add to core values via enrichment of campus life and through research networks • important not to set values 'in concrete' as these may change	• while core values are evolving, international entrepreneurialism is a core value • less time for research does threaten this core value, however.
Impacts – of Faculty Dominance	• the system is changing but inequalities remain • pace of systemic change constrained by need to preserve entrepreneurial culture	• resentment exists but it shouldn't given level of subsidies to other units • Faculty of Business International Office assists other units and promotes a more collegial approach	• majority of academics not aware of tensions arising – one did identify resentment arising in other units.
Org. Learning and Leadership	• Learning – 'the key to success in the international marketplace' – assisted by structures such as Country Reference Groups and international committee in FoB • Leadership – provided substantial first mover advantages for the university	• Learning – promoted by Reid via support for staff training (eg. languages), international research collaboration, student surveys, quality audits of programs. Heads share experience in Faculty executive. • outcomes include culturally sympathetic staff	• Learning occurs informally via experience, personal networks and also by formal staff training • International leaders within the institution viewed as competent and supportive

5.3   CASE 2 – HICKLING UNIVERSITY

5.3.1 Case Description

Hickling University is a comprehensive metropolitan university located in one of Australia's eastern states. Established in 1958, Hickling expanded during the late 1980s higher education unification period with the addition of several former College of Advanced Education (CAE) and Institute of Technology campuses. The university now consists of six campuses across the state and an offshore campus in Thailand.

International students are prevalent on Hickling campuses. Services for international students include Halal and other international foods, multi-religion worship centres, Asian food markets, and a plethora of international student groups.

Hickling is one of the largest universities in Australia, and is consistently in the top two most populous international student destinations. Its 42,000 students, equating to 31,500 EFTSU (Equivalent Full-Time Student Units), study in ten Faculties, including the Faculty of Art and Design (3 percent of total enrolments), Arts (21%), Business (29%), Education (6%), Engineering (7%), Information Technology (12%), Law (3%), Medicine (9%), Pharmacy (1%) and Science (9%).

There were 7,099 (6,150 EFTSU) international students studying at Hickling in 1998, of whom 90 percent were undergraduates, 7 percent were undertaking coursework postgraduate programs, and 3 percent completing higher degrees by research. Around three quarters (76%) of international students were studying on-campus in Australia, a further 21 percent undertaking distance education programs, and a small number (2%) studying at Hickling's new campus in Thailand. International students represented some 20 percent of the Hickling student population, and brought the

university over A$55 million in revenues during 1998.

International students are predominantly studying in the Faculties of Business and Information Technology. Half of the university's international cohort is located in the former and 21 percent in the latter. The Faculties of Medicine and Arts also have significant numbers of international students, with 9 percent in Medicine and 8 percent completing Arts programs.

International student numbers have grown at an average of 36 percent per annum since 1991, although growth has tempered in recent years with annual growth averaging 11 percent during the period from 1996 to 1998. The most significant source countries for the current international student cohort are Singapore (28% of international students), Hong Kong (25%), Malaysia (20%) and Indonesia (11%). Hickling has long had a solid base of international students, having been a major destination for international students since an early and substantial involvement in the Colombo Plan.

Hickling University is recognised as a worldwide leader in international education and entrepreneurialism both for its existing programs and for its pursuit of one of the most ambitious and explicit approaches to international entrepreneurialism in the world.

5.3.2 Strategies

Hickling University's international strategies have been characterised by variety and bounded opportunism. Much current activity, however, represents the evolution of international strategies typical of many other universities across the sector. A strong onshore international student presence, several successful offshore alliances for course delivery and a significant distance education program characterise Hickling's international portfolio. Onshore, international students are concentrated on two campuses in particular, with one, a former Institute of Technology, being especially

popular for international students undertaking business courses. Offshore, Hickling's pre-tertiary, undergraduate and postgraduate courses are taught in Hong Kong, Jakarta, Kuala Lumpur and Singapore using a mix of university, professional association and private provider partners. These programs are generally delivered in 'supported Distance Education (DE)' mode using Hickling course content and partial delivery by Hickling lecturers. The university also successfully operates pre-tertiary programs both locally and offshore which have been licensed to several other Australian universities for delivery in Australia.

What is increasingly different about Hickling's international strategy is its implementation of the 'Hickling 2020' stategy and associated short and medium-term strategic plans. It is based on the Hickling Vision, part of which is the following,

> *The emerging vision for Hickling 2020 is of a self-reliant, broad-based, global university and learning organisation, conducting innovative teaching and research of international quality and relevance, and actively engaged with the diverse regions, communities, industries and professions which it serves.*

> *Hickling will have its headquarters in Australia and will continue to derive its guiding values and defining themes from its Australian heritage. It will operate strategic alliances with other leading international institutions and will have a matrix of campuses which will be nodes in an educational network that spans the globe. Hickling University will be the centre of a broader learning organisation – the greater Hickling – and each campus of the University will be the hub of a life-long learning community in its region.*

The defining themes of the Hickling 2020 vision are 'innovation, engagement and internationalisation'. The vision is intentionally left reasonably broad,

since there is recognition that the future is characterised by a significant amount of uncertainty. A robust vision in which room is left for internal debate and analysis is thus seen as essential if a high level of commitment to the vision is to be sustained. Nonetheless, the vision contains general targets for student numbers for the years 2000 and 2020, including an aim of building the institution's student cohort to around 80,000 of whom around half would be international students. The global vision also includes aims such as establishing innovative access pathways to Hickling courses throughout the world, linking all campuses and locations with a common information system, and establishing a common set of global standards for teaching and learning. Institutional revenues are predicted to rise from A$600 million to over A$1.4 billion during this period.

Senior managers associated with the Faculty of Business concur with and express support for this vision and its associated strategies. One stated that the Faculty's own mission derived directly from the broader Hickling 2020 vision and would increasingly underlie Faculty activities in this sphere. The Faculty's mission is to be,

An entrepreneurial, broadly-based, global Faculty which conducts innovative teaching, learning and research of international quality with its global partners.

Over the short to medium term, the Hickling 1999-2003 Plan estimates that international student will numbers will rise from existing levels to over 16,500 during this period, with virtually all of this growth occurring offshore. The campus in Thailand is expected to grow from 1,000 to 5,500 students, international students at other Hickling offshore campuses expected to number 2,800, and distance education student numbers aimed to increase from 1,500 to 3,700.

The evolving international strategy comprises four major elements. Of most

significance is the proposed development of several offshore multi-disciplinary campuses. During 1998, Hickling became the first university in the world to establish a full campus in Thailand, and this occurred in conjunction with a joint venture private provider who provided a six-storey building for program delivery. One Hickling senior institutional manager has publicly described the venture as,

> *a Rolls Royce operation with first class facilities and excellent staff-student ratios.* *(Senior Institutional Manager)*

Another overseas campus is planned for northern Africa, commencing operations in 2000, and senior institutional managers see the possibility for the development of another one or two overseas campuses in the medium term. One academic manager describes the campus strategy as akin to that of a multinational corporation, manufacturing and delivering the university's services offshore while still also pursuing its traditional export strategy of delivering supported DE offshore in selected offshore locations.

A second and quite unique level to the global strategy is the establishment of Hickling 'Centres' in strategic offshore locations. The purpose of such centres is to provide a base for international research activities and consultancies, to organise and host international niche conferences, and to give the university a visible presence in locations such as London, Italy, and the United States. The London Centre has begun operations in a CBD location in partnership with a prestigious London-based university, and other centres are progressively being established in conjunction with other highly ranked institutions at selected locations.

The third level of the strategy involves the continuation and extension of strategic alliances with university and non-university partners in key regional locations. While current programs are delivered as badged Hickling degrees, a transition to joint-badging with key Asian universities is seen as a likely

future strategy as universities in the region continue to evolve towards and in some cases surpass the quality of Australian institutions.

The final level of the international strategy is the continued development of Hickling's strong distance education capabilities to ensure access to programs in locations where other delivery modes are not present, and to take advantage of the growing demand by some segments of the international student market for program mobility.

In sum, the vision of a 'distributed Hickling' active in range of international markets and delivering programs in both traditional and innovative ways is fundamental to the broader institutional vision of achieving self-reliance, a prestigious international reputation, and recognition as producing graduates who are comfortable as global citizens. This strategy and vision are clearly annunciated and accepted by university leaders at Departmental, Faculty and institutional levels.

5.3.3 Rationales for Strategies and Modes

Rationales for Hickling's strategies and choice of modes of operation flow directly from the Hickling 2020 vision. Responses from senior institutional and some academic managers appeared to follow a particular logic deriving from the vision. This logic is as follows. If it is accepted that the aim of a university is to promote scholarship of the highest order, and that an international dimension to scholarship is a directly associated imperative, then the institution has to develop both the resources to pursue the vision and the global strategy essential to achieving its delivery. As a consequence, opportunities for growth are perceived to be predominantly offshore, and Hickling's reputation and credibility is such that the university can now pursue its unique strategy of establishing offshore campuses and centres. This rationale is clearly summarised by one senior institutional manager in a discussion of why Hickling has chosen to establish a campus in northern

Africa,

So the idea in the case of, say, Africa, is a campus in northern Africa which supports itself, generates surplus, grows the asset base in the university, but also would effectively manage a whole set of other Hickling relationships with the southern African region in a more cost effective and relevant way than if we managed them from Australia, and that's notwithstanding modern communications technologies and so on. It's the eyeballing of individuals and the pursuit of smaller projects that couldn't be pursued from here. But at the end of the day, it's about building effectively a network of Hickling around the world which will have considerable capacity to share costs and all sorts of things. I mean the university's got no other purpose than to educate scholars. It needs to be able to be innovative in various ways. It needs to do it across a much larger enrolment base. *(Senior Institutional Manager)*

This justification includes other significant motivations behind the strategy, such as the potential for the sharing of costs between campuses and the evolution of a diversified asset base across an international network of campus and centre locations.

Not surprisingly, the further that one moves away from senior leaders toward academic managers and academics, the greater the perception that many of the university's choices are opportunistic and political and perhaps representative of some institutional manager's particular desire to establish a presence in specific locations. At these levels, the financial motivation is made explicit without the associated rhetoric of educating global scholars. Although there was a general acceptance of the vision and strategy, one business academic pointed out that the establishment of offshore campuses contradicted some contemporary business theories arguing against the sinking of capital into immobile operations. Another stated that ventures like that in northern Africa appeared not to have as sound and logical a rationale

as senior institutional managers would assert,

Down this far in the system, it looks like opportunism. We were going into Africa with one partner. That venture fell over. So now we're going into Africa with another partner. But it sounds like, at my level, we were desperate to get into Africa...I don't think we ever had any real debate about whether this particular form of engagement was a good idea. We're doing it. That's the bottom line. We're doing it and no ones going to argue too strongly about it because it will make money. It will hopefully make money. But the rationale, the financial viability of these ventures is not clear to me and I don't think the university may know, but at least their preoccupation with getting into these markets is so strong that I'm not sure they are sufficiently hard headed in their judgements.

(Academic Manager)

In terms of longstanding modes and strategies, it was recognised that Hickling's targeting of countries for onshore programs generally reflected its historical ties to particular countries, especially those involved in the Colombo Plan. It was also recognised that diversification is beginning to occur as competition in traditional markets intensifies. The choice of mode for other offshore activities has reflected the particular environments in which the university operates. While the university prefers to partner other educational institutions, reasons remain for working with private providers in some contexts, such as in situations where the private provider can access capital for expansion and assume some of the risks associated with such capital raising. Hickling is also seeking to take an increasingly proactive approach to partner selection and the development of new relationships. This is a reflection of the institution's evolution toward a more carefully managed and less opportunistic international strategy. While a degree of openness to serendipity remains, the university has developed structures and systems to support this more considered approach. These are further discussed below.

5.3.4 Structures

The Hickling structure for managing international entrepreneurial activities has, in the past, been characterised by a high degree of decentralisation to Faculties and Departments. A discernible shift to centralisation has occurred in recent years with the creation of the position of Deputy Vice-Chancellor (International), or DVC, the development of institutional and Faculty-level international committees, and through the evolution of the role of Hickling's corporatised International Office, known as the HIO. Each will be discussed in turn.

The DVC has overseen the creation of several institution-wide advisory committees with responsibilities for the consideration of international activities. At the highest level, an International Advisory Committee consisting of both internal and external members reports to the Vice-Chancellor on matters sent to it for discussion, such as the question of whether to establish offshore campuses. The committee also manages an internal fund for international activities which can be directed towards activities such as the establishment of new campuses and Centres. Capital for the fund derives from levies placed on the Faculties and the university foundation.

At the next level is an International Forum comprising the Associate Deans (International) from each of Hickling's ten Faculties as well as representatives of the Hickling International Office (HIO). Reporting to the DVC, the forum discusses international issues from a cross-Faculty perspective, and aims to share information between Faculties.

A third advisory structure is the International Advisory Group which is a small group consisting of the Director of the HIO, Director of Quality Assurance, and Directors of Hickling's various Asian research institutes. The group functions as a think-tank to 'toss ideas around about our international

activities'.

The fourth level of the structure is represented by a series of Country Reference Groups established by the DVC to discuss issues relating to particular countries. Membership of the groups may come from anywhere in the university.

Within the Faculty of Business, the Associate Dean (International) has full-time responsibility for coordinating the Faculty's offshore activities. Reporting to the Dean, the Associate Dean is a senior Faculty academic appointed to the position for a defined period. The Associate Dean (International) chairs an International Roundtable within the Faculty of Business comprising Heads of Department and members of the HIO. The roundtable meets three of four times a year and provides a forum for members to discuss proposals for new operations. It seeks to ensure that such proposals do not duplicate what other Departments may be doing. Not only is information shared through the Faculty via this mechanism, but business plans developed for new programs can be dissected, discussed and considered for their consistency with the Faculty's international strategy.

The corporatised Hickling International Office (HIO) was originally established to manage the recruitment and servicing costs of international students, thus ensuring a degree of transparency and accountability across the university for international strategies. This was a particularly important role given the university's policy that no cross-subsidisation should occur for such costs. Over the last five years, the HIO's role has expanded with the office taking equity in and having responsibility for the development of offshore campuses, the negotiation and signing of contracts for offshore delivery, the management of Hickling's array of Foundation Year and other pre-tertiary programs, and the administration of project management and development assistance activities. The HIO is also consulted before new programs originating within Faculties or elsewhere are approved for introduction.

New programs must satisfy three criteria to achieve university approval. First, the program has to be strategically relevant and consistent with institutional and Faculty international plans. Second, it must have a sound educational structure. Finally, the program must make good business sense. The HIO has developed a range of comprehensive processes for new programs such as a checklist which includes criteria such as the program's potential compatibility with the Hickling educational philosophy, host government attitudes, the safety and security profile of the host country, the host country's demand for foreign education, compliance requirements in the host country, Australian government attitudes, and the state of the education, communications and transport infrastructures in the host country. Substantial market research is undertaken and exit strategies considered. The Director of the HIO estimates that about 25 percent of offshore programs have been evaluated by such criteria, and that virtually all new programs will need to pass through this process in the future.

The DVC identifies several advantages and disadvantages of the institution's structure. The major advantages are speed and accountability. Decisions can be made quickly inside the corporate structure rather than in the traditional university structure, and in establishing new structures. Financial accountability occurs via a transparent system of university accounts showing clearly where income is being made and lost and ensuring that 'loss leaders' cannot be hidden.

The major disadvantage of the structure arises from perceptions that international structures are separate and distinct elements of the university,

The big disadvantage is that the body corporate within the university, the academic faculty, often feel that international activities are out there somewhere and are not part of the real structure and fabric of the university, and to some extent they may even be jealous of the ability of the company to move quickly and quite independently of the normal decision-

making processes that they have to go through to get new courses up or new projects up and developed. So to make it work successfully, you've got to have a solid interaction between the company and the members of the company and the university. And even then it's difficult to get a total synergy between the operations. (Senior Institutional Manager)

This difficulty is apparent in the comments of academic managers. Of seven academic managers and academics interviewed, five expressed frustration at the university's evolution toward the more centralised model of managing international operations, and particular concern was expressed about the relationship between the HIO and the Faculty of Business and its Departments. One academic manager compared paying a levy to the HIO to the payment of a road tax, since the Faculty, like motorists, wonder where its financial contribution goes. The Faculty also resents the fact that the university's Graduate School of Business has been given the option of using the HIO only as it sees fit whereas the Faculty is forced to use the HIO for many services. HIO staff are perceived to travel to offshore locations they see as interesting rather than necessarily strategic, and the isolated physical location of the HIO is perceived to symbolise the lack of communication between the HIO and Faculty of Business. Attempts are being made to rectify these problems through the establishment of institutional and Faculty structures which include HIO representatives and by the creation of the full-time Associate Dean (International) position within the Faculty.

A perception exists, nonetheless, particularly among academics, that moves to formalise and centralise international activities may stifle entrepreneurialism. In particular, a decrease in the proportion of international funds returning to Departments is seen to be encouraging the growth of a 'why bother?' mentality among some staff. Comments such as the following were typical,

I think experienced colleagues – this basically comes from people who

*have been overseas for many years and know the system – I think that they
basically feel that it's simply not worth the effort. There's a certain sanity
that a person wants to maintain in academic life. You ask yourself why
would you bother? Why would you bother going through this huge
bureaucracy and all the problems that it brings in trying to negotiate a
way through and as soon as it gets to a certain level then it is sort of taken
away from a person and becomes a Hickling initiative rather than an
individual initiative. I think there's got to be a balance between the two.*

(Academic)

A degree of wariness thus exists at levels below senior institutional managers
that the evolution of a more centralised structure could stifle initiative and
lessen motivation. Although there is recognition that some coordination is
essential, a question mark remains over the approach taken by senior
managers. In defending the transition, one senior institutional manager
argues that the university has little choice but to move down this path, since
institutional risk is climbing with the growth of international activity,

*...as this gets more complicated, more ambitious, more critical to
institutional success, we're going to have to be deploying substantial
capital resources to take advantage of the opportunities, and universities,
as businesses, as enterprises, will move into a very different risk profile.
Its no longer just a case of saying "oh well, let Professor Bloggs start his
program and if it doesn't work you can close it down". If you're opening
a campus, your hand is in your pocket for at least ten million dollars. You
can't just close it down and walk away!*

(Senior Institutional Manager)

It is also asserted that while the management of such risk must occur in
balance with the maintenance of the entrepreneurial culture developed in a
climate of considerable Faculty and Departmental autonomy, the Faculties
themselves have signed off on the new structure. Moreover, the problems, it

is argued, may be less structural and more attributable to a dearth of skills across the university for managing international business, and also a reflection of the leanness of the Hickling management structure. In relation to the latter, one senior institutional manager commented that,

A lot of people are spread very thinly in relation to the Hickling ambition.

(Senior Institutional Manager)

In terms of the absence of skills, the same manager stated that this problem is critical for Australian universities in general and Hickling in particular,

A lot of the people are what might be called "enthusiastically skilled amateurs", and I include myself in that. You don't have professional management of the sort that you would have if you were an insurance company or bank or something trying to go global. And that will be our next step, I think, to introduce those skills in financial engineering, in international marketing and so forth that we are going to need to approach this over the next couple of decades.

(Senior Institutional Manager)

In sum, the restructuring of the way in which Hickling manages its international strategies is a critical issue for the university, and is an issue perceived differently at different institutional levels in terms of its potential effectiveness.

5.3.5 Systems

Reward systems were not viewed as sufficiently supportive of entrepreneurial activities. Several participants spoke of the continued presence of an antiquated industrial relations working against Faculty efforts to improve reward systems. One academic noted that sustenance allowances had historically been barely enough to cover actual expenses incurred, while

another identified inflexible work contracts as inhibiting entrepreneurial work. A senior institutional manager termed the approach a 'public service approach' to human resources, with the system needing to accommodate the employment of people with different skills in different reward structures. Supporting this view, one academic was stridently critical of the inability of the system to institutionalise international activities in promotional outcomes. Another spoke of the university's enthusiasm for taking a substantial cut from much of the entrepreneurial work undertaken by academics, international and otherwise. Despite this, the Faculty of Business was perceived as having made a genuine effort to improve tangible reward systems for its staff.

Communication systems for contact with international students were generally seen as supportive, however problems were perceived as potentially arising for communications as institutional expansion occurred. One academic from a former Institute of Technology absorbed into the university lamented the difficulty of raising problems in a multi-campus university within which the Faculty of Business was of a size larger than many small and medium-sized universities.

Administrative and information technology systems were generally seen to lag behind the take-up of new international activities, although several participants stated that these systems were evolving over time. One senior institutional manager argued that the slow pace of improvements in this area reflected the chaotic nature of universities,

When you talk about systems and the management of international activities, I mean the whole of the planning of universities in this country requires a lot more work. We're becoming sophisticated, but universities themselves are complex adaptive systems which are often chaotic. That's their nature as they evolve. (Senior Institutional Manager)

Moreover, given the rapidity of external and internal environmental change,

institutions which developed complex and comprehensive systems could find themselves 'strangled' by them. While many people in universities may find comfort in structures and well-defined systems, institutional managers, it is argued, must recognise that the chaotic nature of universities demands a balance between having too many systems and structures and too few.

Hickling has endeavoured to improve its systems via the pursuit of international quality accreditation. The institution was the first university in the world to join the Global Alliance for Transnational Education (GATE), an international alliance of business, higher education and governmental organisations providing quality certification of higher education programs. While GATE certification is still relatively new, Hickling University has used the accreditation process as a catalyst for the development of offshore quality control mechanisms used extensively between GATE accreditation visits.

5.3.6 Culture

Academics provided mixed responses to the question of the presence or otherwise of a supportive culture for international entrepreneurialism. One academic noted that an entrepreneurial culture tended to be present in some areas of the Department and Faculty rather than others, a reflection of the reality that much entrepreneurial work tends to be concentrated rather than evenly dispersed. Other academics lamented a retreat of the entrepreneurial culture as centralisation occurred and bureaucracy increased,

> *I think that in terms of the entrepreneurial spirit, it is at the moment in retreat at Hickling in a few places because of the mechanisms that have been put in place to control that…It may have been a response to people who have committed the university to programs that haven't been in the best interests of the university…but it seems to me that the reaction to that has been the full swing of the pendulum across to the other side.*
>
> *(Academic)*

Perhaps explaining this response, one academic manager serving as Head of Department stated that perceptions of culture differed by seniority level. The Department and Faculty may be viewed as having an entrepreneurial culture by those with a direct involvement in decision-making, but a lesser involvement could equate with perceptions of a less-supportive culture. Another academic manager identified the presence of a strong business culture as naturally present in Faculties of Business, with a knowledge of disciplines like cost management an important element in the Faculty's international success.

The philosophy of the Dean of the Faculty of Business is to encourage the existence of different micro cultures under a broad 'umbrella' culture within the Faculty. The approach had arguably led to a proliferation of entrepreneurial staff developing different but complementary programs free of some of the confines of central control,

> *There is an emerging culture, but there are still lots of cultures and they're at great conflict still...Hickling has grown by accretion and all these different antecedent parts have come together...I've tried in the Faculty not to create one homogeneous entity but to have different parts of the Faculty that can provide different products and services and having in some way a different local culture. But over that there is an umbrella culture or environment that pulls the diversity together.*
>
> *(Dean - Senior Institutional Manager)*

Senior institutional managers recognised the presence of an evolving entrepreneurial culture. The institution's long involvement in international entrepreneurial activities was perceived to have encouraged the development of a 'can do' attitude among staff, and an acceptance that Hickling's institutional strategy of differentiation would be a key to future success. There was also an acceptance, however, that some staff would not or could not adapt to the new culture,

The approach we're taking is that you can't convince all of the people all of the time. The university will proceed down this pathway. Those that are coming will come. Those that don't can in some respects continue on in their isolation. And others will simply fall by the wayside and disappear from the Hickling system. *(Senior Institutional Manager)*

In sum, responses to questions of culture were ambivalent and sometimes mixed. Nonetheless, the extent of Hickling's international growth and development attests to the view that many in the institution have responded positively to university encouragement to be involved in international entrepreneurial activities.

5.3.7 Impacts

Impacts on Core Values

Responses to the question of whether international entrepreneurialism impacted on core values varied depending on how core values were defined. Responses could be divided into two categories. On one hand, around half of the participants, across all three levels of interviewees, stated that as internationalisation is a core value of the university, the pursuit of such activities is indeed consistent with that value. Of the remainder, most indicated that core values had changed considerably. Learning for the sake of learning had disappeared, research often needed to be of an applied nature to be funded, and the challenge of combining teaching, coordination, and research responsibilities was perceived to have been made more difficult by the onset of international demands. In this latter respondent category, although an international goal for the university was indeed recognised, this was seen as a rhetorical device not directly related to the degree of support provided for international activities at Departmental level. One academic manager saw the international core value as being so broad as to encompass

virtually anything,

> *I don't think most staff would go in and say "well these are the core values that the university stands for" because Hickling stands to be anything and everything in every market doing everything in every mode…Once I heard it described as wanting to be more ubiquitous than Coca Cola!*
>
> *(Academic Manager)*

This academic manager also discussed the impact of Hickling's changing structure on the university's core values. Viewing the institution's structural evolution as a centralisation of major strategic decisions and a decentralisation of lesser decisions, it was noted that Hickling's core values and culture had always reflected a relatively high degree of centralisation, and thus any perceived decline in collegiality in core values would probably be erroneous.

In sum, a majority view existed that the core values of the university included internationalisation and that this was therefore reinforced and supported by international entrepreneurial activities. While it was asserted by some participants that this may have been to the detriment of traditional values such as the ability of academics to undertake disinterested research, this impact tended to be subsumed under the broader forces of commercialisation affecting all universities.

Impacts of Faculty of Business Dominance

Similarly, there were generally two types of response to the question of whether the dominance of business and IT programs impacted on the rest of the university. The question was particularly pertinent given that the institution has experienced problems over recent years from staff in the Faculties of Arts and Science over the issue of resource cuts. As may have been expected, senior institutional managers took an institution-wide view

which pointed out the proactive nature of Hickling's international entrepreneurial strategies in dealing with this issue. These strategies exist at two levels. First, there is the recognition that the Faculties of Business and Information Technology achieve much of their success because of the Hickling 'brand'. Such recognition requires a high degree of support for the brand, and this has meant that adjustments to institutional funding formulae have occurred to channel significant revenues back to the centre and non-business Faculties. Second, the strategy of building Hickling campuses and Centres around the world is seen as an overt attempt to internationalise and build other Faculties. For instance, the new campus in Asia delivers the programs of five Faculties, while the first international Centre to be established is being driven as much by the Faculties of Law, Education, and Arts as it is by Business and IT Faculties. The Faculties of Science and Engineering are major forces behind another Centre being developed, while a third Centre will focus on the offerings of the Faculties of Law, Arts and Design.

A somewhat different response was received from academic managers and academics. While there is recognition of the need to subsidise other Faculties, a common refrain was that this should not be taken as a long-term given. That is, there is seen to be a 'boundary of reasonableness' which may be breached unless the university adequately recognises and rewards the efforts of the Faculty of Business and its Departments,

> *If you cross that line, then people will say "to hell with this there's nothing in it". I think in my Faculty one of the big challenges at the moment is to persuade people to keep on giving in an environment when they've been giving a lot more and more of the bite.*
>
> *(Dean – Senior Institutional Manager)*

This notion of reciprocity was a standard response across the academic and academic manager cohort. Comments such as the following were typical,

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...I think the university without a Faculty of Arts or some of these Faculties that are in current financial difficulties, I think most of the staff here would say that's not a university, and they would like to keep them. It's the sort of question of how much? It's a tricky decision to answer. Maybe they should do things to modify themselves too. We've gone through some trauma, and we've had our problems with increased workloads and increased stress in the Faculty of Business with our multiple programs and with this and our other activities. The end result is yes, we protected ourselves from the declining DEETYA funding, but we also don't want to see all that effort go to some other Faculty where people are just sitting around having cups of tea. We think we work pretty hard, so we want to see some benefits ourselves. (Academic)

Although the perception may be that some academics in other Faculties are sitting around sipping tea, one Faculty of Business academic spoke of the 'antiquated' facilities of some other Faculties in contrast to the modern and well-furnished accommodation of the Business Faculty, and a tour of one campus revealed this to indeed be the case.

5.3.8 Organisational Learning and Leadership

Organisational learning was viewed as a weakness of the Hickling model, albeit one being addressed through mechanisms such as the establishment of groups such as the International Forum and creation of the Associate Dean (International) positions in each Faculty. According to one senior institutional manager, learning is impeded by the university's management and governance structure, a structure which has not historically encouraged the sharing of information,

One of the things that I've identified here that we're really lacking is reflection on what we do and research, the sort of stuff that you're doing.

Now Hickling is at the cutting edge of a lot of this stuff, but we very rarely analyse in a reflective fashion what we're up to and write about it to the benefit of ourselves and our colleagues in other institutions. It's starting to happen but it's been very slow.   *(Senior Institutional Manager)*

A consequence of this has been the development of a perception across the university that 'things are kept secret' at the centre when this is not necessarily the case.

Despite the creation of the new advisory bodies, academic managers generally saw learning as occurring informally and mostly as a result of experience. For instance, one Department's involvement in the development of the campus in Thailand had led to learning about the need to 'front end' such operations to a greater degree in terms of being better organised prior to commencement. Similarly, academics viewed most learning as informal, within disciplinary areas, and sometimes within units as programs are developed. The growth of the Faculty of Business and its cross-campus nature was viewed by one academic as actively discouraging learning.

As for leadership, several participants identified the role of Faculty deans as crucial to the success of international entrepreneurial activities. The Dean of the Faculty of Business was viewed as a "mini Vice-Chancellor" given the immense size of the Faculty. To the Deputy Vice-Chancellor (International), the need for leadership across the institution to manage successful programs and create the necessarily culture essential for their success was viewed as critical, with the role of the Hickling International Office seen to be particularly important in this process,

You can have vision, and you can be an agent of change, but at the end of the day, you've also got to be a leader. And to run a successful global operation, you have to hand pick your leadership, because it stands or falls on leadership, quite frankly. And we've been very lucky at Hickling

to have leadership which has been able to integrate the large variety of international interests across our Faculties, being able to assist the entrepreneurs within those Faculties, because through the Hickling International Office we've been able to build up significant pockets of expertise of the sort that Faculties can come and use…But the key to it is leadership and giving people a sense of ownership, a sense of excitement.

(DVC – Senior Institutional Manager)

5.3.9 Case Summary

A summary of the case findings is presented in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2 Analytical Summary of Case Findings for Hickling University

	Senior Institutional Managers (2)	Academic Managers (4)	Academics (4)
Mission-Strategies	• Expansive vision of 'Hickling 2020' the 'sieve through which everything passes' • vision and strategies include offshore expansion via campuses, centres, partnerships and DE	• committed to four-tier strategy (campuses, centres, partnerships based on supported DE and DE)	• general awareness of Hickling 2020 • most existing strategies remain those in place for some time – recruitment to Australian campuses, supported DE with offshore partners
Rationales	• global scholars require a global university which includes offshore campuses and which is of global scale	• historically driven by financial imperatives, opportunism and institutional context • review and refinement now occurring	• not clear on rationales, but • $ certainly of importance!
Structures	• move to greater centralisation a function of the higher risk and complexity associated with greater international activity	• protective of autonomy of Faculty of Business and its departments • view Hickling Int.Office as a hindrance to entrepreneurialism, although this may improve with new forums recently introduced	• generally wary of move to centralisation – see as making international work less attractive • one academic did see the Int.Office as supportive, however.

	Senior Institutional Managers (2)	**Academic Managers (4)**	**Academics (4)**
Systems	• evolving but lag in development reflects chaotic nature of universities • quality – formalised via GATE accreditation	• evolving slowly but much remains to be done • reward systems often inadequate	• reward system poor – insufficient recognition of international activities in promotion process • communication hampered by institutional size • admin/IT systems inadequate
Culture	• evolving entrepreneurial culture building on 10-15 years of international experience • still some way to go	• culture may be evolving but differences exist between campuses and Faculties • Faculty of Business strongly entrepreneurial, a reflection of its disciplinary focus	• 'spotty' entrepreneurial culture in retreat in some ways due to centralisation
Impacts – On Core Values	• international engagement, entrepreneurially and otherwise, is a core value of the university	• rhetoric of internationalisation becomes weaker at lower levels, particularly via detrimental impacts on research and scholarly activity	• difficult to balance international entrepreneurialism with demands for research output and course coordination duties
Impacts – of Faculty of Business Dominance	• attempting to manage via creation of multi-Faculty centres offshore	• creates tension but reality is that FoB subsidises other Faculties • this is acceptable as long as other Faculties also learn to 'help themselves'	• while tension exists, other Faculties should be aware of the work FoB academics do, eg. summer semesters, teaching at nights, constant travel disruptions
Org. Learning and Leadership	• Learning – a 'weakness'. Attempting to address via new forums and appointment of Associate Deans in Faculties • Leadership – a 'critical' factor. Leadership across the institution is important, integrated by the leadership role of the Hickling International Office	• Learning – primarily occurs informally from experience • Leadership role of Faculty Dean of critical importance	• Learning – mixed responses. Most saw as occurring informally between academics and departments. One academic viewed the culture as inhibiting learning. • Leadership – role of Dean viewed as very important for operationalising international activities and disseminating information.

5.4　CASE 3 – SAMUELS UNIVERSITY

5.4.1 Case Description

Samuels University is a single-campus institution located approximately 12 kilometres from the Central Business District of one of Australia's largest capital city universities. Established in the early 1970s, Samuels University is home to just over 20,000 students, representing some 14,000 EFTSU. In 1998, two-thirds of Samuels students were undertaking bachelors degrees, 23 percent enrolled in higher degrees and the remainder enrolled in other Samuels programs.

Almost 35 percent of students were enrolled in either the Faculty of Business (FoB) or the Graduate School of Business (GSB). Other academic units include the Faculties of Arts (11.5% of students), English and Communications (10.2%), Information Technology (7.5%), Philosophy and History (6.7%), Education (5.7%), Childhood Studies (5.5%), Biology (5.8%), Law (4.5%), Environmental Studies (4.4%), Languages (2.8%), and Chemistry (0.8%).

International student numbers at Samuels have risen significantly in recent times. 2,100 international students studied at Samuels in 1998, an increase of 21.1% over 1997 numbers. This is a significant increase after the relatively small increases of previous years. Samuels maintains significant onshore and offshore international student cohorts, with 59.5 percent of international students studying onshore and 40.5 percent enrolled in offshore programs.

Major source countries for international student enrolments include Hong Kong (25%), China (12%), Singapore (10.7%), New Zealand (6.6%), Indonesia (6.3%) and the United States (5.5%). In contrast to most universities, the majority of international students at Samuels are undertaking postgraduate programs. Just over half (52%) of international students in

1998 were enrolled in masters degrees by coursework, compared to just 31 percent completing bachelors degrees.

Although international student numbers at Samuels have historically lagged slightly behind those of equivalent institutions, the university's campus appears nonetheless to be highly international. International students are conspicuous, perhaps somewhat of a reflection also of the substantial Asian population in nearby suburbs which are primary feeder areas into the university, as well as a reflection of the presence of an international pre-degree college located in the central part of the campus. The leafy, attractive campus is flanked by a developing research and technology park administered by the university on one side, on another by student colleges, and on another by a suburb of medium-density housing of a style attractive to many students.

The Director of the Samuels International Office is located in a new chancellery building located between the main university campus and Graduate School of Business. Reflecting the growing significance of international entrepreneurialism, the Director's office is located close to that of the Vice-Chancellor. The offices of the Director's marketing team are located some 200 metres away in a new commercially-sponsored office building, while other International Office staff are located at the university's administrative hub.

5.4.2 Strategies

The Samuels University international strategy revolves around the need for growth. From a relatively low base, the institution is striving to build its international student numbers, both onshore and offshore, to levels consistent with its size and competitive position,

In 1997 I think IDP or DETYA figures had us as the 23rd destination for

international students, and about 18th in 1998. I suspect this year we'll be about 14th or 15th, and I think our natural place is about 11th or 12th. There's no reason why places like QUT, UTS or VUT should have more international students than us. That's not being critical of them, but you know we're in the same market, a similar sized university. We should go head to head with them and should be able to exceed their numbers as a comparable university.   *(Senior Institutional Manager)*

Much of the Samuels portfolio of international programs represents an historically 'ad hoc and reactive' approach to the management of international entrepreneurial activities. These terms were consistently used by interviewees when describing the Samuels approach. Until recent times, two academic units consistently achieved high levels of international activity, primarily offshore, while most other Faculties and academic units undertook few international activities other than the teaching of international students onshore. In particular, the Graduate School of Business (GSB) maintained and continues to develop strong offshore programs in Singapore and Hong Kong while the Department of Finance has developed Masters degree in applied finance taught across six international locations. The latter programs have become world-leading in terms of prestige and popularity. Both programs rely on professional association partners for marketing, accommodation and administrative support at international locations while delivery is undertaken primarily by travelling Samuels academic undertaking intensive block teaching programs. Much of the credit for the international expansion of the Graduate School of Business is due to the work of the former Director of the GSB.

Other than these centres of concentrated activity, the Departments comprising the Samuels Faculty of Business have historically undertaken relatively little international business. This is beginning to change, however. A number of undergraduate and postgraduate programs have been introduced or are being developed to build on existing and new international linkages, and this is

reflective of a recent and significant change in the Samuels international approach. One such program is an alliance with a publishing house in Singapore for the delivery of undergraduate business degrees in that location. Others include the development of masters degrees in accounting, economics and international business to be delivered in several Asian centres.

Samuels University has long had an entrepreneurial and international ethos. The difficulty has been in adapting this ethos to national and international realities which have demanded an aggressive approach to international entrepreneurialism and a recognition that reduced federal government funding requires a less-traditional approach to institutional marketing. The university's entrepreneurial ethos is illustrated by its strong industry links and record of attracting significant research funding from private and public bodies. Samuels position as the least financially government-dependent university in Australia attests to its success in these areas. The international intentions of the university reflect the leadership of a Vice-Chancellor who heads several inter-institutional international education associations and who was once an international student in Australia.

Despite these characteristics, Samuels was for many years a laggard in developing international entrepeneurial strategies,

> *Samuels of all Australian universities was probably the most undersold internationally. That is, it has a Vice-Chancellor who is an internationalist. It has a very good product. It has a good reputation, domestically and internationally. It has a good research profile. It has a lovely campus. It has all the things that should make it successful, but it has been a very conservative place.* *(Senior Institutional Manager)*

This conservatism arose from both academic and organisational sources. Within the Faculties, some senior staff actively opposed new international entrepreneurial activities, primarily on ideological grounds. New initiatives

which had originated or built support elsewhere in the university were regularly rejected by a Dean of the Faculty of Business who believed, along with others, that the acceptance of international fee-paying students represented the "thin edge of the wedge" in the further commercialisation of the university. Within the wider university organisation, international activities were coordinated in a small and under-resourced International Office (IO) located in the Registrar's Division. The IO was for many years overseen by a senior institutional manager who was often reluctant to consider any broader role for the IO. The leaders of the then students' association were also hostile towards new international activities for similar reasons to the Dean and his colleagues.

This situation was understandably frustrating for the Vice-Chancellor. Nonetheless, a strategy of biding time until the opportunity arose to implement significant and comprehensive change appears to be paying off,

> *While it was very, very frustrating and many times I was tempted to just step in and take it over and sometimes threatened to do so, I think in the end it was worth waiting because now there is a great deal more support and acceptance.* *(Vice-Chancellor – Senior Inst. Manager)*

The catalyst for the change process was the retirement of the FoB Dean and another key senior institutional with considerable oversight of international activities. The Vice-Chancellor commissioned a report from recognised international education consultants which considered Samuels University's position in the international education market, competitive advantage, and its administration of international education in terms of structure and efficiency. The report provided an optimistic vision for future international activities based on a more aggressive approach to the market and the professionalisation of the institution's managerial approach to international activities. Its recommendations were closely aligned with the views of the university's internationally oriented Vice-Chancellor.

Two direct outcomes of the report contributed to a marked change in Samuels international strategy. The first was the creation of a pre-degree business school located in the centre of the institution and designed to provide a stream of international students into degree programs at minimal cost to the university. Privately owned, the institute uses Samuels facilities and pays royalties to the university which current stand at around $2 million per annum. The institute delivers many of its programs using Samuels academics who may earn significant additional income for this involvement. Although subject to a degree of opposition when established, the institute is argued to have been a key contributor to the process of strategic change in the institution,

I was convinced it was something we had to do and that we could not do what they are doing with ordinary university structures. It permitted us to do through a partner things that we just could never have done on our own. *(Vice-Chancellor)*

The second key outcome of the report was the removal of the International Office from the Registrar's Division and the creation of a new office reporting directly to the Vice-Chancellor. A national search resulted in the appointment of one of Australia's most recognised and respected International Office heads as Director of the reconstituted International Office (IO). This appointment is recognised as 'good fortune' by the Vice-Chancellor. The IO has consequently become a professional and well-respected unit within the university's structure. More details about the IO's evolution are provided below.

Concurrently with this process, the university worked to further develop its existing commitment to internationalisation into institutional mission and planning processes. The Samuels 'Internationalisation Vision' evolved to become significantly more international and externally focussed,

To be a borderless university with particular outreach to the Asia-Pacific and to have an international reputation for the development of graduates across the world who are well prepared for the global society of the twenty-first century.

Internationalisation goals range from commitments to internationalisation of the curriculum, research and academic staff to the 'development and nurturing of overseas strategic alliances' and the 'promotion of high standards through international benchmarking'. As with other institutional goals, these occur within the context of a budgetary plan which seeks to reinforce the institution's entrepreneurial ethos through the maximisation of non-government revenue. These goals were clearly outlined in a section of the institution's 1997 Annual Report headed 'Key Factors for Samuels University's Distinctive Edge and Comparative Advantage'. Of eight factors listed, two related directly to internationalisation and international entrepreneurialism,

Continue the development of Samuels as a borderless university in terms of internationalisation of staffing; the curricula; the location of teaching and delivery modes; research and technology transfer; the student body, including international exposure for Australian students; benchmarking; and leadership in international organisations and networks.

Continue to increase enrolments of overseas students, including offshore enrolments, taught face-to-face and by sophisticated open learning, through strategic alliances and twinning programs; and through ELICOS and articulated foundation programs.

The institution's ability to operate as a borderless university will be enhanced by the use of 'flexible, multi-mode delivery' via the use of multi-media and strategic alliances. The institution's reputation for innovation and historical

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use of alliances for international and other activities instances an intention to leverage these traits in pursuit of this goal. Current international strategies thus reflect these broader goals as well as the more immediate objective of building international activities and student numbers to levels comparable with those of competitors.

The Samuels approach to international entrepeneurialism may be contrasted with that of some other Australian universities. It represents an intermediate strategy when compared to other institutions,

> *I would see us as a university which is focussed as a series of spokes going out of this campus with perhaps some network nodes in other places like Singapore and Hong Kong. So, for example, since we can't get undergraduates from China here, we can take them to Singapore or Hong Kong to finish their degrees…We'll have some radial spokes but probably some network nodes as well.*   *(Senior Institutional Manager)*

This strategy may be illustrated as follows:

Figure 5.1   Samuels International Strategy
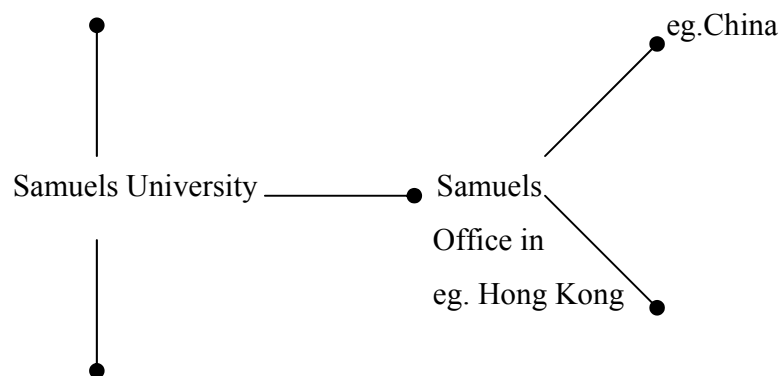
In contrast, some other institutions are expected to follow traditional models of international activity with some offshore linkages radiating from the home campus.

Figure 5.2   Traditional International Strategies

Traditional Approach
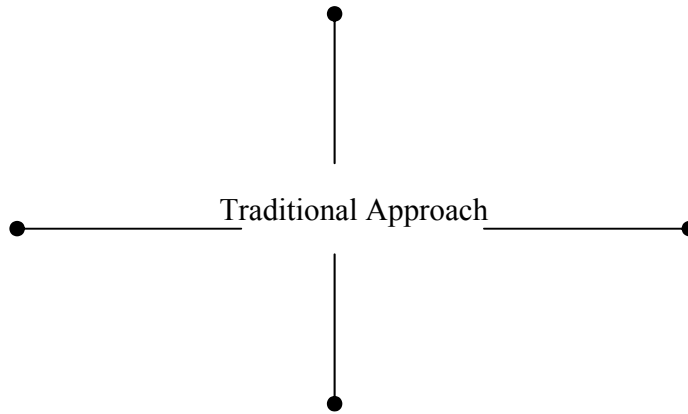
A more radical approach is being taken by some highly international institutions in the establishment of offshore campuses in addition to ongoing alliances of a more traditional nature.

Figure 5.3   International Strategy of Highly International Universities

Large onshore
or offshore campus

Large onshore
or offshore campus

Large onshore
or offshore campus
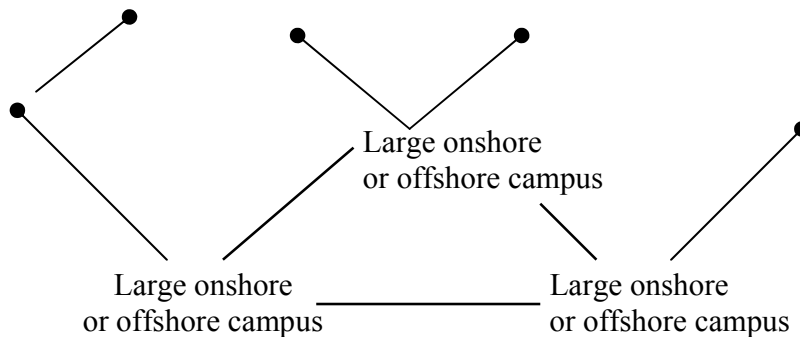
In the short to medium term, Samuels is diversifying into new countries for international student recruitment and customising its strategy to the particular needs of markets. For instance, it is focussing on both full degree and single semester study abroad markets in Scandinavia and the United States. Promotional materials have been developed, admissions processes streamlined, and a call centre initiated in conjunction with several other universities to assist with recruitment activities. With linkages established between the IO and Faculties, new programs in areas such as international

business and accounting are being developed and delivered by Departments in conjunction with the IO.

5.4.3 Rationales for Strategies and Modes

Like other institutions, interviewees at Samuels University base their responses to the question of rationales with an acceptance that much international entrepreneurial activity has been and continues to be motivated by the need for revenue. Indeed, a significant justification for such activity outlined in the consultant's report discussed above was that the financial 'pie' from past activity was of an insufficient size to provide adequate returns to both the centre and Faculties. Worthwhile returns to these units from international activities thus demanded a substantial growth in the pie's size.

Explicit rationales exist also for the institution's current focus on strategic alliances as a primary mode of expansion, the market targeting and strategic integration roles of the International Office, and for the ways in which the university is being promoted as an onshore study destination. In particular, the university offers a business-oriented and comprehensive rationale for its focus on strategic alliances,

> *Strategic alliances are becoming ever more crucial in the global world of the 21st century in order (i) to build competitive size, resources and capacity, and to combine expertise, especially in research; (ii) to develop synergistic capacity, especially in the interactive multi-media technologies; (iii) to offer flexible, cross-sectoral transnational education and training; (iv) to access global markets, including for the commercialisation of research; and (v) to play a role in the provision of regional benefits on an ethically shared base.*

Samuels has several longstanding successful research and cross-sectoral alliances, and its approach to international strategy has built on this

partnerships emphasis. The approach is based on the philosophy that the university is a deliverer of academic programs rather than 'in the business of managing campuses',

> *The only thing we really want to do overseas is our core business of teaching, research and community outreach, and we'll get partners for the rest.* (Senior Institutional Manager)

Samuels prefers to develop strategic alliances with non-profit providers such as professional associations and universities. Such organisations are viewed as sharing a similar educational ethos and perspective as Samuels. There is a recognition, however, that such alliances are not possible in all circumstances, and that an openness to opportunities requires a subsequent openness to partnering other types of organisations. Providing ongoing support for existing programs with a range of providers further reflects the reality that a "pure" approach is unfeasible and probably unjustifiable. A more realistic option, according to the Director of the International Office, is to pursue an 'integrated approach' to international activities.

By aiming to 'strategically integrate' international activities, the International Office is seeking to pursue the synergies potentially arising from a coordinated management approach in each major market. This approach requires coordination between administrative processes, recruitment and promotional activities, and the development of new programs and support for existing programs within each market. In Hong Kong for instance, the nature of the international education market, the current presence and activities of Samuels in that location, and the constraints of the market may mean that a strong Samuels strategy includes the strengthening of existing linkages with Hong Kong universities and a major professional association in that location, the development of new partnerships with other providers for new programs, and perhaps a Samuels office for onshore recruitment, coordination of programs, and as a base for activities in places like China and Vietnam.

Pursuing this strategy at a micro level may include targeting potential partner universities in China generally perceived as being ranked outside the top two hundred universities in that country but within the top five hundred institutions. More prestigious universities are, according to the IO Director, often self-absorbed and arrogant, in comparison to middle-ranking institutions which are often more receptive to such activities,

> *...because they're hungry, they want to do things, they want to get out there. They're also respected in their own communities and they're seen as reasonable places, not shonky ones.*
>
> (IO Director – Senior Institutional Manager)

According to participants, the International Office has a broad international strategy which is clearly understood by key staff within the IO, such as the International Marketing Manager. The strategy incorporates the targeting of particular countries and regions over others, however there is little detailed exposition of the strategy beyond this broad approach,

> *We've not yet developed comprehensive country-specific plans. In fact, we're implementing them before they've even been written, because we know what we want to do, we know the strategic approach we're taking, and we're implementing that.* (Int Mktg Manager – Academic Manager)

The approach reflects the philosophy of an experienced and shrewd International Office Director. The strategy demonstrates an understanding of the emergent nature of an international entrepreneurial culture in a historically conservative institution and the need for ownership and acceptance of these activities among Faculty staff. It is also reflective of the "spotty" nature of international entrepreneurialism within the university, with some units such as the Graduate School of Business experienced in such activities to the point where comprehensive templates and international consultants are used to assist in the evaluation of new opportunities, a

contrast to other units with little international experience or expertise.

A strong rationale also exists for the recruitment of international students to the local campus. This primarily involves an institutional desire to maintain an image of quality and credibility in the international education marketplace. The perception of Samuels as a quality provider was demonstrated in a recent survey which revealed that a majority of international students coming to Samuels chose the institution first before considerations of country and city. In contrast to other national surveys, this new competitive dimension emphasises to senior institutional managers the need to maintain the attractive image of the institution in marketing and promotional campaigns. Decisions about countries to be targeted also reflect the long experience of the IO Director in international student recruitment activities.

Three further rationale-related issues are significant. First, efforts are being made to remain open to initiatives and opportunities deriving from both inside and outside the institution. Although a more proactive and guided approach is visible, the relatively youthful nature of the institution in its international engagement is seen to require an openness to new opportunities. This has meant that a prescriptive, criterion-based evaluation process has been purposely avoided. While new opportunities are evaluated on academic and financial grounds, and for their consistency with institutional strategy,

> *We are trying to be careful not to develop processes that are too bureaucratic and complicated…I think developing criteria is sort of putting blocks of concrete around your neck. The whole area is so flawed that you're just knocking off opportunities. I suppose I have always had the philosophy that if ten people walk through the door with possible opportunities, if you don't follow up at least eight of those you're not going to ever get any of them. If you make the selection too early, you never do anything…I think we're new enough at some of this that criteria, firm criteria, are not helpful. (IO Director – Senior Institutional Manager)*

Second, there is a general awareness among academic managers and academics that Samuels is evolving from its historical conservatism to a more proactive approach to international entrepreneurialism. The approach is perceived to be strongly led by the Vice-Chancellor and IO Director and facilitated by the IO. It seeks to build on the successful, market-driven initiatives which do exist in some parts of the Faculty of Business, Graduate School of Business and the wider university. The more strategic approach being taken and exhorted at these levels is encouraging a similar evolution in strategic processes at Faculty and Departmental level. A strategic ethos is thus beginning to evolve which is influencing strategic choice at these levels,

> *I think you would find a much more positive attitude coming through now and I think that's coming through because we do seem to have an International Office, communicative structures and decision processes that are a lot more considered and cautious.*   *(Academic Manager)*

The degree of strategic evolution should not be overstated, however. Several academics and academic managers professed a need to learn and build experience in this area, and to strengthen the still formative relationship between the IO and Departments. In relation to this, a third issue arising is a strongly held view that the institution's historical conservatism in this sphere had and has both positive as well as negative effects, and that the cautious approach of Samuels is therefore appropriate in this risky domain. Further, it is recognised that while the past approach was conservative, it was also reactive and ad hoc,

> *...we're moving into ventures that are inherently risky without the expertise in dealing with entrepreneurial issues...I think it has been a blessing in disguise, even though I don't think it's been managed that way, that Samuels hasn't jumped into a lot of arrangements with other universities. I don't think (a) we would have been able to manage it properly, and (b) I don't think it would have brought the money that we*

probably needed. *(Academic)*

I think the approach to risk management is now much better. I do think the new International Office through the Director is probably looking at a much more cautious and entrepreneurial and expansive strategy, and I think a more balanced and more cautious and more considered strategy than we may have had previously. So it's transitional…

(Academic Manager)

In sum, the institution's international strategies are expansionist and ambitious yet simultaneously bounded by its risk-averse and previously anti-international context. A focus on strategic alliances and offshore growth reflects the university's mission and historic strengths. An openness to a variety of possible opportunities reflects the institution's current phase of development and historic emphasis on ad hoc program development. These seemingly paradoxical characteristics provide a mixture of rationales for both current and developing international strategies. This mix of rationales is arguably a function of the 'transitional' nature of Samuels involvement in international entrepreneurial activities.

5.4.4 Structures

Aspects of structure to be considered in this section include the degree to which Samuels is structurally centralised or decentralised, the role of the International Office (IO), and the management of international activities within the Faculty of Business (FoB).

According to one senior institutional manager with experience in a number of Australian universities, Samuels is probably the most centralised university in the nation. The authority of Deans is less than at other institutions, with many administrative responsibilities remaining centralised in the Registrar's division. The Dean of the Faculty of Business concurs with this view,

describing the structure as 'centralised in a fairly traditional way'. For the management of international entrepreneurial activities, the major consequence of this centralisation has been that the centre and IO have been able to operate fairly directively over much of the university through the introduction of explicit or implicit policies,

We have had the opportunity to put down policies either explicitly or implicitly and just go with them and drag the people along with us.

(Senior Institutional Manager)

As a consequence, Departments within the Faculty generally expect the IO to proactively approach them with suggestions and ideas for facilitation of programs. The two exceptions to this are the relatively autonomous Graduate School of Business and Department of Finance, which operate in a highly corporatised and stand-alone manner but nonetheless use the IO for advice, facilitation and the joint-management of some projects.

Senior institutional managers such as the IO Director view the centralised structure as supportive of the current strategy of international expansion and a more strategic and systematic approach,

You've got all these pluses and minuses in a centralised structure, and I have to say as someone who's studied a bit of management over time, that my own management style is to push things out as much as possible. But having said that, I think you've got a better chance of getting a long-term coherent strategy in place in a university that is largely centralised…By and large it gives some opportunities to the university to direct the agenda or at least push it along…I think for what we're doing, at least at this stage of development, this is very useful.

(IO Director – Senior Institutional Manager)

Building on the limited role of the old IO, the new International Office has

expanded to assume responsibility for several key areas of international program management. The IO's role includes the recruitment of international students for onshore studies, the development, facilitation and negotiation of offshore programs in conjunction with Departments, the operation and facilitation of study abroad and student exchange programs, the admittance and support of international students, international protocol activities, and responsibilities for market research and the collection of student statistics. The IO Director has also developed models clarifying the differences between the IO, Faculties and Departments in terms of responsibilities for international operations. The IO has expanded from six to eighteen staff including an International Marketing Manager, promotional team and administrative staff.

Academics and academic managers interviewed generally viewed the evolving role of the International Office in favourable ways, as did senior institutional managers,

> *I think they are getting some very good people at the International Office.*
> *(Academic Manager)*

> *From the Faculty's point of view I've found an enormous improvement because it really does play a facilitative role.* *(Academic Manager)*

> *Out of all the university partners we could have, pigeon-holing parts of the university to make this statement, I feel that we've got the best synergy with the IO Director and his group.* *(Academic Manager – GSB)*

> *Now if I suggest something to the IO Director, within a day it's done.*
> *(Senior Institutional Manager)*

One academic with significant international coordination responsibilities

actually lamented that the evolution of communication and linkage structures between the IO and the FoB and its Departments had not occurred more rapidly,

> *…there's no real structure overriding as an umbrella structure over that. There's very tenuous, very ad hoc links. When one needs to use the other, they can sound them out and find them. But there doesn't tend to be a structure where you can say well this is exactly how it happens…we don't know what we could have achieved had we, you know, been more structured and coherent in our organisational procedures.   (Academic)*

Consistent with this statement, it appears that structures for managing international entrepreneurial activities within the Faculty of Business have evolved in a reactive way. The Faculty has an overarching international programs coordinator, offshore program managers who supervise and coordinate specific programs, "mini Departments" within Departments responsible for entrepreneurial activities including offshore program development, academics in each Department designated as "international coordinators", and the relatively autonomous Department of Finance operating its postgraduate programs offshore in a well-defined niche market. Given this internal structure, the call of the academic quoted above for an umbrella communicative structure appears reasonable. The absence of inter-unit synergies was also noted by academic managers associated with the university's international pre-degree college. Reinforcing the view that such realities are consistent with a transitory structure, the IO Director noted that he and other new IO staff had taken eighteen months to become familiar with managing within the university's highly centralised institutional structure.

In sum, the Samuels structure is highly centralised and thus appears conducive to a rapid transition in strategies.   The rapid growth in international activity since the restructuring of the International Office and associated changes attests to this structural adaptability. An acceptance of

the centralised structure at Faculty and Departmental levels provided fertile ground for the initiation of such change and its subsequent acceptance.

5.4.5 Systems

In general terms, the university's systems are viewed as lagging significantly behind the needs of international students and international program coordination.

In terms of IT/administrative systems, while some interviewees saw IT systems as generally effective, almost all viewed student administration systems as very poor. To one senior institutional manager, this problem is a function of the public service nature of Samuel's systems and their inability to evolve since establishment in the early 1970s. This is viewed as a problem common to many institutions,

> *So its very difficult I think to run what amounts to be a business through a set of accounts that are not designed for that activity, and through student systems that aren't designed for that activity. Samuels is probably in no worse a situation that many universities, but it's had a student system that was installed in about 1974 or something, cobbling along and updated…*
>
> *(Senior Institutional Manager)*

A high degree of frustration was also expressed by academics who noted that the numbers of international students seeking assistance with program choice, class administration and pedagogical concerns had increased markedly in recent years. Appropriate systems were required to manage this workload in a standardised and streamlined manner,

> *Two years ago, I might have had to see 20, 30, 40 students for program changes. And in a period of one or two weeks, that's manageable, whereas in the last year or so, I might have to deal with 300 or 400 of*

those students, and next year it might be 500 or 600.   *(Academic)*

Both administrative and pedagogical concerns were cited by academics. One noted that the additional payments to Departments from domestic full fee-paying students over the levels of payment received for international students added emphasis to these concerns. Further, this difference was perceived to be creating an environment in which some academics expressed a preference for domestic fee-payers over international students given the additional demands imposed by the latter.

Discussions of reward systems yielded mixed responses.   Some senior institutional and academic managers identified an evolving funding formula improving rewards for the Faculty and its Departments. The effects of such changes were yet to be seen among academics, who further identified as problematic the nature of individual rewards for international involvement. Direct financial rewards were reasonable, yet had to be compared to the opportunity costs confronting academics from accounting and finance who could earn substantial additional income outside the university if desired. On the other hand, there was some recognition that a salary supplementation scheme existing in the Faculty was substantially dependent on the continued development of international activities.   Several academic managers and academics also identified the problem international activities not being explicitly linked to promotional criteria,

I wouldn't advise any young member of staff at a major university or at a major metropolitan university to get too involved early, because they will find their research career is hampered and that still is what counts significantly.   *(Academic)*

Communication systems were seen to be evolving, particularly between Departments and the IO, however this too was seen as an area for further formalisation and improvement, especially among academic program

coordinators and managers. One academic manager noted that the IO periodically forwarded statistics about student application numbers and the like, but this information was not easily accessed on an 'as need' basis. Another spoke of the absence of key performance indicators identifying performance problems within and between academic units. There is hope for improvement, however. The IO is implementing an internal process equivalent to that required for ISO quality accreditation as well as a series of international student perceptions and performance studies so that appropriate improvement processes can be undertaken. In addition, the university is benchmarking its international student management costs against those of other universities within the state.

In sum, although participants perceived that the Vice-Chancellor, International Office and others were committed to improvements in systems, frustration was expressed often with the slow speed and nature of systemic improvements. One outcome of this frustration was that some units and the IO have developed their own administrative systems to meet student needs. This position is well summarised by one academic manager whose view, once again, reflects the relatively short time period elapsing since the university moved to build its international operations,

I think there's a willingness to develop those systems or work on the systems that are currently in place to make them more user friendly to our international objectives, or to make them compatible with what we're trying to do. Of course it doesn't happen as fast as we would like…but you know we've only been at it a year and there seems to be a cooperative spirit there anyway. (Academic Manager)

5.4.6 Culture

The organisational culture within Samuels was generally viewed as

supportive of international entrepreneurial activities.

Among academics, a shift was perceived from a risk-averse to a risk-taking and more business-oriented culture. This movement was viewed in positive terms, although one academic expressed a hope that further shifts would not be forthcoming in the short to medium term. At this level, there was also an acceptance that much international entrepeneurial activity was motivated by financial imperatives,

I think there's a much more embracing culture for those sort of business type activities. And I say they're business type activities because I think primarily we're doing it for the money rather than anything else, for any scholarly ambition or objectives. *(Academic)*

A high degree of pragmatism was also evident in the responses of academic managers. There is an acceptance that international entrepreneurialism both reflects the nature of the business discipline and provides the income necessary for salary supplementation schemes. This strongly entrepreneurial departmental culture is being strengthened by the proactive approaches of the Vice-Chancellor and International Office,

I don't think there are any stresses in terms of culture clashes. Certainly all the people in my department are quite comfortable with the idea that we teach what we hope is a good quality academic program and we also appreciate that we increasingly have to generate revenues to support our research and other activities. As a result, we're quite comfortable with international and domestic programs that bring in dollars to the university and ultimately to the department. *(Academic Manager)*

I think it is, and part of that is just the practicality of working in an Australian university these days. There are not too many strong revenue centres, and international can be one of them, so I think that many of the

academics see it that way and so, yeah, they want to be involved, and the culture is developing, I think. 					*(Academic Manager)*

Senior institutional managers also perceived the presence of an increasingly supportive culture for international entrepeneurialism. After a later start to such activities than comparable universities, the great majority of Samuels staff are viewed as accepting of the need for internationalisation and associated entrepreneurial activities.

In sum, although pockets of resistance remain, Samuels is perceived to have transformed its culture from one of active opposition to significant engagement in international entrepreneurial activities to one which is markedly more positive and supportive of such engagement. This occurred primarily through the patience of an internationally-oriented Vice-Chancellor prepared to bide time until the opportunity arose for international expansion, the appointment of a professional International Office Director, and through the development of an awareness among staff that international activities could bring substantial benefits to the institution, as was occurring in relation to several notable programs. This transformation also reflects the development of broad support among the university community to a range of activities slightly removed from the university's traditional and strongly supported student exchange activities.

5.4.7 Impacts

Impacts on Core Values

Three significant impacts on core values were identified by academics. One was the additional workload associated with administering international students and acting as a 'screening' mechanism for international students who arguably should not have been initially admitted to Samuels by the International Office,

The income is earned somewhere else, and they want to boost that income as much as possible. The costs of not getting the most appropriate students are not felt by those people but they're felt by us when the students arrive in Australia at the Departmental level. *(Academic)*

I think a lot of the academics feel that the International Office is too lenient in a lot of ways in the criteria it applies. *(Academic)*

The latter academic also noted, however, that international students generally performed comparably with local students after their initial year of undergraduate studies, and that the problem is also a function of a general 'dumbing down' of university education in Australia. This perception of lower academic quality is strongly contested by senior institutional managers.

A second and related impact arises from the intensification of pedagogical demands associated with the teaching of international students and subsequently more diverse class groupings,

The diverse mix of students we have in the university now means it's a little bit harder to do effective teaching. You've got to be aware of a very heterogeneous group of students in your class...That changes the way you teach a little bit, and in some ways restricts the amount of, transfer of knowledge. But it's still a core value that quality teaching is part of a university ethic, along with research. I just think the entrepreneurial activities have kind of made it more difficult to stick to those values. *(Academic)*

Third, in relation to research, two of three academics interviewed expressed the concern that time available for research was compromised by involvement in international entrepreneurial activities, and that promotion criteria did not encourage international involvement,

Inevitably you've only got so many hours in the day and if you're thinking about where the next dollars are going to come from, that means necessarily that you can't spend time doing research. But inevitably it's research that enables staff to get promotions.   *(Academic)*

Once again, this perception was strongly contested by senior institutional managers who cited instances of academics achieving promotion on the basis of international involvements.

Academic managers noted that tensions had lessened progressively since the days of active opposition to international entrepreneurialism, while one senior institutional manager stated that some international programs created more tensions than others. In particular, it was noted by the FoB Dean that some overseas activities operating on tight budgets faced pressures to compromise quality in attempts to operate within budget constraints. This is perceived as a critical issue for an institution which consistently seeks to maintain a high-quality ethos and image. Another senior institutional manager argued that international entrepreneurialism could assist in the evolution of the university to a more contemporary and healthier interpretation of its core values. This could occur via a new focus on achieving levels of efficiency and effectiveness characteristic of organisations in other sectors. It would thus assist to bring an end to perceptions of universities as 'sheltered workshops'.

In sum, while perceptions of impacts on core values differ between participant levels, consistent views were expressed by academics in their identification of potentially detrimental impacts of international involvement on research, teaching, and administration activities.

Impacts of Faculty of Business Dominance

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Although the Faculty of Business does dominate international entrepreneurialism at Samuels, this is seen to give rise to an inevitable but acceptable degree of tension within the institution. While some academic units, such as the Graduate School of Business, are the target for a higher degree of resentment or jealousy than others, three reasons exist for the relatively low level of tension engendered by FoB dominance in this sphere. First, a number of other Faculties operate successful international niche programs in areas such as Australian studies and linguistics. In particular, a high proportion of student exchange students undertake subjects such as Australian history and Aboriginal studies during their exchange program. This makes some other Faculties less resentful about the FoB than may otherwise have been the case. Second, the institutional funding model provides significant funds to other academic units and central support services. With the revenue 'pie' growing, this allocation is progressively increasing. Efforts are being made by senior institutional managers to educate other units to this reality and to encourage their support for its future growth,

That amount is being increased over the next year as a way of telling people "look, okay you don't have any international students but it is now a significant part of your budget and you need to support the activity".

(Senior Institutional Manager)

Third, the International Office is working proactively with other Faculties to develop their international programs. Although problems do exist in some Faculties where 'miracles' are expected, the growth of several niche programs and development of new markets attests to the effectiveness of this work. A positive consequence has been a lessening of tensions among other academic units and their conversion to a more proactive approach to developing international programs.

5.4.8 Organisational Learning and Leadership

A limited amount of organisational learning occurs informally within the university. Examples of such learning within the FoB include the appointment of a lecturer as International Student Coordinator within the Faculty of Business. Learning also occurs when less-international Departments observe the experiences of successful units such as the Department of Finance. Many participants, however, call for the formalisation of institutional learning processes and the development of linkages for learning between the FoB and International Office. These problems were emphasised by several academics and academic managers,

...a lot of the people in the Faculty don't have a lot of contact with the International Office and vice versa. There are a few people who do, but only designated people. I don't think that a lot of things that we are understanding and learning are being passed on, other than informally through these people that have contact. (Academic)

That's probably something we should do. We tend to learn from our own experiences. We might watch others, research what others do, but we don't talk that much, although again I'm talking from my own personal experiences, but I think that they're fairly representative, because I'm not aware that it goes on in other parts of the university. So no, there's not a lot of sharing of our experiences and joint learning. (Academic)

Senior institutional managers such as the International Office Director concur in such views. According to the IO Director, the centralised nature of Samuels University makes learning somewhat easier than it is for decentralised institutions, and learning in some areas is improving. Nonetheless, deficiencies remain. Formalising learning through the creation of an institutional offshore programs committee is one option, however there

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is also a recognition that creating such structures brings costs. Thus, there is a degree of uncertainty about the degree to which learning should be formalised in this way, since 'sometimes it is better to do it informally'.

The presence of strong and proactive leadership of international activities by the Vice-Chancellor was consistently identified by participants as a major influence over the direction of such activities at Samuels University. This leadership was viewed as a major contributor to the rapid recent growth of the university's international program. Another key leadership dimension often identified was that being exercised by the Director of the International Office in adding a 'strategic' dimension to many aspects of the international program.

5.4.9 Case Summary

A summary of the case findings is presented in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3 Analytical Summary of Case Findings for Samuels University

	Senior Institutional Managers (3)	Academic Managers (4)	Academics (3)
Mission-Strategies	• Growth strategy via focus on strategic alliances, development of professional International Office and increased involvement of Faculties and Departments	• raised international profile with growth of IO and role of IO Director under VC's oversight • offshore growth occurring	• historically, mostly onshore with some niche programs offshore • strategies are evolving and expanding now
Rationales	• programs must be academically and financially justifiable and consistent with institutional strategy • within those parameters, an openness to new opportunities remains	• rationales vary – mostly market driven • some units eg. GSB use criteria and international expertise • many activities derive from individual staff initiatives	• cautiousness and inexperience underlie most historical strategic choice

	Senior Institutional Managers (3)	Academic Managers (4)	Academics (3)
Structures	• centralised structure promotes ease of direction and coordination • Int.Office has a critical role in evaluation and management of international strategies	• Evolving and improving • IO performing valuable facilitation role	• Mixed – while structures are indeed improving, what has been missed until now with the institution's historically clumsy structure?
Systems	• Systems for entrepreneurialism lag program development • IT systems okay; student admin system poor • Rewards – evolving for Faculties; poor for individuals • VC supportive of systemic improvement	• Systems evolving eg. funding model • Nature of systems is that they lag entrepreneurialism • Rewards problematic – eg. for promotion	• IT/admin systems require improvement • Rewards – mixed responses – insufficient for departments to date; high opportunity costs for academics • communications – need for formalised structures
Culture	• growing culture to support international entrepreneurialism – after late start • most people in institution accept need for international activities	• Departments have a pragmatic approach accepting of the need 'to do this', since rewards depend on the revenues arising	• Transition identified from entrepreneurial risk-taking culture from historically risk-averse approach
Impacts – On Core Values	• Values change for better as university becomes more business-oriented	• progressive lessening of tension since historical anti-international era	• significant perceived impacts on research (less time for), teaching (more difficult) and administrative loads (higher)
Impacts – Of Faculty of Business Dominance	• some impacts, however evolving funding model supports other units • some strong non Faculty of Business niche programs	• some perceived envy from non-entrepreneurial departments, however not a significant issue	• some tension exists, however this is the nature of entrepreneurialism in Australian universities
Org. Learning and Leadership	• Learning – occurs informally. A current issue is whether to formalise learning. • Leadership – VC an international leader. IO Director performing a critical leadership role.	• Learning – informal; constrained by political factors which remain to some degree. • Leadership roles of VC and IO Director viewed positively	• Some informal learning occurs. Learning needs to be improved via formalisation • Leadership of VC and IO Director viewed as significant and perceived positively.

5.5   CASE 4 – PARKES UNIVERSITY

5.5.1 Case Description

Parkes University is a regional institution located near Australia's eastern coastline. Established from the amalgamation of a former Teachers' College and College of Advanced Education, Parkes has retained a strong vocational flavour in its course offerings. The Parkes student population in 1998 numbered around 9,000, equating to 6,000 EFTSU. Students study in one of Parkes's fourteen Departments or two Graduate Schools. The most popular destination is the Department of Employee Relations (17% of total students), followed by Departments of Law (11.2%), Commerce (10.5%), the Graduate Department of Management (9.5%), Tourism (8%), Resources (6.5%), Arts and Asian Studies (5.7%), Education (5.7%), Contemporary Arts (5.6%), Multimedia (5.2%), Nursing (5%), Sports Science (3%), Business (2.2%), Natural Medicine (1.9%), Human Services (1.6%) and the Graduate Department of Australian Studies (1.4%).

Business programs can be undertaken in several Departments, including Employee Relations, Commerce, Business, Tourism and the Graduate Department of Management (GDM). A categorisation of like courses reveals that one third (33%) of all graduating students in 1998 completed business qualifications while arts (22%), science (15%), education (14%), health (10%) and law (6%) graduates numbered relatively fewer graduates.

The presence of similar Departments in the business area reflects the university's historical and geographic context. Some Departments are self-contained within one of the institution's four campuses, which comprise one central campus and three smaller "satellite" campuses, while other Departments have evolved from the outcomes of intra-institutional political machinations.

Full-time on-campus students accounted in 1998 for 45 percent of the Parkes student population, while part-time on-campus students represented 6 percent of the student population. In addition, the university maintains a strong external studies program which accounts for around 49 percent of student numbers. There is thus a relatively even split between on-campus and off-campus student numbers.

The overwhelming majority of Parkes students undertake undergraduate studies. The relatively small postgraduate program, accounting for just 413 EFTSU or 7 percent of students in 1998 consisted of students completing Graduate Certificates and Diplomas via coursework (44%), coursework Masters degrees (43%) and research programs (12%).

Although only representing around 5.5 percent of the total student population, international student numbers have risen significantly in recent years. From a base of just 76 international students in 1995, numbers increased to around 500 during 1999. After a doubling of international student numbers each year from 1994 to 1997, growth rates have stabilised at between 15 and 17 percent since 1997. Of the current international student population, approximately 60 percent are undertaking studies on-campus in Australia while the remainder are enrolled in offshore programs. International students are heavily concentrated in business programs, with the majority of international students enrolled in business, commerce and management programs. Around 18 percent of international students originate from Singapore, 15 percent are Malaysians, while Papua New Guinea, China, Indonesia, Thailand, Hong Kong, the United States, and Germany each account for between 5 and 8 percent of Parkes's international student population.

The major Parkes University campus appears less "international" than capital city-based universities. This is a reflection both of the relatively low number of on-campus international students and the overwhelmingly Anglo-Saxon

nature of domestic students. Small groups of international students are visible in various locations such as the MBA study area and the International Office (IO). The IO contains reading and discussion areas as well as tea and coffee-making facilities. International students come in during the course of the day to check mail, read international newspapers, borrow reference material, or simply relax and chat with fellow students and IO staff. Informal discussions between the researcher and international students revealed a relaxed and friendly study environment supported by a competent and helpful International Office.

In sum, Parkes as a relatively new regional university is building a small but significant international program. As will be discussed below, the university's international program is characterised by a degree of flexibility which reflects its strengths and weaknesses as a small, regional institution.

5.5.2 Strategies

In general, the international entrepreneurial strategies of Parkes University could be described as "bounded opportunism" and is very much a reflection of the institution's history, context and constraints.

The university's Vice-Chancellor arrived at Parkes in 1994 with an extensive background in international education. An International Office (IO) was established and an experienced IO Director appointed. The relatively late start for the university in international entrepreneurialism and the university's historical context led to the development of a differentiation strategy which sought to leverage the university's existing competencies. This strategy consisted of four elements. First, the strategy was an extension of the institution's focussed and niche philosophy which had long been oriented towards the needs of the university's surrounding region, and support for niche programs reflecting areas of particular expertise within the university. Programs in areas such as naturopathy and contemporary music are instances

of this approach. For international strategy, this meant leveraging the inherent attractiveness of the university's campuses and coastal location, particularly in markets such as the study abroad market. Parkes maintains strong study abroad niche programs for students from the United States and Europe, thus the strategy has been successful to some degree. In addition, many of the international students undertaking business programs do so in niche courses such as a successful operations management program in Singapore and doctoral business programs (DBA) operated in several offshore locations.   Given the institution's relatively small size and its strength in niche areas, this focussed approach is expected to continue into the foreseeable future,

> *It will be challenging I think to do more than be a small, boutique provider of specialist niche courses in particular markets.   (Academic Manager)*

The second element of the Vice-Chancellor's approach was a deliberate strategy to leverage the institution's existing distance education (DE) strengths into international markets. This approach has been relatively successful and has assisted the institution, according to one senior institutional manager, to weather the Asian financial crisis which dampened international student demand at many regional universities. As an innovator in DE provision, Parkes was able to pursue first mover advantages in establishing some DE programs such as its popular MBA degree. The university's expertise is also being leveraged into the progressive development of on-line units and programs.

The effective matching of programs to countries formed the third strategic element of the university's international entrepreneurial strategy.   The favoured mode for this approach was and continues to be a focus on partnerships with overseas institutions. Parkes has long had a highly successful program of partnerships in Australia with corporations and public sector departments and authorities, and this focus extended to the

international operation with the development of several key partnerships. In addition to the successful operations management program conducted with a professional association partner in Singapore, there are partnerships with corporations in Papua New Guinea and Fiji and a further successful partnership in Malaysia. A further dimension of this approach has involved targeting regional markets with the aim of attracting students familiar with and comfortable in regional settings. This approach is emphasised in the university's International Student Prospectus,

The University has adopted a strategic approach to establishing collaborative agreements with overseas institutions. Partners have been chosen for their academic expertise in areas that complement and build on the University's own strengths…The University has an excellent reputation for its external study materials and for its partnerships with industry. It has put its capabilities in these areas to great effect and now offers a number of programs in overseas countries in partnership with local institutions or organisations. Such partnerships exist in China, Fiji, Hong Kong, India, Indonesia, Malaysia, New Zealand, Papua New Guinea, Singapore, South Africa and Uganda. There has been rapid growth in these offshore programs and they continue to be important in the long term strategic planning of the University.

A fourth strategic element has been the development of new markets. This has involved experimenting with different modes and locations in an effort to expand the university's international program and utilise effectively its limited marketing and promotional budgets. The development of new programs or alliances in locations such as China, Taiwan, Korea and some parts of Europe is being pursued in an effort to diversify recruitment sources and deliver growth to the university. In addition, the network of agencies recruiting for the university has been expanded and strengthened. A related strategy has been the establishment of a new satellite campus some 100 kilometres from the university's main campus in an effort to attract

international students from other markets to a more cosmopolitan capital-city campus where part-time employment opportunities will be more numerous.

In terms of the overall strategy, then, while modifications have occurred over time, these core elements of the strategy remain and have proven to be fairly effective,

> *So that was the vision which has been slightly, and rather interestingly, kind of modified and some things didn't work and some things did. Certainly when the Asian crisis struck I was glad that I didn't have to say "well, I wish we had been able to foresee this", because what we have done, it turned out to be what everyone is now doing, as far as I can tell, is going offshore, they're trying to diversify their sources of country and so forth. So, not a highly original plan, but a plan which fitted our broader aims, which is niche and focussed and partnership.*
>
> *(Vice-Chancellor – Senior Institutional Manager)*

It was also a plan which, to a significant degree, fits the institutional vision,

> *Through excellence in scholarship and research, commits itself to partnership, regionalism, globalism, cultural diversity, and a learning society.*

The Parkes international strategy seeks to build on its achievements to date with an ambitious strategy of both onshore and offshore expansion over the short to medium term. A doubling of onshore international student numbers and tripling of offshore numbers is being targeted for achievement by 2004.

Although perceptions of the clarity or otherwise of the Parkes international strategy differed among interviewees, there was widespread recognition of some aspects of the strategy. These include the focus on partnerships and leveraging of DE capabilities. The following comment from one academic is

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typical of responses to the question of strategies and mission,

The overseas market has fallen in our lap, I guess, to some extent, and we've had the resources to serve that market through our venture into distance education and also through the creation of an International Office here. I think Parkes University has been a latter day saint, in that we've been behind the times in establishing a large international office, and there are a whole stack of questions you might be able to pursue with other people about Parkes's image or lack of image in international markets. "Who are they?" is the most common question. But providing distance education materials at the postgraduate level and good quality MBA materials has proved to be a winner. (Academic)

This leveraging of DE materials is clearly one rationale for choice of strategy, however there are other specific and general rationales for institutional choice in the international entrepreneurial domain.

5.5.3 Rationales for Strategies and Modes

In terms of rationales, responses across the range of interviewees were spiced with terms such as 'ad hoc', 'reactive' and 'opportunistic'. This was not necessarily viewed as a negative state, however, and deliberate decisions can still be identified within this broadly opportunistic approach.

Among academics, international strategies were viewed as reactions to reduced government funding for the university. Successful outcomes were also seen to result more from good luck than good management. Nonetheless, two of the three academics interviewed identified the extension of DE capabilities into international markets as a fortuitous and successful strategy, while the other spoke of the development of the institution's new campus as being explicitly driven by international market needs.

Academic managers viewed international strategies in similar terms. On one hand, comments such as the following were typical,

> *Anyone who promises us a million dollars is in. They've got us hooked!*
> *(laughs)* *(Academic Manager)*

A less rhetorical comment from one Head of Department places financial pressures clearly in context as a major driving force of international entrepreneurial activities at a regional institution such as Samuels,

> *I think the Dawkins universities are under such extreme resource pressure*
> *that the ability to develop some of these sort of fee-paying activities is the*
> *difference between the slow demise of an institution and survival and*
> *growth.* *(Academic Manager)*

On the other hand, a deliberate strategy of concentrating on particular country markets rather than others has been pursued, as have strategies of leveraging DE, seeking to partner professional associations rather than private providers, and expanding international corporate partnerships. The institution actively seeks to experiment through strategies such as the onshore licensing of its programs to non-traditional providers in other Australian states and by the movement into on-line delivery modes. Such strategies, while often seen in a serendipitous light by participants, nonetheless represent an emergent international positioning of the institution which appears to complement its history, context and mission.

Potential opportunities may arrive from anywhere within or outside the institution, and approaches from other providers are often made because of Parkes's reputation for external delivery and flexible approach to partnerships. Proposals are generally developed by Departments before being considered by members of the student administration and finance divisions of the organisation. The university executive next considers the

proposals, and aims to rapidly come to a decision about proceeding. The International Office is currently developing a formal list of criteria and process for proposal consideration with the hope that this will be implemented during 2000.

One key consideration for new proposals involves the need for programs to make a surplus from the time of their commencement. This requirement was explicitly mentioned by several academic managers and senior institutional managers including the Vice-Chancellor and Deputy Vice-Chancellor,

> *There should be a surplus generated back to the university in any of our entrepreneurial activities, and that includes the international program. I don't like discounting. I don't like loss leaders. Loss leading I don't believe. It's a nonsense. It's a delusion…When we offer courses in partnership with other institutions in, you know, offshore, its really cut-throat, and we can do good deals but I always ask for the figures to show a very clear surplus. My saying is very simplistic, "any idiot can lose money but a smart university will actually enhance its resourcing". Now that's got me into trouble because its imposed quite a lot of pressure on the staff going out and trying to recruit students, because there are other universities who seem to go for volume no matter what.*
>
> *(Vice-Chancellor – Senior Institutional Manager)*

Whether deliberate or emergent, the university's international strategy appears to complement its strengths and recognise its constraints. Such recognition extends to an acceptance by research participants that current international activities, while relatively limited, are key components of the institution's work and critical for institutional expansion. In building on three years of active international involvement, the current period is viewed as a time of review, reflection and transition toward a more formal and thoughtful approach through, for example, the introduction of new proposal assessment procedures and an expansion in the role of the International

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Office.

5.5.4 Structures

During the mid-1990s, Parkes moved from a Faculty-based structure to one in which the major academic units would be Departments reporting to Pro Vice-Chancellors (PVCs) who have cost centre responsibility for a cluster of Departments. The Graduate Department of Business reports directly to the university's Deputy Vice-Chancellor. Both PVCs have some international responsibilities, however there is no designated PVC (International) within the structure. The International Office reports directly to the Vice-Chancellor. The Parkes structure is therefore one which is decentralised to a significant degree with program management and quality assurance responsibilities devolved to Departments. Departments are led by Heads and contain the range of typical departmental committees responsible for academic delivery. Responsibility for specific international activities within Departments falls to academics serving as Program Managers who retain a coordination and monitoring brief for particular international programs.

The role of the International Office differs depending on the wishes of Departments in terms of how they access its expertise and resources. Although its primary role continues to be the pastoral care of international students, it has expanded in recent years with the appointment of an International Marketing Manager and assumption of a wider role within the institution. This role may extend to the design, negotiation, management and review of international activities. The office has produced a draft strategic plan and institutional policy for the development of new programs. Academic managers within the International Office question the office's existing role within the university, arguing that a decision should be made as to whether the role remains primarily supportive of Departments who may or may not use its expertise or whether it takes on more of a proactive business management role with wider responsibilities for international activities

Academic managers within the Department of Commerce and Graduate Department of Business also see the need for a decision about this issue as well as issues surrounding the general structuring of international activities within Departments. Currently, an informal institution-wide committee retains responsibility for the university's partnerships with businesses and educational institutions, however this role is hampered by an uncoordinated approach to international entrepreneurialism between departments and by the presence of a high level of inter-Departmental competition for both domestic and international undergraduate students. Further, the existence of this committee appeared to be unknown to most participants and did not appear to meet regularly.

The potential for restructuring is thus perceived to exist in several areas, including the role of the International Office and in the potential development of institutional coordination structures for international activities. An opportunity to restructure is perceived to be arising with the impending retirement of the current Vice-Chancellor and appointment of a new Vice-Chancellor with considerable international entrepreneurial expertise in an established Australian university. Academic managers are generally supportive of the notion of moving to a more centralised approach for the management of international activities, and see the appointment of a dedicated PVC (International) as one solution to current structural problems.

The positives of a Department-based structure over traditional Faculty structures are viewed as outweighing the negatives by senior institutional managers. While the structure brings with it the potential for duplication and unhealthy inter-departmental competition, there is perceived to be considerable flexibility, potential for innovation and rapid response in a small department-based structure,

It's the difference between a huge aircraft carrier and a series of much faster moving motor boats. You know, the aircraft carrier has all sorts of

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stuff all over, it weighs a lot, its terribly slow to move around and, you know, it has huge bureaucracy attached to it, whereas if you have a series of fast moving smaller motor boats, you know if an opportunity arises they can move much more quickly, they can find many more opportunities. I think to a certain extent it has proved correct. The danger, and as always you've got to have a balance, the danger is that you can have uncoordinated activities and you can have competitive activities amongst them.   *(Senior Institutional Manager)*

The Vice-Chancellor concurs in this view, stating that the structure has enabled the targeting of programs with countries, a key dimension of the university's international strategy. The major disadvantage of the structure has been in its inability to pursue the kinds of aggregations of resources common to large Faculties offering coordinated, generic programs in a unified manner. Nonetheless, the structure is viewed as having worked reasonably well. To another Senior Institutional Manager, these shortfalls do create a need for the establishment of an oversight role at central level. The establishment of a business office with a monitoring brief within the International Office is seen as one possible solution to this problem, without destroying the nature and advantages of the university's decentralised model.

The perception of academics is that institutional structures for managing international activities are inappropriate for managing this rapidly evolving and critical institutional activity. Historically, much of the responsibility for international activity management has been devolved to the Departments, and it is only in recent years that the International Office has begun to assume some of these responsibilities, such as responsibility for international student recruitment. Some aspects of international activity management remain largely the province of Departments. The development of new programs is one such activity where responsibility has been decentralised but authority centralised. This situation was viewed by one academic as bordering on the ridiculous,

You have people setting the whole thing up and then they've got to have all the stress of trying to get somebody else who's not been involved to agree to it. And of course they then start wanting to raise all sorts of issues and questions which may or may not have any relevance. It's ridiculous so it goes round and round in circles until eventually it gets signed off anyway. It's absurd. *(Academic)*

Structures are viewed as having developed in an ad hoc manner unsuitable and inappropriate for the ongoing expansion of the international program. Formalisation and a clear delineation of responsibilities is seen to be required,

I don't think we have proper, and others may challenge this, international structures in place to handle the business opportunities that arise…we'll need to formalise and get more structures in place, otherwise we'll fall in a heap. *(Academic)*

Thus, while the ad hoc and decentralised approach is viewed as having some advantages and is seen as part of the natural evolution of international activity organisation, problems arising from the current structure draw attention to its deficiencies. A typical problem which has arisen has been a duplication of Departmental international marketing activities in several locations, much to the embarrassment of Parkes staff. Programs have been sold in competition with each other to the same clients, and Departments have participated in international education exhibitions without communicating this to other Departments beforehand. Similar programs from different Departments have thus been sold in competition with each other in the same location at the same time. It appears that academics are particularly concerned about the problems arising from the decentralised structure since they are the operational staff who deliver the programs and wrestle most closely with the administrative and operational problems arising from this relatively uncoordinated approach.

Although both of the university's Pro Vice-Chancellors (PVC) have some international responsibilities and expertise, academics argue that the explicit designation of one of the PVCs as formally responsible for international activities or the establishment of a dedicated PVC (International) position would go some way to eliminating such problems of organisational uncoordination.

In sum, academic managers and academics in particular view the current structure as unable to meet the demands of international entrepreneurialism. Although the existing highly decentralised structure has merit, and the role of academics serving as Program Managers is viewed positively, a greater degree of inter-Departmental coordination is perceived to be required. This may be achieved by the creation of a dedicated Pro Vice-Chancellor (International) position and by a clarification or elaboration of the role of the International Office. While the current structure has worked relatively well to date, the intended expansion of international activities demands the evolution of a structure for the more effective management of such activities both within and between Departments. The impending retirement of the current Vice-Chancellor may provide the impetus for such structural modification.

5.5.5 Systems

Although relatively strong in some areas, the university's systems are generally viewed as providing poor support for international entrepreneurial activities. They are not seen to be developing at a sufficient pace as international activity development occurs. Although accepting of the notion that universities and businesses differ, one academic summarised this state as follows,

I used to be managing director of a business before I became an academic…I wouldn't run my business this way…I don't think any of the

systems that one would want to have are around now.　　　*(Academic)*

This is particularly the case with administrative/IT systems. Domestic and international demands on these systems have included the introduction of trimesters in addition to traditional semester programs and the administration of programs in conjunction with offshore partners. Although the development of a new system is imminent, administrative and IT systems have barely kept up with initiatives thus far. This issue may become critical as the university moves to more rapidly expand its international activity portfolio. Systems which have been designed to meet regulatory requirements have experienced great difficulty in meeting program demands,

> *I don't think we've had proper systems. Student administration is in absolute bedlam down there trying to administer student enrolments in markets that run trimester, mid-trimester, cross-trimesters, coming to terms to try to fit students into some student system that works. All the systems have lagged behind the market imperative. We've got there, but it hasn't been thought through before we started.*　　　*(Academic)*

> *There are systems that were developed and designed around DEETYA requirements rather than around having a well-oiled machine to deliver programs in partnership activities.*　　　*(Academic Manager)*

Exceptions exist, however, such as in the Graduate Department of Business where a number of administrative and reward systems have been introduced to meet market demands. In the wider university, the lack of inter-Departmental coordination and diversity of programs offered and partnerships maintained is perceived to make the wider development of new systems problematic. Nonetheless, senior institutional managers express hope that systems will improve in the short-term as a new institutional administrative system is introduced.

Reward systems are viewed both positively and negatively by academics and academic managers. The additional payments received for international activities are perceived to provide some compensation for the absence of market salary loadings, and some staff continue to enjoy the benefits of international travel, particularly with the possibility of staying additional days in offshore locations. Others lamented the costs to family life incurred with overseas travel. Academics attached to the Graduate Department of Management receive additional benefits in the form of laptop computers, mobile phones and the possibility of undertaking consultancies, however such rewards are confined to the relatively small number of academics affiliated with the Department. The absence of any direct link between participation in international activities and the university's promotion system was identified by several participants. The inability of the system to reward staff for international involvement was thus seen as potentially hampering commitment to these activities. Senior staff within the International Office have access to a performance bonus scheme, however this is viewed as 'meagre' by academic managers attached to the office.

The situation in relation to communication systems is a little less clear. While some participants identified intra-Departmental and institutional committees which discussed international issues and shared information, others holding similar positions failed to mention such committees, and appeared to be unaware of their existence. Communication systems thus seem hampered by a communications committee structure which reflects the university's devolved structure but which also possesses the weakness of this structure in terms of its somewhat ad hoc approach. Nonetheless, this weakness is moderated by the relatively small size of the institution, which makes communication easier than is potentially the case in larger, more bureaucratic universities.

No formalised system is in place for quality management. Responsibilities for quality are primarily devolved to the Departments which tend to manage

quality in traditional ways. The need for a more formal approach to quality management was identified by senior institutional managers who see the importance of quality rising rapidly as the university's international activity expands and as the international market becomes more competitive,

> *I think the issue of quality in these programs is paramount…And as it becomes more and more competitive it seems to me that, you know, we do need that, that quality assurance or those quality assurance processes. I don't see they exist at the moment.* (Senior Institutional Manager)

In sum, systems are viewed as generally unsupportive of international entrepreneurial activities. Although improvement to some systems may come with the introduction of a new institutional administrative system, this expectation must be balanced against the demands of new programs as the institution's ambitious international expansion strategy is implemented. New demands will arguably continue to develop so that institutional systems continue to lag behind the needs of new programs.

5.5.6 Culture

Academic managers perceive that a culture supportive of international entrepreneurial activities has evolved in recent years. Interest in such activities was initially difficult to generate, however a supportive cadre of senior institutional managers and positive attitudes from Heads of Department toward such activities assisted in the evolution of a more supportive culture. Several academic managers noted that the dynamics of the culture shift reflected the fact that a number of staff from the pre-university era found the transition to an entrepreneurial culture somewhat difficult. Nonetheless, the institution's focus on industry partnerships and the clear financial imperative behind the pursuit of additional revenues is perceived to have brought about a marked shift towards a more entrepreneurial culture. The rapid growth of this culture across the institution

has been assisted by the university's small size and vocational orientation.

Senior institutional managers concur in this view. The culture developed from a solid base with the university long recognised for innovation, industry partnerships and a focus on niche activities. The Vice-Chancellor's international strategy was, as noted above, consistent with these dimensions. Thus, the development of a supportive culture for international entrepreneurial activities complemented existing institutional strategies. While the general strategy has caused some institutional tensions, such tensions are perceived not to have arisen from the university's international strategy. In other words, international strategies have been generally accepted and supported by staff without significant tensions, possibly because such strategies have been an extension of the pre-existing institutional entrepreneurial focus rather than being perceived as being new and different.

To academics, in contrast, an historically strong entrepreneurial culture is perceived to be under threat because of the additional workloads and pressures which international activities bring, and because much of the revenue deriving from these activities is being redistributed to other ends. The recent construction of an on-campus Law Library financed primarily from international activities is resented by some academics, for instance.

The strongly entrepreneurial culture which has been in place within the university is seen to have derived from the vocational and professional orientation of the university and its historical focus on industry partnerships,

We are much more like Fred Smith's New Cars than we are a university and, you know, do you want a set of steak knives with our degree? (laughs)
(Academic)

Nonetheless, this culture is viewed as becoming 'tired' due to a range of

factors. One is the presence of an industrial relations system which has not evolved to support the demands of entrepreneurial activities on staff working arrangements. One Department within the business discipline has expressed ongoing concern over the inability of working conditions to adapt to these new demands. Another factor is, as noted above, the perception that insufficient returns from international activities are coming to Departments,

So if you talk to people around at the moment I would say a lot of people would say "what on earth are we doing all this for? It's not worthwhile. It's simply causing more problems. There's a lot more work to be done."...and it produces no benefits. (Academic)

A third factor is perceived to be a general malaise toward entrepreneurial activities given the intensity of pressure on institutions to continually expand such activities. These demands bring potential implications for quality,

My feeling is that in that sort of circumstance, not matter how well its organised, if you've got people who are doing it largely because there is no choice, it's not going to be as good as it could be otherwise.
(Academic)

Thus, while cultures do differ from one Department to another, the consensus view is that the institution's entrepreneurial culture is under threat. This may be a consequence of the inability of reward systems to effectively support the delivery of international entrepreneurial activities. It may also be a consequence of the lack of overall coordination of responsibilities for international activities as well as a reflection of the absence of appropriate policies and practices to guide the organisation and implementation of international activities.

In sum, senior institutional managers and academic managers view the university's culture as supportive of international programs and to rarely give

rise to the tensions which have arisen in other areas. While academics agree that the culture is indeed supportive, they also note that this state is under threat from a range of sources. In their view, the culture could regress if a range of stressors are not reduced in the immediate future.

5.5.7 Impacts

Impacts on Core Values

The issues of impacts on both quality and research dominated responses to the question of whether the university's core values are impacted on by an involvement in international entrepreneurial activities.

In terms of quality, although the potential for the compromise of quality standards was recognised by several academics and academic managers, respondents maintained that such a compromise was yet to occur in relation to international entrepreneurial activities. A strong ethos of maintaining quality in international programs appears to exist across the institution.

As for research, significant negative impacts for the growth of a research culture were seen to flow from international engagement. Academics in particular noted that the demands of international entrepreneurialism lessened the time and energy available for research,

> *...research has stopped, basically because what you end up doing in the time when you would otherwise have done research is to do teaching in a different program that's on a trimester basis instead of semester basis, or those sorts of things.* (Academic)

> *There's just no time for research when you're a program manager. It's as simple as that. I'm not doing research and I know that those who have been given staffing time to do research are not doing research because*

once you get into dollar driven students, you've got to be providing, which
we do well, a 24 hour, or as a project manager a 25 hour a day service.

(Academic)

According to one senior institutional manager, international activities bring benefits such as additional resources to the university which assist in the maintenance and reinforcement of core values,

Historians, philosophers, sociologists, you know, people out there aren't
willing necessarily to pay for their immediate services or the value of their
services, yet by generating income it means, for example, that we can
ensure those elements are embodied in our programs. So I think having
additional resources gives you greater freedom and autonomy to decide
what you want to do. *(Senior Institutional Manager)*

In sum, international entrepreneurialism is perceived to impact both positively and negatively on the institution's core values. Emphasised in this case were the detrimental impacts on research arising from additional international teaching and program management responsibilities.

Impacts of Dominance of Business Departments

While several participants expressed the view that tensions between Departments over international entrepreneurial issues were rare, a more common view was that such tensions did indeed arise. This was particularly seen to be the case in terms of tensions existing between the various business Departments and the Graduate Department of Management (GDM). Tensions arose from the greater concentration of entrepreneurial activities in the GDM and consequent rewards to both the GDM and its staff flowing from such activity. In addition, other Departments resent the competition for postgraduate students across a range of programs engendered by the existence of the GDM.

It was noted by the Vice-Chancellor that the tensions at Parkes appeared to be less than at other Faculty-structured institutions with which he had been associated. Possible reasons for this include the nature of the institutional structure at Parkes, where popular programs such as business degrees are delivered in various forms by a range of Departments rather than being concentrated in one Department or Faculty. Another reason may derive from the applied and entrepreneurial nature of the university. Departments across the range of discipline areas represented in the institution are encouraged to pursue entrepreneurial activities, international and otherwise, and this is relatively easier in a vocationally-oriented institution than would be the case in a traditional institution with greater disciplinary depth.

5.5.8 Organisational Learning and Leadership

Learning from experience is the dominant mode of organisational learning from the university's international engagement. This learning tends to occur informally. Given the small size of the university, experiences may be shared between Departments, however there is no formal mechanism by which this may occur. Several instances of learning from experience were identified. One was a relationship with a private provider in Singapore which failed when the provider filed for bankruptcy, leading to the tightening of contract provisions for international agreements. Another example came from the unsuccessful introduction of an MBA program in South Africa. In this case, the absence of a formal learning mechanism was notable, however, when another Department implemented a similarly unsuccessful strategy in the same location several years later. Nonetheless, positive learning outcomes from international activities have included the development of more stringent evaluation processes for new activities and the introduction of student surveys of international student graduates.

In sum, a degree of learning occurs, primarily in a relatively informal

manner. More extensive learning is inhibited, however, by the absence of formal inter-Departmental information sharing mechanisms and by the high degree of competitiveness which remains between Departments,

> *I think we did learn that we were falling over each other and that it was very important to have an open system where people were sharing their information, but of course you have to get past the intelligence sharing which people are a bit reluctant to do, because it's a cut-throat world out there, even within the university. I find that really difficult because I grieve about our lost collegiality sometimes, 'cause I think universities ought to have a lot of collegiality and there's less of it than there ought to be.* (Academic Manager)

Leadership responsibilities are relatively decentralised, primarily to Heads of Departments and Graduate Departments. Departmental leadership needs are seen to evolve over time. The previous Head of the Graduate Department of Management was an aggressive, entrepreneurial manager who has recently been succeeded by a more participative, detail-oriented Head in a move made by the university arguably reflecting the changing needs of the Department. Among senior institutional managers, the Vice-Chancellor's role appears to be particularly important for a university of this size, and it is significant that many of the remarks made about leadership centred on this position and the importance of its role in driving future international entrepreneurialism. In addition, a perceived need for the creation of a dedicated PVC (International) position was, as noted above, highlighted by a range of interviewees across all participant levels.

5.5.9 Case Summary

A summary of the case findings is presented in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4 Analytical Summary of Case Findings for Parkes University

	Senior Institutional Managers (3)	Academic Managers (5)	Academics (3)
Mission-Strategies	• focussed and niche • leverage DE • match programs to countries • develop new markets	• boutique provider of niche courses • ambitious growth targets • growth will largely come from offshore programs	• successful leveraging of DE competencies has been an effective strategy and is a major element of future strategies
Rationales	• need for surpluses • VC vision as above reflecting institutional strengths and weaknesses	• primarily a response to reduced government funding	• a response to reduced government funding • limited resources drive to need to leverage existing competencies in Distance Education (DE) delivery
Structures	• flat, devolved structure brings flexibility and innovativeness	• questions over role of Int.Office (IO) – a supportive or proactive role in the future? • need for appointment of PVC with focussed international responsibilities	• structures are inappropriate – fragmented, duplication • greater centralisation of responsibilities through appointment of dedicated PVC advocated
Systems	• systems inadequate but new student admin. System may assist in solving this problem. • need for formal quality assurance system	• systems inadequate – designed for 'public service era' rather than the demands of an international business • some resentment of level of rewards to departments	• systems not supportive of international activities, particularly IT/admin systems • rewards – mixed responses. Academics linked to additional reward system in graduate business school more favourable
Culture	• strongly supportive culture exists	• a supportive culture for international entrepreneurialism has evolved	• entrepreneurial culture threatened by overload

	Senior Institutional Managers (3)	Academic Managers (5)	Academics (3)
Impacts – On Core Values	• core values are reinforced by the additional revenues obtained from international activities	• the quality ethos of academic managers' assists in strengthening core values	• ability to undertake research detrimentally affected by international involvement
Impacts – Of Business Dominance	• tensions exist but perceived to be less than in other universities	• tension between the Graduate Department of Management (GDM) and other Business Departments an issue of concern	• identify tension between departments and GDM since much of the international activity is concentrated in the GDM
Org. Learning and Leadership	• Learning – informal learning promoted by small institutional size. • Leadership – VC's leadership role particularly significant given institutional size and context.	• Learning – informal learning from experience occurs. • Learning is inhibited by inter-departmental rivalry • Devolved leadership to departmental heads makes their role significant in managing international entrepreneurialism	• Learning – occurs informally; based on experience. • Administrative leadership role of academics serving as international program managers is critical in operationalising international activities.

5.6   CASE 5 – WENTWORTH UNIVERSITY

5.6.1 Case Description

Wentworth University is a multi-campus university based in regional Australia. The university was established in 1990 from the amalgamation of a number of Colleges of Advanced Education (CAEs), and its orientation continues to reflect the strongly vocational focus of the former CAE sector institutions.

Around 22,000 students were enrolled in Wentworth's programs in 1998, equating to 13,194 EFTSU. Of these, 3,430 were enrolled in the Faculty of Arts (26%), 2,674 in the Faculty of Information Technology and Science (20%), 2,648 in the Faculty of Business (20%), 2,052 in the Faculty of Health (16%), 2,018 in the Faculty of Education (15%), and 372 (3%) enrolled in the university's relatively small Graduate Research School. Numbers in the Faculty of Arts are inflated by the inclusion of a management-oriented Department administering very popular programs undertaken by defence personnel.

Wentworth is highly focussed on the provision of courses via Distance Education (DE). The majority (54%) of Wentworth's student load in 1998 was accounted for by DE students. Traditional on-campus full-time students accounted for 34 percent of enrolments while part-timers represented a further 4 percent of enrolments. Another 8 percent were undertaking mixed-mode studies. The Faculty of Business (FoB) had an even greater emphasis on DE delivery, with 62 percent of its student load enrolled in DE programs. Full-timers comprised 23 percent of student load while smaller proportions were assumed by mixed-mode (9%) and on-campus part-time (6%) students. The vast majority (84%) of Wentworth's students were enrolled in undergraduate programs.

Reflecting the dominance of DE delivery, a tour of Wentworth's two major campuses revealed a spacious facility which seems populated more by academics and general staff than students. Few international students are to be seen and international student services are relatively limited. The university's 1998 Annual Report reports that onshore full fee-paying students numbered 966 in 1998. Many of these were local students and most were enrolled in DE programs. The Faculty of Business enrolled just 168 of these students and, in addition, enrolled a further 36 offshore full fee-paying students. As will be further discussed below, these numbers represent a drastic understatement of the university and FoB's real level of international fee-paying activities. Wentworth has in recent years dived deeply into international entrepreneurialism, and the extent and nature of this engagement raises a number of key management and organisational issues. These will also be discussed in the sections that follow.

5.6.2 Strategies

The university's core strategy is to continue to grow its international activities through the expansion of existing programs and by diversifying into new international activities. This strategy is clearly stated as one of the seven goals of the university,

> *Attracting students nationally and internationally because of the excellence of its courses, teaching, scholarship and support to students.*

The leveraging of Wentworth's Distance Education (DE) capabilities provides a common thread running through both current and intended international strategies.

In terms of existing programs, three major activities dominate. Of most significance is a relationship with a private education provider in Malaysia. As with many of its offshore activities, Wentworth provides the course

content, program badging, limited teaching input and quality oversight. Student accommodation, marketing, on-campus support, administrative and most teaching activities are the responsibility of the university's private partner. Currently, some 2,000 students are enrolled in business and IT courses in this program at both undergraduate and masters level. Wentworth receives a commission from its partner for each student enrolled in the program. While revenue per student is marginal, the university generates significant income from the program on the basis of the large numbers of students enrolled. Wentworth sees itself as the junior partner and provider in this program, and the potential for continued expansion of the program raises issues of control for some staff, also to be discussed in greater detail later in this study,

The tail's wagging the dog and the tail's going to outgrow the dog.

(Academic Manager)

A similar arrangement underlies Wentworth's involvement with another private provider delivering badged Wentworth business and IT degrees to approximately 400 students in an Australian capital city. This operation uses part-time lecturers employed by the provider with content and quality issues being the responsibility of Wentworth University. The operation recently appeared in the Australian higher education press in a critical article where students expressed concerns about the fact that they were not directly enrolled in Wentworth University despite paying university-level fees and despite believing that they were undertaking university programs. Concerns about access to library facilities and assessment responsibilities were also raised. Wentworth's partner in this program is a multinational media corporation which has diversified into education by purchasing existing private providers and linking them to major universities.

The third major international activity involves the provision of postgraduate business and IT programs in Hong Kong in partnership with the local

offshoots of its Malaysian partner. In this case, Wentworth assumes a higher degree of responsibility for program delivery than in its other programs. Over 800 students were enrolled in this program in 1998.

Several other international activities also associated with the Faculty of Business (FoB) may be identified. The Malaysian operation has a smaller equivalent in Thailand. It is expected that this may soon be taken over by the Malaysian partner. The university is also establishing a presence in China in partnership with an Australian import-export business and six Chinese universities. In addition, units are to be delivered by a private provider in South Africa and badged degree programs delivered by an Indian-based private provider in London.

Wentworth is pursuing a strategy of diversification via the use of a 'franchise model' which relies on the progressive reduction of teaching input from Wentworth and on the marketing and administrative competencies and capital of the university's private provider partners,

> *The plan is to make Wentworth internationally renowned as well as recognised because we don't have an easy selling name…So try to spread our wings over all continents and have a presence there. We are slowly starting to do that.*   *(Academic Manager)*

Moves to reduce Wentworth's teaching input are reflected in the increasing development of on-line programs and in the growth of partnerships such as that reflected in the "Malaysian model" where Wentworth provides a very limited range of services both to students and to its partner organisation.

Three significant aspects of Wentworth's strategy were consistently identified across the range of study participants. First, Wentworth's international expansion has primarily occurred through the exploitation or leveraging of its historically strong Distance Education (DE) capabilities.

Virtually every international entrepreneurial activity undertaken by the university relies on the provision of Wentworth's distance-based academic content. Newer strategies do not divert from this emphasis. Second, it is widely accepted that Wentworth's international approach has been ad hoc and opportunist, and this approach has arguably succeeded to some extent,

I don't think we've necessarily been strategic. We've been very opportunistic. And that's served us well both in our domestic activities and in our international activities. (Senior Institutional Manager)

I can see merit in it (the approach). I can see that in this competitive world, we've got to respond, we've got to move fast.
(Academic Manager)

As will be further discussed below, however, the approach has created a difficult environment for many staff. Some see this low-cost, high-volume approach as potentially detrimental for academic quality and the institution's reputation,

It's just go, go, go…It's alarming how fast from my point of view this seems to be operating, because we're still learning how to deliver it.
(Academic Manager)

One of my colleagues put it nicely. He calls it 'corrosive competition'. I mean, we compete for the dregs…We're just going for the quantity, not the quality. (Academic Manager)

This place has no strategy whatsoever regarding its international program…sometimes I feel like crying when I see what we do here with our strategies. (Academic Manager)

Decisions are made that we're going to jump into bed with organisation X

or university Y in country A or region B, and we're told about it after the
event. And then we have to come along and sweep up the crumbs, sweep
up the mess…   *(Academic)*

Strategy? What strategy? There is none that I can see.   *(Academic)*

Third, the direction and nature of Wentworth's international strategy is viewed as being dominated by the Vice-Chancellor (VC). For this reason, as will be further discussed in the following section, rationales for strategic selection reflect an extraordinary level of involvement from the VC.

In sum, Wentworth's international strategy is one which is both expansionist and which seeks to build on existing competencies in a range of offshore locations. It is a differentiation strategy to the extent that it positions the university as a low-cost, high-volume provider. It should be noted that government-provided figures substantially understate Wentworth's international activity. While DETYA (1998) statistics identify international student numbers as around 1,700, this figure had climbed to over 4,000 international students by 1999 with the rapid growth of offshore programs. As will be discussed later, such explosive growth has resulted in the development of significant organisational pressures and management difficulties which now face the university.

5.6.3 Rationales for Strategies and Modes

As noted above, Wentworth's Vice-Chancellor has been and continues to be a dominant figure in directing the university's international strategy. It is thus important to outline the nature of the VC's approach before looking at responses from other organisational levels.

Having led the university and one of its precursor institutions for many years, the VC sought early on to internationalise the institution in ways which

would potentially benefit both students and other stakeholders. The approach was a broad one, yet still cognisant of the need to build revenues from international activities,

I was concerned about the insularity of closed communities. I also was aware that the Asian students had a very strong emphasis on quality assurance and reliability of administrative delivery. And these were not qualities for which Australian institutions were well known. So I thought it would help drive the quality agenda. I thought it would enrich the attitudes and experience of our Australian students. And I thought it would do a lot to change attitudes among the staff and make the content of their courses a good deal more global. I was also conscious that money was becoming scarcer and scarcer and that if we could generate additional income, it would enable us to do a lot of things that we were not able to do because of the lack of Commonwealth funding. In particular, I wanted to improve the quality of our student residences…I wanted to beef up our library and enhance our computer network…And I wanted to experiment with different methods of course delivery, particularly moving into the on-line delivery. And the only prospect of significant additional funds for us would be through the overseas program…This university has had an advantage that's not unique, but we've had a very special advantage here in that because we were primarily a distance education university, most of our courses have been in DE format. And that has led us, I mean the big growth area in the full fee-paying area has been in distance education.   (Vice-Chancellor – Senior Institutional Manager)

The VC's approach is also one of opportunism bounded by experience and serendipity rather than one reliant upon detailed planning and analysis,

My approach is to let a thousand flowers bloom. I'm not really a planner. I don't accept the philosophy of detailed strategic planning and all that…We're dealing in an environment where we have very rapid changes

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in government policy. You have to be opportunistic. When an opportunity arises you seize it…When an opportunity presents itself and there's reasonable evidence to suggest it's going to be successful, then to try to move in and capitalise on that success, but also be prepared to drop something very quickly if it's not proving to be the success we had hoped…It's always been my philosophy to set our fees as low as we can to recover our costs and make a small profit. I'd rather have big volume, low profit than go for the top dollar…I suppose we could've pushed a bit harder and got somewhat higher fees, but the more you push your fees up, the more risky the enterprise becomes.

(Vice-Chancellor – Senior Institutional Manager)

The VC's significant role in driving the development of international entrepreneurialism is, as discussed above, perceived in both positive and negative ways by academics, academic managers and fellow senior institutional managers. Programs commonly emerge through the VC's informal and extensive personal network, and may be fast-tracked by him through developmental processes and given to the Faculties to operationalise and administer. This approach riles some academics and academic managers,

There should be far more involvement from the Faculty in the development of the activities, to ensure that many of the problems that are occurring and have occurred in the past are kept to a minimum.   (Academic)

I think its symptomatic of the way this institution is run. I think its run by one person, the person at the top, the Vice-Chancellor, who has a stranglehold on everything, and don't get me wrong its not like he's not done good things for the place, clearly he has, but I think its because of the way he runs the place. Everything is like on the run, and I think that we've got other ventures with people that are less than satisfactory.

(Academic Manager)

This is not to say that all new activities emerge from the Vice-Chancellor. New opportunities can come from anywhere, including Faculty contacts, the work of the International Office and via external approaches to the university. The new program in China, for instance, has largely come from the work of the Dean of the Faculty of Business. Nonetheless, opportunities will at some stage make their way to the Vice-Chancellor's office, and the VC has substantial power in terms of whether the program will then proceed to contract and implementation stages.

As for the rationales of programs currently in operation, three relatively common responses arose across institutional levels. First, activities to date have primarily occurred in those countries which have had some degree of Anglo heritage and English language capability. Where this has not been the case, the programs have often failed. Instances of this failure have included an aborted program in Turkey and unsuccessful forays into the Indonesian market. Second, participants do generally see a logic in the decision to rely on partnerships with private providers for offshore programs. While the nature of these relationships is sometimes regretted, it was accepted by some participants that such relationships complement Wentworth's existing competencies in DE and constraints in terms of location and resources. For instance, one senior institutional manager expressed regret that the institution had moved to become the junior partner in its Malaysian partnership, and this had detrimentally affected the university's returns from postgraduate programs offered there. On the other hand, the university's partner had developed an extremely popular undergraduate program, and this had brought substantial benefits to the university in terms of revenue streams and a presence in the market. It must also be stated, however, that some participants saw little value in these relationships beyond short-term gains. Further, while these participants did not necessarily see anything wrong in having partnerships with private providers per se, the rapid evolution of such partnerships and their development without consultation was seen in negative terms,

We're grabbing at things left, right and centre, without any logical connection between them, or indeed what it's going to achieve for us in the medium to long term. And in many instances I believe we have sold off our intellectual capital at peppercorn rates. Our strategic advantage has been thrown out the window in the name of short-term financial returns.

(Academic)

This issue of financial returns represents a third common theme of participant responses. The vast majority of participants recognised the financial imperative behind Wentworth's dramatic escalation of international activity involvement, and viewed this reality as symptomatic of the situation confronting a regional university beset by reduced government funding and falling local demand for some programs.

It is important at this point to indicate the level of criticism of the university's approach to international entrepreneurialism given that several of the quotes provided thus far express views in critical terms. Two of the three academics interviewed and three of the six academic managers interviewed were particularly critical of Wentworth's approach to managing international entrepreneurial activities, and several of these participants expressed such criticism in strident terms. This analysis aims to provide a balanced response which gives appropriate voice to both positive and negative responses. In doing so, it is clear that dichotomies sometimes arise between responses which are not easily reconciled. These dichotomies arguably reflect the different contexts, campuses, and experiences held by participants. They also raise a number of issues which are further explored as the case study proceeds.

5.6.4 Structures

The Faculty of Business (FoB) consists of five multi-disciplinary

Departments organised by location rather than having single disciplines spread across the campuses. The Dean of the FoB resides in the chancellery at university headquarters. Wentworth's International Office is located on the university's second campus, and reports to the VC via a Pro Vice-Chancellor (PVC) who is responsible for a range of activities including international affairs. The role of the International Office has historically centred on the recruitment function but has expanded in recent times to include coordination activities and some responsibility for new program emergence. Within the FoB, a new Department was created during 1998 to assume coordination responsibilities for offshore activities, particularly for the large Malaysian program. A management professor with substantial international experience was appointed to head this 'virtual Department' of one.

Senior institutional managers identify several strengths and weaknesses in the university's structure for managing international entrepreneurial activities. One refers to it as 'idiosyncratic', reflecting the 'hands-on' role of the VC in overseeing international programs. The structure's primary strengths are in the speed with which Wentworth can respond to market pressures and in the high level of patronage brought to international activities by the Vice-Chancellor. It is a structure which in some ways encourages a laissez-faire approach to entrepreneurialism. As a consequence, the institution is recognised as a risk-taker and for its entrepreneurial nature. On the other hand, the structure, in terms of its absence of formal control mechanisms, encourages a 'lazy' attitude to processes such as the justification of new programs and mitigates against the kind of 'reflective, self-critical' response to international entrepreneurialism common in other universities. Concurring in this view, another senior institutional manager argued that Wentworth's structure was inappropriate for managing international programs, since it contained no clear lines of authority and few formal processes or procedures for the organisation of tasks such as the establishment of new programs. Consequently, a number of problems had arisen such as the failure of the

university's Finance Office to invoice an offshore partner for some 18 months. Terming the structure as 'hit and miss', the manager identified the absence of a linking structure as particularly critical,

The major failing I see is that there is no real keeper of the flame. There's no one who has the overall broad coverage of what's going on, who has a strategy in place to manage it. It's all bits and pieces around the place, with very willing workers who cooperate with each other quite well, but that still doesn't make up for having a very tight, streamlined administration in place for the operation of offshore programs.

(Senior Institutional Manager)

This lack of integration was similarly mentioned by other senior institutional managers, who stated that they were giving thought to possible solutions to this problem. One possibility is the creation of a parallel international institution such as a 'Wentworth International' with dedicated international administrative units and academics skilled in teaching and moderating international programs. Such an organisation would need to be implemented without significant additional costs and must have the flexibility to cater for students moving between locations and modes of study. This issue is currently being debated among senior institutional managers.

Academic managers identified the position of Head of Department as being particularly critical in managing international activities. Heads see themselves as the operational managers of international entrepreneurialism. undertaking jobs which are, in the absence of coordinating structures, characterised by complexity and confusion,

I see myself as the operational manager, the factory manager who's got to deliver the product…It's (delivering offshore programs) a complete new role for us and my managerial role has been how the hell do we get it to actually operate, and also how do I condition the academics to come to

grips with what it is that they're supposed to do?   (Academic Manager)

...the key is to try and coordinate the activities as they are going on, but we're always catching up.   (Academic Manager)

The appointment of a Professor to Head the Department of International Business, the FoB's offshore coordination unit, is welcomed, and both academics and academic managers are effusive in their praise for the incumbent. Nonetheless, there were questions about the extent to which this role overlaps with that of the International Office, and concerns raised about whether the new Department can keep pace with the development of new programs. Once introduced, new programs bring additional demands as the partner organisations seek additional services.   In addition, while the Malaysian program in particular has encouraged the establishment of new processes and procedures, these are undermined when the VC decides to sign still further agreements which require further responses to further demands. Still, the Head of the Department of International Business is performing valuable coordination roles including the delegation of responsibilities to associates of the university located in the offices of offshore partners and liaising with other departmental heads for the delivery of academic content and assessment as new demands arise.   The importance of the role is magnified given that in the case of assessment, for instance, the Faculty has little idea about the volume of work coming from offshore until it actually arrives.

Two other significant structural issues were raised by academic managers. Firstly, the difficulty of managing a multi-campus institution was consistently raised.   International activities thus add a degree of complexity over an already complex situation.   Secondly, the International Office was viewed as still some way from being integrating into the mainstream activities of Faculties and Departments. This is a result of its perceived historical role as a recruiter of international students rather than a coordinator of international

activities.

This issue was also identified by academics. One academic described a degree of overlap between the IO and the university's Distance Education Unit in terms of the servicing of international students, while another called for the IO to develop a more supportive role for Faculties rather than becoming an initiator of activities. This academic also argued for the devolution of authority to the Faculties and away from the senior levels of the organisation, a call supported by a key academic manager within the Faculty of Business. Problems caused by the existence of multiple structures for managing international activities was raised by another academic. For this participant, a more business-like approach would alleviate this problem and also respond to the fragmentation of international knowledge held across the university,

> *We're still putting in place some structures that maybe we should have been thinking about a long time ago. Too much of the information is carried around in individual's heads…We're now thinking of setting up procedures manuals and things like that to document some of the things rather than repeating them. And we've had a particularly bad experience in this last twelve months with three sets of change of contract in one country and two or three sets of change of contract in another country and its just been crazy.*   *(Academic)*

In sum, although structural improvements are occurring with, for example, the appointment of an experienced senior academic to the headship of the Faculty's 'virtual Department' for managing offshore activities, the consensus among all participant levels is that the situation remains far from ideal. Lines of communication and authority remain blurred and distorted, and Wentworth's structure has been demonstrably inadequate for effectively responding to the plethora of new international activities begun in recent years. As has been noted above, at least one of the programs has created

public embarrassment for the university. Several key academic managers are calling for a period of consolidation, yet there is a degree of cynicism about whether this will occur, since the university's Annual Report states that up to 10,000 students may enrol in the Malaysian program alone within two to three years. For a number of participants, necessary structural reform may have to wait until the appointment of a new Vice-Chancellor on the retirement of the incumbent in 2001. While the current VC admits that this may indeed be the case, some participants wondered whether this would be too late for issues such as quality concerns and academic workloads to be appropriately addressed.

5.6.5 Systems

Mixed responses were received to the question of whether Wentworth's systems support its international strategies. Reward systems were viewed as providing little support, IT systems seen as evolving reasonably well, and communications systems portrayed as being somewhere between these extremes. Several participants raised concerns for the management of quality, particularly in relation to one program.

Rewards were widely viewed as insufficiently supportive of international entrepreneurial activities. Among academics, while some staff had been promoted for international involvement, primarily by the creation of new positions at more senior level, the additional workloads brought by international activities and absence of a rewards strategy were viewed as deficiencies of the system. In addition, the proportion of entrepreneurial funds reaching Departments was seen as insufficient, and the idea challenged that overseas travel is a reward for effort,

It's got to the point where they're seeing these trips as part of the reward structure of the organisation. And that shouldn't be how it's perceived. I mean trips overseas shouldn't be seen as rewards. They're part of your

job, for God's sake. *(Academic)*

Nonetheless, one academic interviewed did treat such trips as an additional reward, so this issue is somewhat problematic. Nonetheless, the absence of an acceptable rewards policy or strategy was one common theme among responses.

Academic managers were almost unanimous in their condemnation of the existing reward systems. Inequities were identified in a number of areas. For instance, staff in some Departments were being rewarded for international involvement at the same time as those in other Departments were undertaking equivalent involvements voluntarily. Inequities were also seen in promotion systems. While staff were expected to be involved in international entrepreneurialism, this is not recognised in the internal promotions system. Currently, virtually no staff above lecturer level B are being promoted within the university, yet the Vice-Chancellor does recognise some staff for their international work through the creation of new externally advertised positions at higher levels. This system sends mixed messages to staff in that their promotional chances are reliant on the creation of new positions rather than through the incorporation of an international dimension into accepted internal processes.

In addition, academic managers lament the problems arising from the additional workloads coming to staff as offshore activities grow. Insufficient attention to such demands is given during program negotiation processes. One academic manager had to organise additional university payments for examination marking since the negotiated payment level was so low that staff refused to participate in assessment activities. Several academic managers argued that the situation was progressively reaching breaking point, particularly given the university's failure to replace staff who had retired or left the institution,

My staff eventually will revolt. I mean I'm getting my staff to do a lot of extra work to support the institution. Now where's the reward? Well, the reward from the senior level is almost a bit of a stick. The reward is that you keep your job. The reward is that there's a future for you. You might have heard this before. (Academic Manager)

The researcher had heard this before,

Well, reward in the sense that you've got a job. And there is no more to that for our staff...in terms of direct rewards there's nothing, absolutely nothing. (Academic Manager)

So what of reward systems? Well, they've still got a job. Now the VC is good at saying that. I still have a job for you. (Academic Manager)

I think people want to keep their jobs. And so I think they have to accept very grudgingly that they are going to depend on overseas dollars for what they're losing here. (Academic Manager)

In contrast, senior institutional managers generally saw the reward systems as adequate given the importance of keeping costs down as part of the low-cost, high-volume strategy, and expressed the view that the reward systems reflected the constraints facing a regional institution with declining government support. On this basis, keeping one's job was no small reward!

Information technology systems were viewed more favourably. Genuine efforts had been made to develop systems which catered for Wentworth's range of programs and partnerships. Perceptions across participant levels were similarly favourable towards the evolution of IT systems.

Communications systems were seen as lying somewhere between the reward

and IT systems in terms of their supportiveness. Substantial problems had occurred due to poor communications between Wentworth and its partners, however steps had been taken to rectify this situation. A group of staff from the Malaysian operation had recently spent three days in a workshop with Wentworth administrative and academic staff, and this was viewed as a success in improving communication with the staff of this operation. It was noted by one academic manager that insufficient communication filtered down to the Faculty and its departments from senior institutional managers.

Several staff explicitly described inadequacies in Wentworth's systems for managing quality. Some comments were particularly critical of the university's shortfalls in this area. One academic described the recently publicised onshore program as an 'absolute disaster', while a senior institutional manager with responsibility for this program accepted that Wentworth's approach in this regard left much to be desired,

> *In defence of our partner and in criticism of ourselves, some of those problems arose because the administrative support we gave them was not good enough.*   *(Senior Institutional Manager)*

Speaking more generally about Wentworth's international activities, several academic managers expressed particular concerns about the quality of Wentworth's international programs,

> *We're very seriously worried about what our competitors will do if they get hold of stories or anecdotes…you know, the Wentworth degree, you know, they don't even teach it, they just hand it over to people, they're not even qualified. So we have got to be very careful about this.*
> *(Academic Manager)*

> *I always dread A Current Affair investigating what we do here. It's not as bad as that, it's kind of dramatising it, but I always think that there's*

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gonna be some part of the organisation you could poke a camera in and it doesn't look too good. And what happens is the people at the top will say "we knew nothing about it. We developed the arrangements but the academics are not doing their job properly. They should have ensured quality mechanisms", knowing full well that you've not had the support, resources, or time to do that.   *(Academic Manager)*

These problems are seen as being exacerbated by the low returns per student received by Wentworth University. For some programs, the return may be less than two hundred dollars per student per year. Thus, while revenues may be significant given the volume of students enrolled in the programs, there is very little margin available to invest in support for quality after the central administration has taken its share of revenues.

5.6.6 Culture

Perceptions of the degree to which Wentworth's culture is supportive of international entrepreneurialism differ, particularly between academic managers. Nonetheless, a consensus position is that the international activities have become a critical element of the university's strategy and are increasingly accepted as time goes on.

For senior institutional managers, international entrepreneurial activities were viewed as an extension of the university's historically strong entrepreneurial culture. Although implementation problems had occurred and resistance had been expressed by some institutional units, international activities are now seen to be 'broadly accepted' across the university.

Among academic managers, two divergent views were expressed. On one hand, some see a progressive acceptance of international entrepreneurialism as engagement among academics and administrative staff deepens. On the other hand, some academic managers see the culture as becoming

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increasingly hostile to such activities with academics seeing international entrepreneurialism as 'something we have to do'. This diversity of views is typically expressed in the following quotes,

The culture is progressively moving there. Its moving there for two reasons...More and more staff are going offshore for a range of activities...The other progressive change has been that we've had to wait until some staff retired...So as some of the older, less flexible staff have retired, its given us the opportunity to get younger people in and inculcate what is now a different philosophy.   *(Academic Manager)*

I think people are starting to get a bit fed up with the fact that we don't get any extra pay for doing extra duties. Our load just seems to increase, and I think the culture is that people are starting to get a little bit sick of it. Not too happy is what I'd say. Morale is not the best at the moment.
                                                                        (Academic Manager)

Academics tended to accept the need for international entrepreneurialism and, in some cases, continue to enjoy the benefits of overseas travel and international engagement,

I think the feeling of the staff is that we're an industry now. We're in the service industry. And we have to accept that. We know that jobs are harder to get and this is the way the world is moving. I think people are quite philosophical about it. There will always be a few people that are opposed to it, but on the whole people are fairly neutral to it. There's no problem. And we've always had quite a high number of international students on campus, so it's not like they are strange beings to us.
                                                                        (Academic)

Academic managers and academics tend to agree that the culture is not uniform across the institution. Campuses with a longer involvement in

international activities have a much more supportive entrepreneurial culture, and this appears also to be the case between Departments.

In sum, although differences were expressed by some academic managers, the more popular view is that Wentworth's culture is increasingly accepting and supportive of its involvement in international entrepreneurialism.

5.6.7 Impacts

Impacts on Core Values

Academics made particular mention of international entrepreneurialism's effects on perceived standards of quality. For one, accepting marginal international students is but one element of a general 'dumbing down' of higher education. To others, substantial negative impacts on quality are occurring in particular programs. This is viewed as a reflection of Wentworth's high-volume strategy and the ad hoc development of new international strategies. In addition, negative implications for quality arise from the demands placed on academics in administering international activities,

> *The bottom line is that students don't know enough…Even if you've got some passing, you're passing people you probably shouldn't be passing, just to sort of comply, then you're dropping your standards, because the whole level of students is so low to begin with.* *(Academic)*

> *You don't get the opportunity to provide the level of quality that you would want to provide because of the sheer numbers that you're dealing with…They continually ask and ask and ask, well not so much ask but tell you that you will do this, you will do that, you will do something else, to the point where professional freedom starts to wane considerably and you sort of say bugger it, if that's what they want, alright. And you just give*

them the basics. You don't go the extra yard. (Academic)

In contrast, senior institutional managers view international entrepreneurialism as providing support and reinforcement for the university's core values. Since 'the' core value is the development of a vibrant, healthy regional university with links into its community, the financial benefits flowing from international programs have supported and reinforced this value,

The ultimate core value of this institution is to provide regional opportunities. It isn't to be active in Asia…So it's done an enormous amount for our core values. (Senior Institutional Manager)

Located between these responses were those of academic managers. Some stated that internationalisation is a core value of the university and thus Wentworth's rapid move into the area is understandable. Others stated that the university's values have always been based on being entrepreneurial and vocational and so, once again, international entrepreneurialism is an extension of this activity. Still others stated that although they were not sure what the core values of the university are, they are prepared to adapt as the core values evolve,

I'm not wedded personally to any fixed value of that traditional model or anything like that. I am prepared to move, to embrace new approaches.
(Academic Manager)

The reason that academic managers have been placed between the two other groups, however, is that one academic manager expressed a similar response to the academics in terms of the perceived impacts of poor quality upon the university,

I don't know what we are trying to do. I don't know. I'm not sure if other

people know either. My disenchantment is not with the quality of colleagues. There are some great people here. It's frustration from the fact that we can do great things. I first think we need to rethink our strategy, be more strategic in what we do, a bit more thoughtful than always chasing the mass market mentality. I think that's actually the wrong strategy for a university to take. I think in the long run it diminishes your reputation. It's a vicious cycle. (Academic Manager)

In sum, the issue of impacts on core values is treated differently at different levels. While senior institutional managers and most academic managers believe that the values are maintained or reinforced by international entrepreneurialism, academics and one academic manager express great concerns that compromises on quality are driving down values at a rapid rate.

Impacts of Faculty of Business Dominance

The Faculty of Business is not quite as dominant at Wentworth as it is at some other institutions, since its popular IT programs are located in the Faculty of Information Technology and Science and the Faculty of Arts is boosted by its strongly performing defence programs.

Academics reported seeing few tensions from their perspective, although one academic did report the existence of past inter-departmental tensions arising from the dominance of some departments over others. Similarly, academic managers see tensions allayed by a realisation among other academic units that the nature of the international market makes business and IT courses more popular than others. In addition, there was a recognition that the Vice-Chancellor desired a broad spread of disciplines across the university and that this necessitated some redistribution of funds from low-cost to high-cost Faculties. The extent of this redistribution was cause for some irritation, however.

The Vice-Chancellor stated that the business/IT dominance of international entrepreneurial activities was 'a real problem' for the university. Nonetheless, the problem is being addressed to some degree through the explicit encouragement of other Faculties to develop their international activities. This is beginning to occur in some areas such as the Faculty of Health.

Overall, significant tensions are not seen to arise due to business/IT dominance of international activities. The tensions that do exist are more strongly identified by senior institutional managers rather than by academics and academic managers arguably more distant from the raising of such issues.

5.6.8 Organisational Learning and Leadership

Difficulties with organisational learning were commonly identified by academics and academic managers. For academic managers, the learning which does occur takes place informally and is based on experience. The increased numbers of staff going offshore and directly experiencing international programs is one example of this kind of learning. Learning is constrained to some extent, however, by the absence of any integrative learning mechanism and by the fragmentation of international responsibilities across the university. Nonetheless, the view of most academic managers was that a great deal of learning is occurring on the basis of experience and that this is informally travelling around the institution.

In contrast, while one academic identified learning and adaptation occurring with experience, two others expressed disappointment with the university's efforts at institutionalising learning. For one, disappointment came from the absence of any formal structure for channelling information. Memos had been written to senior institutional and academic managers about various aspects of Wentworth's international program, however these had been

ignored. The inclusion of academics in a recent workshop with an offshore partner was also forgotten until the staff member requested a late invitation. Another academic called for the development of effective knowledge management processes, since so many activities were developed in an ad hoc manner with learning constrained by the need to react to the new activities without thought or reflection,

> *Sure, go into London, go into Turkey, go into Malaysia, go to China, go to North America and all the different places. But work it out effectively in the first place. Don't as has happened in the past shake hands with someone in the airport lounge and then come back to the university and say "oh, just made this deal with so and so in such and such a country. You tidy it up, you get it all fixed up and all arranged." And you get taken to the cleaners.* (Academic)

Senior institutional managers admit that learning is made difficult by the many 'coordinative and communicative' problems which exist. The development of new procedures and centralisation of some responsibilities in the International Office is aimed at helping to resolve these problems. One senior manager reports that an International Advisory Committee comprising representatives of Faculties and key administrative divisions exists to facilitate learning and encourage cross-unit communication, however the committee is not formalised and meets only on a 'periodic' basis.

In sum, academic managers and senior institutional managers assert that considerable informal learning occurs across the university. In contrast, two of three academics identified the absence of integrative mechanisms for institutionalising learning as a major problem for the institution.

As for leadership, the significance of the Vice-Chancellor's role has been discussed throughout this case study. In general, most participants identify several positive outcomes from the VC's leadership. These include an

entrepreneurial approach and ethos and the inculcation of a 'can do' attitude throughout the institution. On the downside, academic managers and academics seem to be suffering the effects of the uncoordinated, exponential growth in international entrepreneurial activities occurring in recent years. They view Wentworth's strategies as ad hoc, poorly planned and inappropriate for the long-term maintenance of academic quality and staff morale. Structures are criticised for their international management deficiencies and there is a fear that necessary organisational reform will not occur until the VC retires in 2001. There is thus a very mixed response to the question of whether Wentworth's leadership is appropriate for the management of these kinds of activities.

5.6.9 Case Summary

A summary of the case findings is presented in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5 Analytical Summary of Case Findings for Wentworth University

	Senior Institutional Managers (3)	Academic Managers (6)	Academics (3)
Mission-Strategies	• Opportunistic and ad hoc • DE focussed (offshore) • VC driven • Franchise model preferred	• opportunistic and ad hoc • DE focussed (offshore) • VC driven • Franchise model preferred	• Opportunistic and ad hoc • DE focussed (offshore) • VC driven • Franchise model preferred
Rationales	• VC response: low price, high volume = less risk • other SIMs – rationales for eg. DE focus flow from Wentworth's constraints as a regional university and competencies as an established DE provider	• accept decisions are a reflection of Wentworth's competencies and constraints and see role as operational, **Versus** • no rationale beyond expediency and short-term financial gain. VC domination a real weakness.	• Strategies and modes opportunistic but have generally focussed on logical market choices **Versus** • no rationale beyond expediency and short-term financial gain. VC domination a real weakness.

	Senior Institutional Managers (3)	Academic Managers (6)	Academics (3)
Structures	'idiosyncratic', reflecting the hands-on role of the VC. - Advantage is speed and flexibility - Disadvantages include fragmentation of international responsibilities across the university	- establishment of Dept of International Business welcomed – this role needs to be embellished, reinforced and resourced. - lack of integration and pace of change means role of academic managers often complex, uncertain, and ambiguous.	- Structures are inappropriate – Faculties and Depts should be given greater authority - role of IO questionned – no clear perception or acceptance of IO's role.
Systems	- Rewards to academic units and individuals reasonable given institutional constraints and limited resources - IT and admin systems evolving	- Rewards – no reward strategy – staff may 'revolt' of not addressed - IT systems evolving - Communications problems being addressed but more communication to grassroots desired - Quality systems seen as unacceptable	- Rewards negligible – no reward strategy, particularly for internal promotion - IT systems evolving - Communications systems improving over time - Absence of quality systems a real concern
Culture	Broad acceptance of international entrepreneurial activities	- increasingly supportive culture **Versus** - culture 'wearing thin' and becoming less supportive	- international responsibilites accepted as a standard aspect of workload - culture is increasingly supportive
Impacts – On Core Values	core values are reinforced by the additional revenues obtained from international activities	most view values as not being under threat, although one academic manager particularly concerned for impacts	values are being compromised by poor quality of some international programs
Impacts – Of Faculty of Business Dominance	this is a problem which is being addressed	no significant tensions perceived	no tensions perceived from dominance of business and IT as some other Faculties administer several successful entrepreneurial activities

	Senior Institutional Managers (3)	Academic Managers (6)	Academics (3)
Learning and Leadership	• Learning – much informal occurs. • Leadership – dominated by long-standing VC.	• Learning – informal learning from experience occurs. Such learning expands as more staff travel offshore. • Leadership – some positives from VC but domination has brought an incoherent approach to international strategy.	• Learning – constrained by the absence of integrative mechanisms and staff overload. • Leadership – need for devolution of some leadership responsibilities to departments. VC domination is generally resented.

5.7 CONCLUSION

This chapter has presented the results of case study analysis for each of five universities. It has linked the structure of each case study to the research problem and research questions driving the study. Responses to several of the study's research questions are also contained in this chapter. In particular, it responds to the questions of institutional strategies and activities (Research Question 1), rationales (Research Question 2), management and organisation (Research Question 3) and institutional impacts (Research Question 4). Issues of learning and leadership (sub-questions of Research Question 5) have also been addressed. The theory-based Research Question 6 will be addressed in Chapter 7.

Responding to the "critical success factor" (CSF) question (Research Question 5) is not as straight forward. While interview questions derived from this research question were posed in early interviews, it was discovered that the question was theoretically and conceptually flawed, since a number of participants across the universities sampled did not view their institutions as successful, and thus found these questions flawed. In addition, the researcher's view evolved during analysis to concur with that expressed by Eden and Ackermann (1998, p.13),

We know of no empirical research that convincingly proves a relationship between strategic management and success. Indeed we think it is unlikely that there can ever be such research…Each of the organisations who make up the sample is, by definition (or hope), different. In addition…the particular approach any organisation takes to strategic management will, and should, be highly contingent.

This does not diminish the value of the present study, however, because Eden and Ackermann (1998, pp.13-18) argue that strategic management has value in informing external stakeholders, serving a symbolic role within the organisation, providing a sense of direction through strategic vision, assist in the management of complexity, provide a tool for team development, and serve as a metaphor for thinking and doing things differently. Such outcomes cannot be achieved without 'attention to the *process* of strategy making', the fundamental purpose of this study.

For this reason, direct questions regarding CSFs were dropped from the interview protocol. In their place, the researcher instead searched for themes arising across the cases which related to this issue. Evidence for these themes is located in the case analytical summary tables. Conclusions arising from this evidence are found in Chapter 7. This chapter also contains a 'Strategic Advantage Model of Internationalisation' which captures many of the themes arising from consideration of critical success factors as considered across the cohort of institutions studied.

In sum, the analytical case summaries located at the conclusion of each case study in this chapter provide the basis for the cross-case analysis to be presented in Chapter 6. Chapter 6 will also contain a theoretical synthesis of this analysis leading to the subsequent development of conclusions and new theoretical insights.

CHAPTER 6 – CROSS-CASE ANALYSIS AND THEORETICAL SYNTHESIS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to compare and contrast the case studies with the aim of generating themes and issues resonating among multiple cases. The insights arising from this analytical process are then linked to the theories and concepts discussed in the literature review (Chapter 2). Consistent with the modified grounded theory approach taken throughout this study, the case studies are analysed against the range of theoretical concepts discussed in Chapter 2 rather than purely in relation to the guiding Thompson and Strickland (1998)/Manning (1994) conceptual model. The resulting theoretical synthesis, arguably richer than that based on a simple model alone, forms the basis for the research conclusions to be outlined in Chapter 7.

For consistency, this chapter maintains the same system of headings as used for the case analysis and summaries which are contained in Chapter 5. As noted previously, these headings are consistent with both the research problem and questions, as well as key concepts deriving from the strategic management literature.

Each section commences with a table extrapolated from the Chapter 5 analytical case summaries. That is, each key concept is discussed in relation to a table combining the summary issues for each institution. The tables facilitate comparison between both institutions and participant levels. As is the case in Chapter 5, the two large and highly-international universities (Reid and Hickling) are shown first, followed by the middle-ranking 'transition' institution (Samuels), and then the two regional universities

(Parkes and Wentworth).   This facilitates comparison between 'like' instititutions.   Themes arising from this analysis are summarised in section 6.9 before being linked to the literature in section 6.10.

6.2 STRATEGIES

Institutional strategies across the five universities are summarised in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1 Cross-Case Summary – Strategies and Mission

	Senior Institutional Managers	Academic Managers	Academics
Reid U	• Become a world-class university • achieve synergies between activities • diversification	• become a world-class university • pursuing growth offshore • partnership focus • diversification	• become a world-class university • partnership focus
Hickling U	• Expansive vision of 'Hickling 2020' the 'sieve through which everything passes' • vision and strategies include offshore expansion via campuses, centres, partnerships and DE	• committed to four-tier strategy (campuses, centres, partnerships based on supported DE and DE)	• general awareness of Hickling 2020 • most existing strategies remain those in place for some time – recruitment to Australian campuses, supported DE with offshore partners
Samuels U	• Growth strategy via focus on strategic alliances, development of professional International Office and increased involvement of Faculties and Departments	• raised international profile with growth of IO and role of IO Director under VC's oversight • offshore growth occurring	• historically, mostly onshore with some niche programs offshore • strategies are evolving and expanding now
Parkes U	• focussed and niche • leverage DE • match programs to countries • develop new markets	• boutique provider of niche courses • ambitious growth targets • growth will largely come from offshore programs	• successful leveraging of DE competencies has been an effective strategy and is a major element of future strategies

	Senior Institutional Managers	**Academic Managers**	**Academics**
Wentworth U	• opportunistic and ad hoc • DE focussed (offshore) • VC driven • franchise model preferred	• opportunistic and ad hoc • DE focussed (offshore) • VC driven • Franchise model preferred	• Opportunistic and ad hoc • DE focussed (offshore) • VC driven • Franchise model preferred

Several themes and issues arise from these institutional differences in international strategy and mission. First, each of the five universities maintained a strategy which centred on growth. While the specific aims differed, each institution was strongly growth-oriented. For Hickling, the aim was to have 40,000 international students by the year 2020. For Wentworth, the short-term aim was for 10,000 students to be enrolled in its Malaysian partnership program. Samuels aimed to lift its international activity ranking to a level nearer to its major domestic competitors. Both Reid and Parkes also targeted continued international entrepreneurial growth into the foreseeable future.

A second common strategic theme was that all of the institutions saw their growth as predominantly arising in the offshore market. The institutions had an awareness that domestic growth would be limited by physical capacity constraints, political considerations and by the evolving nature of the international education market.

Third, and arising from this offshore growth expectation, most of the institutions were seeking to use strategic alliances and partnerships as the primary vehicle for offshore expansion. Strategic partners also assumed key roles in strategies such as the development of full offshore campuses.

Fourth, the most common growth strategy centred on diversification in order to build an institutional presence in a variety of international markets. Influenced by the Asian financial crisis, these universities are moving further

afield in their quest for sustainable growth. Hickling's moves into southern Africa, Europe, and the Americas are instances of this strategy, as are moves by Samuels and Parkes into Europe and northern America.

Fifth, strategies and missions appear to be consistent with institutional competencies and strengths. Future international strategies are designed to build on existing strengths and these in turn derive from historical, contextual advantages. The leveraging of existing competencies in distance education delivery provided the basis for the approaches of Wentworth and Parkes, while Reid's executional strengths in operating strategic alliances formed the basis for its future strategies. Hickling is building its four-tier strategy on the basis of its comprehensive international research networks and international presence around the world.

Finally, a review of responses across participant levels reveals a relatively strong awareness of institutional strategies and missions. Academics and academic managers were highly aware and knowledgeable of institutional approaches, and this is expressed in the identification of explicit institutional international missions in the case of Reid and Hickling, an awareness of the transition to a growth strategy at Samuels, and by a knowledge of the leveraging of DE competencies at Parkes and Wentworth. A high level of awareness exists in the case of both deliberate and emergent strategies. It should be noted, however, that this finding is somewhat predictable since informants were purposefully selected on the basis of their high level of interest and involvement in international activities.

The most significant difference between institutional strategies is in the ambition and expansive nature of international strategies. The ambitious nature of Reid and Hickling's regional and global strategies may be contrasted with the more conservative approach at Samuels and with the niche, 'boutique' approach of Parkes. The Wentworth approach lies

somewhere between these extremes. These differences primarily reflect institutional contexts and constraints. For Reid and Hickling, the extensive experience, competencies and first mover advantages gained in the international education market make their more ambitious strategies understandable when compared to the later-moving and contextually constrained universities also forming part of the study.

In sum, significant commonalities exist between the universities. Participants both between and within the institutions identified a common focus on diversified growth strategies to be achieved via offshore delivery using strategic alliances. The major difference appearing between institutions derived from differences in the level of ambition of institutional growth strategies, with Reid and Hickling taking a more expansive approach to international entrepreneurialism.

6.3 RATIONALES FOR STRATEGIES AND MODES

Perceptions of strategic rationales are summarised in Table 6.2

The differences between the larger, more international universities and others begin to be appear when comparisons are made of the perceptions of strategic rationales. Differences may also be noted between senior institutional managers and other institutional levels.

Senior institutional managers at Reid and Hickling explicitly linked their international entrepreneurial strategies to the broader development of global scholars and global institutions. That is, purely financial considerations were subservient to the desire of making these institutions regionally and globally significant. In contrast, the rationales at Samuels reflected the institutional aim of achieving an appropriate level of status within the national system, and at Parkes and Wentworth derive from the goal of developing vibrant

regional institutions contributing interactively to the regions in which they are located. Rationales at this level thus reflect institutional contexts and constraints to a significant degree.

Rationales considered from the level of academic managers and academics are far less related to the "big picture". Financial imperatives were viewed as substantially driving strategic choice at both levels across the five universities.

Table 6.2 Cross-Case Summary Table – Rationales

	Senior Institutional Managers	Academic Managers	Academics
Reid U	- Response to increasingly international world - partnerships manage risk, enhance learning, avoid academic colonies and provide access to distribution systems - building on existing offshore programs	- markets have generally been English-speaking, close to Australia - opportunistic in the past - need for $	- building on success and name/learning from experience - response to high demand in some countries - professional partners share a similar ethos - need for $
Hickling U	global scholars require a global university which includes offshore campuses and which is of global scale	- historically driven by financial imperatives, opportunism and institutional context - review and refinement now occurring	- not clear on rationales, but $ certainly of importance!
Samuels U	- programs must be academically and financially justifiable and consistent with institutional strategy - within those parameters, an openness to new opportunities remains	- rationales vary – mostly market driven - some units eg. GSB use criteria and international expertise - many activities derive from individual staff initiatives	cautiousness and inexperience underlie most historical strategic choice
Parkes U	- need for surpluses - VC vision for strong, regional university reflects institutional strengths and weaknesses	Primarily a response to reduced government funding	- a response to reduced government funding - limited resources drive to need to leverage existing competencies in Distance Education (DE) delivery
Wentworth U	- VC response: low price, high volume = less risk. - other SIMs – rationales for eg. DE focus flow from Wentworth's constraints as a regional university and competencies as an established DE provider	- accept decisions are a reflection of Wentworth's competencies and constraints and see role as operational, **Versus** - no rationale beyond expediency and short-term financial gain. VC domination a real weakness.	- strategies and modes opportunistic but have generally focussed on logical market choices **Versus** - no rationale beyond expediencey and short-term financial gain. VC domination a real weakness.

At these levels, strategies appeared opportunistic and less deliberate. This is perhaps a reflection of participant distance both from senior decision-making levels and from considerations of their institution's overall or holistic approach to education. It may also be a function of the failure of top management to communicate strategic approaches throughout the organisation. It is also noteworthy that such perceptions occurred in both centralised and decentralised universities. One reason for this could derive from the fact that every university in the sample identified its approach as historically opportunistic. It is only in recent times that universities such as Reid and Hickling have begun moving toward a more formalised approach to the consideration of new opportunities.

Similarly, while senior institutional managers at Reid and Hickling identified the use of formal evaluative mechanisms for new opportunities, academics and academic managers did not appear to be aware of these mechanisms. This does not mean that the institutions were not moving toward more consistent and deliberate rationales for strategic choice, since this was clearly what was occurring in these institutions. It means, however, that there was less awareness of these mechanisms, which serve to delimit rationales, at other levels. Formal evaluative mechanisms increasingly are being developed and administered by the larger, internationally-experienced universities, in contrast to others in the sample who continued to rely on informal evaluative approaches.

Once again, this lack of awareness at other organisational levels may reflect a failure by senior managers to communicate institutional missions, values and strategies in an appropriate manner. This deficiency may have negative implications for long-term commitment to international activities across the institutions, since academic managers and academics may not link their additional responsibilities and workloads to broader institutional values. A

failure to establish this linkage may see them jettison international work as general workloads and the pressure to undertake research both increase.

6.4 STRUCTURES

As shown in Table 6.3, institutional structures for managing international entrepreneurialism were moving in a common direction at three of the five universities. At Reid, Hickling and Samuels, structural centralisation and formalisation had occurred with the creation of umbrella structures at Reid and Hickling and via the elaboration and centralisation of the International Office at Samuels. At Reid and Hickling, these processes have occurred in response to the growth of international activities. This growth has demanded coordination, control, and the management of risk, complexity and uncertainty. Academic managers and academics were wary of this move toward greater centralisation. They appeared protective of their levels of autonomy, uncomfortable with change, and tended to view past structures as adequate.

At Samuels, the centralisation of international entrepreneurial management occurred in a manner complementing the institution's historically highly-centralised approach. It was also consistent with the 'hub and spoke with nodes' international strategy conceived and being implemented by the Director of the International Office. Concurrently, operational managers were assuming new responsibilities for international activities as new programs are added and rapid growth took place. Unlike at Reid and Hickling, however, such changes were viewed favourably among participants at all levels.

At Parkes University, academic managers and academics perceived a need for the centralisation of international activity responsibilities. Frustration was

Table 6.3 Cross-Case Summary Table – Structures

	Senior Institutional Managers	**Academic Managers**	**Academics**
Reid U	• Reid Global established to provide an institution-wide management system - necessary given need to maintain corporate image and avoid previous mistakes • International Offices at both institutional and Faculty of Business levels	• differing views about Reid Global and its potential impacts – academic mgrs protective of decentralised structure • Faculty International Office viewed as highly effective	• Faculty Int. Office provides excellent support • Wary of Reid Global – 'we like the devolution of power to ourselves'.
Hickling U	• move to greater centralisation a function of the higher risk and complexity associated with greater international activity	• protective of autonomy of Faculty of Business and its departments • view Hickling Int.Office as a hindrance to entrepreneurialism, although this may improve with new forums recently introduced	• generally wary of move to centralisation – see as making international work less attractive • one academic did see the Int.Office as supportive, however.
Samuels U	• centralised structure promotes ease of direction and coordination • Int.Office has a critical role in evaluation and management of international strategies	• evolving and improving • IO performing valuable facilitation role	• Mixed – while structures are indeed improving, what has been missed until now with the institution's historically clumsy structure?
Parkes U	• flat, devolved structure brings flexibility and innovativeness	• questions over role of Int.Office (IO) – a supportive or proactive role in the future? • need for appointment of PVC with focussed international responsibilities	• structures are inappropriate – fragmented, duplication • greater centralisation of responsibilities through appointment of dedicated PVC advocated
Wentworth U	• 'idiosyncratic', reflecting the hands-on role of the VC. • advantage is speed and flexibility • disadvantages include fragmentation of international responsibilities across the university	• establishment of Dept of International Business welcomed – this role needs to be embellished, reinforced and resourced. • lack of integration and pace of change means role of academic managers often complex, uncertain, and ambiguous.	• Structures are inappropriate – Faculties and Depts should be given greater authority • role of IO questionned – no clear perception or acceptance of IO's role.

expressed at the duplication of activities between Departments, and the designation or creation of a PVC (International) role was viewed as desirable.

If responsibilities were to remain devolved in line with the university's decentralised structure, the delegation of authority to academic units was viewed as similarly desirable.

Wentworth University represented the exception to this trend toward greater centralisation. At Wentworth, the degree of centralised power resident in the Vice-Chancellor's office was resented. While academic managers grudgingly accepted their limited authority, academics called for authority to be transferred to operational levels so that greater control could be assumed over the administration of international activities. The establishment of a new structure for managing offshore programs within the Faculty of Business was welcomed, however.

Institutional differences also arose in relation to the role of the International Office (IO). While participants at Reid viewed their dual International Office structure as working well, and those at Samuels welcomed the contribution of their restructured International Office, academic managers at Hickling saw their corporatised International Office as operating less than effectively. This was particularly the case in terms of the IO's relationship with the Faculty of Business and its departments.

At Parkes and Wentworth, the International Office was generally perceived to be operating reasonably effectively. The key issue at these institutions was whether the IOs in these institutions should extend their role to assume greater responsibilities for managing international programs. No clear response emerged at either Parkes or Wentworth in response to this question.

In sum, a movement towards the centralisation of international activity management was clearly identifiable at three of the five universities (Reid, Hickling, Samuels). This was viewed with concern by academics and academic managers at two of these (Reid and Hickling) and welcomed at the other (Samuels). Greater centralisation was also viewed as desirable at a fourth institution (Parkes). The managerial role of the International Office was viewed in both positive and negative terms at three of the universities (Hickling, Samuels, Parkes). At Reid and Samuels, however, the International Office was viewed as a positive force for the management of international entrepreneurialism by participants at all levels.

6.5 SYSTEMS

Three common themes emerge in the cross-case analysis of organisational systems (Table 6.4).

First, a common response across the systems was that improvement of existing systems and introduction of new systems lags the development of international activities. International entrepreneurialism brings new administrative and technological demands, and the nature of such demands was seen to differ for each program. Thus, participants argued that institutions cannot know in advance what these demands will be nor ascertain the most appropriate response until programs are actually running. This view was best expressed in the description of Hickling's DVC of systems in universities being 'chaotic' and consequently always lagging program development and implementation.

The second and third themes concern reward systems. Academic managers consistently expressed concern that insufficient rewards from international activities trickled down to academic units. This concern was also expressed by some academics. This is arguably reflective of the nature of departments within organisations generally to resent the redistribution of funds to other

Table 6.4 Cross-Case Summary Table – Systems

	Senior Institutional Managers	**Academic Managers**	**Academics**
Reid U	• Rewards – sought to make offshore more attractive • Admin, IT and Quality – detailed procedures and policies in place, ISO accreditation achieved. IT systems always lag.	• Rewards – excellent for depts and individuals. Need for clarification of promotion issues. • Admin systems streamlined • IT systems lag in development • Quality approach comprehensive	• Rewards – excellent • Admin – generally supportive • Communications – good.
Hickling U	• evolving but lag in development reflects chaotic nature of universities • quality – formalised via GATE accreditation	• evolving slowly but much remains to be done • reward systems often inadequate	• reward system poor – insufficient recognition of international activities in promotion process • communication hampered by institutional size • admin/IT systems inadequate
Samuels U	• systems for entrepreneurialism lag program development • IT systems okay; student admin system poor • Rewards – evolving for Faculties; poor for individuals • VC supportive of systemic improvement	• systems evolving eg. funding model • nature of systems is that they lag entrepreneurialism • rewards problematic – eg. for promotion	• IT/admin systems require improvement • Rewards – mixed responses – insufficient for departments to date; high opportunity costs for academics • Communications – need for formalised structures
Parkes U	• systems inadequate but new student admin. System may assist in solving this problem. • need for formal quality assurance system	• systems inadequate – designed for 'public service era' rather than the demands of an international business • some resentment of level of rewards to departments	• systems not supportive of international activities, particularly IT/admin systems • rewards – mixed responses. Academics linked to additional reward system in graduate business school more favourable
Wentworth U	• Rewards to academic units and individuals reasonable given institutional constraints and limited resources • IT and admin systems evolving	• Rewards – no reward strategy – staff may 'revolt' of not addressed • IT systems evolving • Communications problems being addressed but more communication to grassroots desired • Quality systems seen as unacceptable	• Rewards negligible – no reward strategy, particularly for internal promotion • IT systems evolving • Communications systems improving over time • Absence of quality systems a real concern

organisational areas, however the concern was expressed with considerable strength in this context. The other reward-related issue concerned individual rewards.   Although some academics enjoyed additional payments and

benefits for participating in international activities, the failure of universities to formalise international involvement in promotion criteria met with universal condemnation.

Many participants at academic and academic manager level argued that commitment to international entrepreneurialism was potentially compromised by this shortfall. Nonetheless, it was recognised that additional payments, such as in the provision of salary supplementation at Samuels University, for instance, depended to a significant degree on participation in international activities.

There is one obvious institutional exception to the general negativity about organisational systems. Reid University's administrative, rewards, communication and quality systems were viewed as supportive of international entrepreneurialism and encouraging of international involvement. In the case of rewards, for instance, attractive benefits were provided to participants and the institution was seen to be addressing the issue of including international engagement in its promotions criteria. The level of support provided by the institutional and Faculty International Offices was universally viewed as excellent, and a commitment to continuous quality improvement was evidenced in participant responses across all institutional levels. Several potential reasons for this standard of excellence were identified during interviews. Reid's lengthy experience in managing international activities was cited, as was a commitment to develop comprehensive policies and protocols for key international activities. In addition, the Faculty of Business's International Office had developed best practice procedures for dealing with academics and in administering strategic alliances. It had also worked to achieve the capacity to look beyond the immediate and short-term toward the development of strategic, quality driven processes. These processes were applauded by all who observed or came into contact with them.

6.6 CULTURE

The presence of a supportive culture for international entrepreneurial activities was identified consistently across the five universities (Table 6.5).

Table 6.5 Cross-Case Summary Table – Culture

	Senior Institutional Managers	**Academic Managers**	**Academics**
Reid U	• Entrepreneurial culture a 'defining feature' of the university • culture encourages active debate of issues	• good 'risk culture' • acceptance of continued expansion for survival – 'we've dived in deep but there's still plenty of water underneath' • culture encourages initiative and flexibility	• strongly entrepreneurial culture reinforced by Faculty and deparmental support • culture beginning to be stretched by demands
Hickling U	• evolving entrepreneurial culture building on 10-15 years of international experience • still some way to go	• culture may be evolving but differences exist between campuses and Faculties • Faculty of Business strongly entrepreneurial, a reflection of its disciplinary focus	• 'spotty' entrepreneurial culture in retreat in some ways due to centralisation
Samuels U	• growing culture to support international entrepreneurialism – after late start • most people in institution accept need for international activities	• Departments have a pragmatic approach accepting of the need 'to do this', since rewards depend on the revenues arising	• transition identified from entrepreneurial risk-taking culture from historically risk-averse approach
Parkes U	• strongly supportive culture exists	• a supportive culture for international entrepreneurialism has evolved	• entrepreneurial culture threatened by overload
Wentworth U	• broad acceptance of international entrepreneurial activities	• increasingly supportive culture **Versus** • culture 'wearing thin' and becoming less supportive	• international responsibilites accepted as a standard aspect of workload • culture is increasingly supportive

Possible institutional reasons for this include the extensive and generally positive experience of international entrepreneurialism at Reid and Hickling, the enthusiasm engendered by an international VC and professional International Office at Samuels, and the historically strong entrepreneurial and vocational orientations at Parkes and Wentworth.

The exception to this generalisation concerned the fear that the supportive cultures were being compromised by excessive workloads, particularly at the academic level. Several academics at Reid and Hickling discussed this issue, and it was also mentioned by academic managers at Wentworth. In the case of the larger institutions, this may reflect the diminishing 'novelty' of international activities for some participants. It appears to parallel the concerns expressed about the increasing centralisation of authority occurring in these universities. That is, staff increasingly may feel distant from the focal points of international activity management and organisation.

In sum, despite these concerns, a supportive culture for international entrepreneurialism demonstrably exists in the universities studied.

6.7 IMPACTS – ON CORE VALUES

Responses from senior institutional and academic managers from each institution to the question of impacts on core values, as shown in Table 6.6, may be divided into three categories. In the first category are the larger, highly international universities, namely Reid and Hickling. At these institutions, internationalisation is considered to be one of the core values defining the university's focus and mission. Activities such as those of an international entrepreneurial nature are considered to be part of the internationalisation value, and thus undertaking them is viewed as 'living the core values'. For smaller, regional institutions such as Parkes and Wentworth, the benefits derived from international entrepreneurialism

reinforce explicit core values focusing on the objective of making these institutions vibrant, dynamic contributors to their regions. Both tangible (revenues) and intangible (international focus, cultural enrichment) benefits are seen to mutually reinforce these regionally-based values. Finally, senior institutional and academic managers at Samuels viewed international activities at assisting the institution's transition to a more outward-focused and internationally-oriented university.

Table 6.6 Cross-Case Summary Table – Impacts on Core Values

	Senior Institutional Managers	Academic Managers	Academics
Reid U	• international engagement is a core value and is occurring across the institution	• international activities add to core values via enrichment of campus life and through research networks • important not to set values 'in concrete' as these may change	• while core values are evolving, international entrepreneurialism is a core value • less time for research does threaten this core value, however.
Hickling U	• international engagement, entrepreneurially and otherwise, is a core value of the university	• rhetoric of internationalisation becomes weaker at lower levels, particularly via detrimental impacts on research and scholarly activity	• difficult to balance international entrepreneurialism with demands for research output and course coordination duties
Samuels U	• values change for better as university becomes more business-oriented	• progressive lessening of tension since historical anti-international era	• significant perceived impacts on research (less time for), teaching (more difficult) and administrative loads (higher)
Parkes U	• core values are reinforced by the additional revenues obtained from international activities	• the quality ethos of academic managers' assists in strengthening core values	• ability to undertake research detrimentally affected by international involvement
Wentworth U	• core values are reinforced by the additional revenues obtained from international activities	• most view values as not being under threat, although one academic manager particularly concerned for impacts	• values are being compromised by poor quality of some international programs

Academics across the institutions discussed this issue in more immediate terms. For these participants, a commonly raised concern related to the effects of international entrepreneurialism on research. Academics argued that they had less time for research and scholarly activity. International teaching time resulted in less time for research, as did the higher administrative workloads associated with international activities.

There was thus a degree of ambiguity associated with international academic work. While most staff interviewed enjoyed the interaction and challenge of international work, they also identified frustrations arising from an inability to complete desired research projects. This is an issue which is yet to be resolved in most institutions.

In sum, the consensus view was that core university values are not harmed by international entrepreneurialism, and may in fact be strengthened by such activities. While in partial agreement with this view, academics commonly expressed concerns for their own research activity as international demands assumed increasing proportions of their time. This was particularly the case when such activities were undertaken above normal workloads.

6.8 IMPACTS – OF FACULTY OF BUSINESS DOMINANCE

As with the issue of core values, the potential impacts arising from the dominance of Faculties of Business in international entrepreneurialism were viewed relatively consistently across the five universities. Two common themes arose.

First, those tensions which do exist were generally perceived more strongly by senior institutional managers than among academic managers and academics. This is arguably a reflection of the proximity of senior managers to the institutional forums most closely associated with institutional managers

Table 6.7   Cross-Case Summary Table – Impacts of Faculty of Business Dominance

	Senior Institutional Managers	Academic Managers	Academics
Reid U	• the system is changing but inequalities remain • pace of systemic change constrained by need to preserve entrepreneurial culture	• resentment exists but it shouldn't given level of subsidies to other units • Faculty of Business International Office assists other units and promotes a more collegial approach	• Majority of academics not aware of tensions arising – one did identify resentment arising in other units.
Hickling U	• attempting to manage via creation of multi-Faculty centres offshore	• creates tension but reality is that FoB subsidises other Faculties • this is acceptable as long as other Faculties also learn to 'help themselves'	• while tension exists, other Faculties should be aware of the work FoB academics do, eg. summer semesters, teaching at nights, constant travel disruptions
Samuels U	• some impacts, however evolving funding model supports other units • some strong non Faculty of Business niche programs	• some perceived envy from non-entrepreneurial departments, however not a significant issue	• some tension exists, however this is the nature of entrepreneurialism in Australian universities
Parkes U	• tensions exist but perceived to be less than in other universities	• tension between the Graduate Department of Management (GDM) and other Faculty Departments an issue of concern	• identify tension between departments and GDM since much of the international activity is concentrated in the GDM
Wentworth U	• this is a problem which is being addressed	• no significant tensions perceived	• no tensions perceived from dominance of business and IT as some other Faculties administer several successful entrepreneurial activities

from other academic units. It should be noted here that the interview sample for this study did not include academic managers or academics from non-business faculties or departments. This analysis accordingly reflects this limitation.

Nonetheless, despite some resentment over internationally generated funds paying for the occasional new building for other academic units, a general perception existed that universities need non-business faculties, and that these faculties often need subsidisation for their survival. The degree of resentment which did exist was most pronounced among academic managers such as Heads of Department who are among the first informed and affected by institutional decisions about funding. However, the broader institutional issue of tensions was more directly and strongly raised by senior institutional managers.

The second common theme concerns how these tensions were being addressed. The institutions were developing concerted and deliberate strategies to reduce the tensions. At Reid and Samuels, adjustments to funding formulae served as the major redistribution mechanism aimed at reducing tensions. Other institutions such as Wentworth and Parkes were making concerted efforts to encourage and support non-business academic units in becoming entrepreneurial. This strategy was assisted by the placement of IT and other popular international programs into non-business Faculties and departments. The most explicit attempt to assist other Faculties was occurring at Hickling University in the development of its multi-Faculty campuses and centres. A deliberate effort was thus being made across the universities to spread the benefits of international entrepreneurialism to non-business areas.

6.9 ORGANISATIONAL LEARNING AND LEADERSHIP

As outlined in Table 6.8, a mixture of formal and informal learning occurs from international entrepreneurial activities. At the highly international universities (Reid and Hickling), explicit efforts were being made to institutionalise learning through the creation of country reference groups, international forums and international think-tanks. Senior institutional managers at these institutions described the learning dimension as critical to the future effectiveness or otherwise of international strategies. Structures have thus been developed with a view to coordinating the often-fragmented learning occurring across the loosely coupled units comprising universities. Learning was further institutionalised at Reid through formal staff training programs, quality audits and continuous improvement processes. While these institutions similarly undertook the informal learning from experience common to other universities in the study, they also focused deliberately on building the kinds of corporate knowledge which can potential assist in the review and refining of international strategies.

Organisational learning at Samuels, Parkes and Wentworth was less formalised and more dependent on informal learning networks and mechanisms. This approach was often mentioned as a deficiency by academic managers and academics at these institutions. These participants further identified constraints to learning such as the presence of inter-departmental rivalries (Parkes). In response, several interviewees advocated the development of formal learning mechanisms to institutionalise learning and thus provide an environment in which staff across the institution could more proactively learn.

Table 6.8 Cross-Case Summary Table – Org. Learning and Leadership

	Senior Institutional Managers	**Academic Managers**	**Academics**
Reid U	• Learning – 'the key to success in the international marketplace' – assisted by structures such as Country Reference Groups and international committee in FoB • Leadership – provided substantial first mover advantages for the university	• Learning – promoted by Reid via support for staff training (eg. languages), international research collaboration, student surveys, quality audits of programs. Heads share experience in Faculty executive. • outcomes include culturally sympathetic staff	• Learning occurs informally via experience, personal networks and also by formal staff training • International leaders within the institution viewed as competent and supportive
Hickling U	• Learning – a 'weakness'. Attempting to address via new forums and appointment of Associate Deans in Faculties • Leadership – a 'critical' factor. Leadership across the institution is important, integrated by the leadership role of the Hickling International Office	• Learning – primarily occurs informally from experience • Leadership role of Faculty Dean of critical importance	• Learning – mixed responses. Most saw as occurring informally between academics and departments. One academic viewed the culture as inhibiting learning. • Leadership – role of Dean viewed as very important for operationalising international activities and disseminating information.
Samuels U	• Learning – occurs informally. A current issue is whether to formalise learning. • Leadership – VC an international leader. IO Director performing a critical leadership role.	• Learning – informal; constrained by political factors which remain to some degree. • Leadership roles of VC and IO Director viewed positively	• Some informal learning occurs. Learning needs to be improved via formalisation • Leadership of VC and IO Director viewed as significant and perceived positively.
Parkes U	• Learning – informal learning promoted by small institutional size. • Leadership – VC's leadership role particularly significant given institutional size and context.	• Learning – informal learning from experience occurs. • Learning is inhibited by inter-departmental rivalry • Devolved leadership to departmental heads makes their role significant in managing international entrepreneurialism	• Learning – occurs informally; based on experience. • Administrative leadership role of academics serving as international program managers is critical in operationalising international activities.
Wentworth U	• Learning – much informal occurs. • Leadership – dominated by long-standing VC.	• Learning – informal learning from experience occurs. Such learning expands as more staff travel offshore. • Leadership – some positives from VC but domination has brought an incoherent approach to international strategy.	• Learning – constrained by the absence of integrative mechanisms and staff overload. • Leadership – need for devolution of some leadership responsibilities to departments. VC domination is generally resented.

It appears that a reliance on informal organisational learning correlates with institutional size and the extent of international activities. While formalisation of learning processes was occurring at Reid and Hickling, learning at Samuels, Parkes and Wentworth continued to rely on informal processes despite the recognition that formalisation of learning would be valuable if undertaken.

Leadership was also viewed as a critical management dimension by many participants across the range of universities studied. In particular, strong strategic leadership was seen as essential in the establishment of an international mission and strategic presence, and in setting the tone for the institution's early response to international opportunities. Although this was particularly the case at early mover universities such as Reid and Hickling, it also appeared to be the case for later starters such as Samuels and Parkes.

At those universities perceived both by study participants and external observers as undertaking international entrepreneurialism with a high degree of success, namely Reid and Hickling, the inculcation of a particular leadership approach across the institution was viewed as critical for longer-term success. At Reid, this meant the decentralisation of a significant degree of authority and responsibility to Faculty Deans and Departmental Heads. At Hickling, the leadership response included the development of a corporatised International Office headed by a leader in international education (later emulated by Samuels), as well as a high degree of decentralisation of responsibility and authority to Faculty Deans. At both institutions, it also meant the creation of dedicated Deputy Vice-Chancellorships filled by business-oriented, globally-recognised leaders in international education with substantial expertise and experience. Decentralised leadership thus appears to be a critical factor in the success of both institutions. This was particularly the case at Hickling where multiple-campuses and substantial student

numbers arguably make institutional management proportionately more complex and problematic.

The leadership dimension at Wentworth University stands in marked contrast to these institutions. While Wentworth's Vice-Chancellor provided an early lead into international entrepreneurialism, authority was not decentralised to academic managers as international responsibilities assumed more significance to academic units. Academic managers were expected to operationalise activities developed elsewhere in the institution, often with little consultation and generally without consideration for fundamental resource issues. The problems identified in the Wentworth University case study may arguably be traced to this problem. Indeed, the issue was identified consistently by participants as a cause of institutional problems of international activity coordination and control.

In sum, the need for institutionalising organisational learning appears to become more significant as institutions expand their international activities and consolidate their institutional management structures with the aim of improving institutional coordination and control. This has indeed been the case at Reid and Hickling Universities in particular. The issue of leadership was commonly viewed within these institutions as a critical dimension for effective international management, and a model of strategic leadership decentralisation appears to have been effective at the highly international institutions.

6.10 CROSS-CASE SUMMARY

An analysis of cross-case findings reveals ten relatively common themes. First, institutional growth strategies emphasise diversification, offshore growth, and a partnership or strategic alliance focus. While countries to be

targeted and intended operational modes differ, the broader strategic elements appear common across the institutions studied.

Second, academic managers and academics at times lacked the awareness of senior institutional managers of institutional international missions and objectives. This may be attributed to a failure of senior managers to adequately communicate such information across the organisation.

Third, while rationales differed among senior institutional managers, academics and academic managers across the institutions identified financial imperatives as significant drivers of international entrepreneurial activities. The use of formal evaluative criteria for the consideration of new opportunities was limited, however, to the highly international universities of Reid and Hickling.

Fourth, the transition to more centralised organisational structures for international activity management was occurring at three universities (Reid, Hickling and Samuels) and advocated at a fourth (Parkes). Wentworth's over-centralisation provided an exception to this theme. The role of the Vice-Chancellor in driving structural change or, conversely, limiting structural change, appeared to be crucial.

Fifth, organisational cultures were generally seen as supportive for international entrepreneurial activities, although beginning to wear a little thin at some institutions as academics identified overload from international responsibilities.

Sixth, the development of strategically supportive systems was commonly viewed as lagging international activity development, and reward systems in particular were viewed as somewhat unsupportive of international

entrepreneurialism. Reid was an obvious exception to this relatively negative response.

Seventh, the impact of these activities on core university values was generally viewed as limited, although academics across the institutions lamented the lack of time available for research as international commitments expanded. As international activities expand, this research constraint has potential implications for the long-term research capabilities of Australian universities. This issue will be further discussed in Chapter 7.

Eighth, the dominance of business-related Faculties and Departments was perceived as an important issue by senior institutional managers across the institutions, and this issue was being addressed in a variety of ways. Academics and academic managers did not see business dominance as an important issue, reflecting their distance from interdisciplinary institutional forums.

Ninth, organisational learning occurred primarily in informal ways, with the exceptions being the highly international institutions (Reid and Hickling) where formal structures had been introduced to promote organisational learning.

Finally, effective leadership processes at these institutions (Reid and Hickling) reflected a decentralised strategic approach which empowered Deans and Departmental Heads while retaining experienced senior international managers at Deputy Vice-Chancellor level with overall responsibility for international activity management. Attention was being paid at both universities to retaining the benefits and character of this leadership approach while moving to more centralised organisational structures. Samuels appeared to be moving in this direction in its development of international expertise among academic managers within

Faculties and Departments. While Parkes continued to emphasise a highly decentralised leadership approach, Wentworth's highly centralised leadership approach was viewed with concern by a number of participants at that institution.

In sum, although institutional differences reflect differing organisational contexts, histories and stages of evolution, several common themes emerge. These may be further considered in relation to the key theoretical frameworks and concepts identified in Chapter 2.

6.11 THEORETICAL SYNTHESIS

The themes and issues arising both in individual cases and across cases will now be considered in relation to the key literatures described and discussed in Chapter 2. For each literature, key concepts and theories will be briefly described as a guide to the synthesis, and a table presented as a summary of the synthesis. This table will be presented in consolidated form at the conclusion to the chapter. The cross-case analysis and theoretical synthesis together provide an empirical and theoretical base for the conclusions which follow in Chapter 7.

6.11.1 International Education Management Literature

The primary international education management models against which the cases can be considered include those of Davies (1995), van Dijk and Meijer (1997), Rudzki (1998), Knight (1994) and Manning (1998). In addition, the 'good practice' elements suggested by Back, Davis and Olsen (1995), also provide a useful and objective evaluative checklist against which the institutions may be considered. Together, these descriptive models enable current institutional approaches to be compared both against each other and

in terms of key descriptive criteria. The approaches may be briefly summarised as follows:

- **Davies (1995)** – provides a model describing the institutionalisation of approaches to university internationalisation. The four-quadrant model consists of two dimensions – the degree to which international activities are marginal or central, and the degree to which the development of policies and procedures is ad hoc to highly systematic. Thus, Quadrant A institutions undertake small amounts of international activity which is organised unsystematically; Quadrant B institutions undertake small amounts of activity which is well-organised; Quadrant C institutions undertake large amounts of activity but organise it in uncoordinated ways; and Quadrant D institutions undertake large amounts of activity in well-defined and organised ways.

- **van Dijk and Meijer (1997)** – The 'internationalisation cube' adds an additional dimension to the Davies model, that of support for internationalisation. If support is primarily derived from the centre, this is known as 'one-sided' support. If support derives from a two-way interactive process between the centre, Faculty and departments, this is designated as 'interactive' support.

- **Rudzki (1998)** – For the purposes of this study, Rudzki's identification of 'reactive' (ad hoc, potentially unsustainable) and 'proactive' (akin to adaptive strategic management approaches – ie. more systematic and sensitive to the environment) approaches to internationalisation provides an appropriate continuum for the evaluation of institutional management approaches.

- **Knight (1994) and Manning (1998)** – Knight's 'internationalisation cycle' enables consideration of key organisational processes required for

effective internationalisation such as awareness, commitment, planning, operationalising, reviewing, and reinforcement. A supportive culture underlies this process. Manning's addition of structure provides a further dimension for consideration.

- **Back, Davis & Olsen (1996)** – Elements of best practice for managing international activities include having a mission statement and strategic plan expressing a commitment to internationalisation and leading to appropriate planning, evaluation and quality assurance mechanisms; a Deputy or Pro Vice-Chancellor with specific responsibility for international activities; an institutional Internationalisation Committee; appropriate financial models; an International Office; faculty-based academic initiatives; effective communication between academic and administrative units; professional development programs; and staff incentives including recognition of international activities in promotion and appointment procedures.

In terms of the Davies (1995) four-quadrant model, Reid would be located in quadrant D. That is, it is an institution undertaking significant volumes of international activity in a well-defined and organised manner. Similarly, Reid would be a Cell 8 institution in the van Dijk and Meijer (1997) model, being an institution placing a high degree of importance on internationalisation as a policy issue and which is implementing its international activities in an increasingly systematic manner. Further, the process of interaction between the centre, Faculties and Schools is highly interactive, reflecting the unique structure of Reid University and its highly developed communication and consultative mechanisms. Its strategic management processes are more reflective of Rudzki's (1998) proactive approach than reactive alternatives. A supportive culture for international entrepeneurialism (Knight, 1994) is also demonstrably present, as are other elements of the Knight framework such as a strong commitment to

international entrepreneurialism and effective operationalisation of these activities.

How Reid evolved to these positions is unclear. A pathway such as that suggested by van Dijk and Meijer (1997) for entrepreneurial institutions may have some accuracy, with the institution evolving over a decade and a half from relatively limited and disorganised international involvement to one which is more systematically and centrally organised.

Hickling is, like Reid, unarguably a Quadrant D institution undertaking large amounts of activity in well-defined and organised ways (Davies, 1995). Similarly, Hickling places international entrepreneurialism as a priority in its policy settings, implements such activities systematically, and increasingly supports them through a two-way process of interaction between the centre and Faculties. Thus, Hickling is also a 'Cell 8' institution in the van Dijk and Meijer (1997) framework. Nonetheless, it may also be stated that the process of interaction has not been as clear, consistent and collaborative as many participants would have desired.

Hickling's strategic management process appears to have moved from the reactive mode to the proactive mode over recent years (Rudzki, 1998). Considered analysis and evaluation increasingly guides strategic choice. A supportive culture for international entrepreneurialism (Knight, 1994) has also assisted in the growth and delivery of Hickling's international activities, and this is supported by an awareness of Hickling's international mission among participants. Nonetheless, both academic managers and academics identify a degree of 'fraying' of the culture as programs continue to grow and associated workloads rise.

Reflecting its transitional orientation, Samuels appears somewhat different to more internationally-established institutions when evaluated against

significant theoretical concepts. For instance, it is not as easy to view Samuels as a Quadrant D institution in the Davies (1995) model. While international entrepreneurial activities are increasingly important to the institution, it could not be concluded that such activities are organised in systematic and well-organised ways. While this progressively may be becoming the case, a degree of informality remains. Thus, a position between Quadrants C and D may more realistically describe the current Samuels position. Similarly, while international entrepreneurialism has undeniably assumed a position of policy importance to the institution, support remains to some degree 'one-sided', with interactivity between academic units and the International Office still limited. Further, with implementation moving from being ad hoc to becoming more systematic, this would tend to place Samuels in transition from Cells 5 or 6 in the van Dijk and Meijer (1997) framework to Cells 7 or 8. In other words, consideration of Samuels on criteria relating to the implementation, policy priority and support given to international entrepreneurial activities reveals a position at some variance with more established institutions.

A similar evaluation occurs in relation to international education strategic management models. While Rudzki's (1998) reactive model appears relevant to the development of such activities at Samuels, the conflict phase occurred much earlier at Samuels than that posited in the model, while formalisation of activities seems to be occurring much later. Thus, although changing, a more reactive response continues to typify the Samuels approach to international activity management. Knight's (1994) internationalisation cycle also reveals considerable variance between the Samuels approach and a theoretical ideal, since commitment, planning, reinforcement, review, and a supportive culture were notable for their absence for much of the institution's history in this sphere. Such dimensions are, however, increasingly becoming more significant elements of the Samuels approach. Likewise, it is only since 1997

that significant elements of the internationalisation 'good practice model' have been introduced at the university (Back, Davis and Olsen, 1996).

In terms of international education models, Parkes is arguably in the Quadrant A to Quadrant C range of the Davies (1995) model. That is, it undertakes small amounts of international business organised in relatively unsystematic ways. While the rhetoric of Parkes's policy documents give internationalisation a degree of importance within the university's policy framework, this has yet to be reflected in detailed policy development. Thus, it could not yet be said that international entrepreneurialism is of central importance to the university. Corporate and industry partnerships continue to fill that position. Extrapolating these realities to the van Dijk and Meijer (1997) model makes conclusions about Parkes's position in the model problematic, since there is no room for the selection of a mid-range position between marginal and priority policy importance. If, on balance, the university does place internationalisation in an important policy position and does implement such activities in an ad hoc way, there remains the question of whether support for internationalisation is one-sided or interactive. It could be interactive if Departments consistently chose to utilise the expertise of the International Office, but this is not the case. On balance, one-sided support should be selected, since this does reflect the devolved and decentralised nature of international responsibilities within the university. On this basis, Parkes is a Cell 5 institution, with international policy of some importance, one-sided support for international activities, and ad hoc implementation. The practical significance of this conclusion is that Parkes may recognise a mismatch between its current management approach to international entrepreneurialism and the ambitions which it holds for international expansion. Similarly, consideration of the Knight (1994) and Manning (1998) models places question marks on the potential ability of Parkes's entrepreneurial culture to embrace significant expansion, particularly in terms of the ability of the institution's existing structure to

coordinate and cope with the further expansion of international activities. It also identifies the need for the university to consider systematic attention to the issues of planning, operationalising, reviewing, and reinforcing its international strategies. All of these areas were identified as less than satisfactory by research participants. This makes Rudzki's (1998) reactive model arguably more relevant to the Parkes approach than that typified by the proactive model.

The Parkes approach to international activity management lacks several of the 'good practice elements' viewed as significant in this area (Back, Davis & Olsen, 1996). An appropriate strategic plan is lacking, although one exists in draft form, and its institutional international committee appears yet to be formalised. Further, while the PVCs have international responsibilities, there is no dedicated position at DVC or PVC level with overall responsibility for international entrepreneurialism. This shortfall is exacerbated by the relatively junior institutional rank of the International Office Director, making high-level advocacy difficult. Other good practice elements such as the need for professional development programs, Department-based international committees, and appropriate staff incentives are also arguably less than satisfactory.

This is not to be overly critical, however, since the institution's management practices are reflective of its size, culture and context. As noted above, the identification of these issues provides the university with matters for consideration in terms of the implications of the expansionist growth strategies which are intended to be pursued in the future.

Wentworth University could arguably be placed in Quadrant C of the Davies (1995) matrix. That is, it is an institution undertaking large amounts of international activity in a relatively uncoordinated manner. Although international programs are of central importance to the institution, processes

such as quality control are managed unsystematically. Extending this description to the van Dijk and Meijer (1997) matrix and adding the characteristic that many aspects of managing international activities are handled in 'top-down' ways places Wentworth in Cell 5 of the matrix. In other words, while international activities are an institutional priority, support tends to be one-sided rather than interactive and implementation is ad hoc rather than systematic. On this basis, Wentworth more closely typifies Rudzki's (1998) reactive approach to internationalisation. As for Knight's (1994) model, the tasks of operationalising and planning international activities appear to be relative weaknesses in the Wentworth approach, and this is also arguably the case for review and reinforcement activities. In addition, key elements of the Back, Davis and Olsen (1996) checklist which appear absent from the Wentworth approach include encouragement for Faculty-based committees, professional development programs for staff, and appropriate incentives and rewards.

In sum, the five universities in the study may be placed at varying positions in international education management models and frameworks depending upon their context, scale and current stage of international development. While highly international universities like Reid and Hickling have developed a systematic and professional approach to the management of international entrepreneurial activities, the less systematic approaches of the other institutions reflect their more limited experience of international entrepreneurialism, leadership styles, and locational and scale constraints. A summary table of these approaches is provided at Table 6.9.

Table 6.9 Theoretical Summary – International Education Mgt. Literature

	Reid	**Hickling**	**Samuels**	**Parkes**	**Wentworth**
Davies (1995)	Quadrant D	Quadrant D	Mix of Quadrants C & D	Quadrant A or C	Quadrant C
Van Dijk & Meijer (1997)	Cell 8	Cell 8	Transition from Cells 5/6 to 7/8	Cell 5 (?)	Cell 5
Rudzki (1998)	proactive	proactive	reactive	reactive	reactive
Knight (1994) & Manning (1998)	international-isation cycle elements present including culture	elements present	elements such as planning & reinforcement long absent but changing now	several key elements not present – eg. planning.	elements missing include appropriate planning, review & reinforcement
Back, Davis & Olsen (1996)	good practice elements present	good practice elements present	elements recently institutionalised	some elements missing – eg. communications and information sharing mechanisms	elements missing include encouragement for faculty-based c'tees, prof. devel. programs, approp. staff incentives.

6.11.2 Strategic Management Literature

Issues of strategic execution, competitive advantage, organisational learning and organisational structures and capabilities are considered in this section. These issues are substantially derived from the literature as follows:

- **Miller (1998) –** integrates need for organisational learning into strategic management model. Approach also calls for attention to planning while remaining open to the environment and pursuing 'side bet' ventures.

- **Thompson and Strickland (1998)** – present comprehensive and widely-accepted strategic management model consisting of the following steps: developing a strategic vision and mission; setting objectives; crafting a strategy; implementing and executing the strategy; evaluation performance, monitoring new developments, and initiating corrective adjustments, as well as associated feedback and review loops. Key executional elements include establishing strategy-supportive policies; instituting best practices and pushing for continuous improvement; tying

rewards and incentives to the achievement of key strategic targets; and shaping the work environment and corporate culture to fit the strategies.

- **Organisational life cycle models (Greiner, 1972; Quinn & Cameron, 1983)** – Insights offered include that evaluative criteria for effectiveness differ depending on the stage of the life cycle; that management actions at each stage are narrowly prescribed; that each phase of the model is both an effect of a previous phase and a cause of the next; and that structure plays a key role in influencing strategy.

- **Strategic management in turbulent environments (Brown & Eisenhardt, 1998)** – requires that organisations improvise, capture cross-business synergies, gain the advantages of the past via regeneration, experiment, and use time pacing in order to compete in dynamic industries and sectors.

Reid University undertakes a number of theoretically significant strategic management practices. In terms of strategic execution, strong links exist between Reid's strategies and its organisational capabilities, reward structures, internal systems and organisational culture (Thompson & Strickland, 1998). Organisational learning is emphasised (Miller, 1998), particularly in terms of the creation of mechanisms such as the Country Reference Groups. Reflecting a business-like approach, Reid undertakes many of the key elements demanded of organisations in dynamic environments (Brown & Eisenhardt, 1998). It encourages widespread communication throughout the institution, maintains an adaptive culture, targets collaborative activities via its high-payoff partnership model, and uses time pacing as in its pursuit and achievement of international quality accreditation.

The major theoretical issue arising in this case relates to Reid's recent restructuring. The creation of an umbrella structure for managing international activities, Reid Global, raises several theoretical and practical issues. The restructuring is widely seen as a 'watershed' for the university, bringing the institution into a key period of transition. Schools are wary of Reid Global's influence and intentions, and the DVC overseeing the new structure expresses concern about the extent to which the structure could stifle Reid's entrepreneurial spirit. Theory speaks to these issues in an ambiguous manner. There are few clear links established between strategy and structure. Organisations are called to locate together key processes and functions associated with key activities (Thompson and Strickland, 1998), and to match strategic models with institutional contexts and environments (Chaffee, 1985; Peterson, in Peterson et al, 1997). For universities, while a 'strengthened steering core' is an essential part of managing entrepreneurialism, whether this should be centralised or decentralised is very much a contextual issue (Clark, 1998). Moreover, this tension between freedom and control or between centralisation or decentralisation is viewed as a regularly occurring issue for organisations of all types as they follow typical life-cycle patterns (Quinn & Cameron, 1983). Reid thus faces the ongoing challenge of developing and adapting its organisational structures in ways that strengthen organisational control yet maintain the institution's entrepreneurial ethos.

Similarly, the most critical strategic management issue confronting Hickling University concerns its management of the increased complexity and sophistication associated with its international activities. Although this complexity demands a degree of systematic attention to planning, entrepreneurialism demands that this must not preclude an ongoing openness to change and flexibility (Miller, 1998) and an acceptance of the reality that planning may not of itself produce new and innovative strategies (Mintzberg & Waters, 1982). The need to manage effectively this tension between

freedom and control (Mintzberg, 1987; Clark, 1998) is clearly a central issue currently facing Hickling University, and its significance as an issue was identified in many participant responses across a range of strategic issues.

Hickling's international strategy appears to complement its organisational capabilities, yet building a degree of fit between strategies and institutional reward structures and internal systems is proving elusive (Thompson & Strickland, 1998). Further, as noted above, the historically strong degree of fit between Hickling's strategy and organisational culture may be under threat. Unless addressed, potential competitive advantages arising from the institution's size and reputation may thus be undermined by poor strategic execution arising from a misfit between strategies and culture. Perhaps, as one senior institutional manager argued, the presence of a more dynamic and potentially unstable culture is a natural consequence of the increasingly chaotic nature of entrepreneurial universities and their structures and systems. This would certainly link in with organisational life-cycle theorists such as Quinn and Cameron (1983) who view disequilibrium as a constant state of organisations, and is also reflective of Greiner's (1972) view that not only is the range of potential solutions to organisational problems limited at each life-cycle stage but that the solutions themselves also breed new problems.

Hickling's approach is consistent, however, with the identified need for organisations in dynamic sectors to continually pursue strategies of improvisation, experimentation, regeneration, coadaptation, and time-pacing, in order to remain in an area of 'bounded instability' (Stacey, 1992; Brown and Eisenhardt, 1998). Examples of Hickling's focus on remaining in this zone include the time-pacing and ambitious nature of the Hickling 2020 and 1999-2003 plans, the experimental nature of its offshore centres, and its targeting of collaborative activities to a few potentially high-payoff areas such as offshore campuses and centres. Such radical strategies, however, arguably bring with them a range of potential positive and negative impacts

on academic work, morale and culture which have yet to be worked through in the institution. A key challenge is thus in the management of such impacts. One particular managerial challenge is in the institutionalisation of organisational learning from these activities (Miller, 1998). Although new structures have been established and new processes instituted, senior institutional managers admit that this is a critically important yet historically weak institutional process. Reflection and research are required, yet senior institutional managers, academics and academic managers are pressed by increasing workloads. This is compounded by the complexity associated with a multi-campus and relatively decentralised institution.

At Samuels University, the evolution of a newly strategic approach to international activities reflects Mintzberg and Waters (1982) observation that strategy in entrepreneurial organisations derives primarily from the entrepreneurial manager's synthesis of organisational minutiae. In this case, the strategic leadership of the IO Director is apparent in performing this role. In addition, the tendency of planning in the entrepreneurial context to operationalise rather than direct strategy is also evidenced in the comments of several participants who remarked that the absence of detailed plans did not restrict international growth. Such growth was instead occurring on the basis of shared understandings of the strategic vision and mission to be pursued. Mintzberg's (1994) view that formal planning techniques are generally unsuitable for loosely coupled professional bureaucracies such as universities is similarly reflected in the Samuels approach of a lesser reliance on the formal planning of international activities.

Organisational learning (Miller, 1998) is, in common with Hickling, an area of historic relative weakness for Samuels University. Similarly, the development of strategic executional competencies (Thompson & Strickland, 1998) lags behind international development in areas such as the development of supportive systems. The organisational culture and

development of strategic capabilities are, however, evolving. Evolution and development are also identifiable in several other areas. The strategic approach is one of openness to experimentation, and this is occurring through the targeting of new niche country markets, particularly in Europe. The regeneration of existing programs is also occurring, such as in the development of new markets and addition of new specialities for a range of Graduate School of Business programs. The institution is seeking to time-pace through the pursuit of a specific ranking in the Australian university structure in a defined period. In these ways, Samuels is increasingly responding to the strategic imperatives of a dynamic market and sector (Brown & Eisenhardt, 1998).

In sum, Samuels University's 'youthful transition' mode arguably places it in an earlier phase of organisational life cycle models (Quinn & Cameron, 1983) than many of its competitors. One key theme thus arising in this study is the need for the university to manage its people and processes effectively during this transitional stage between uncoordinated entrepreneurialism and formalisation and control. At this 'collectivity' stage, it is argued that,

> *Emphasis on criteria such as human resource development, morale, cohesion, and human need satisfaction are highest in this stage.*
> *(Quinn & Cameron, 1983, p.44)*

At Samuels, evidence of such needs is provided in respondents' explicit desires for learning, and elaboration and formalisation of communication linkages, as well as by the recognition that the difficult culture of previous years requires a sensitive approach if it were to continue to evolve in a supportive fashion. A comment by the IO Director that it had taken eighteen months for new IO staff to understand the culture and to learn to work within its constraints also evidences the need to continue to account for the people dimension of life at Samuels University.

In terms of strategic management theory, Parkes appears more like an adhocracy (Mintzberg & McHugh, 1985) than any other style of organisation, with strategies growing like 'weeds in a hothouse'. While formalisation and centralisation may be necessary, the danger is that too much movement in these directions will destroy the qualities which have given the university its entrepreneurial character. Parkes is thus a university moving between the entrepreneurial and collectivity phase of its development (Quinn & Cameron, 1983). The issues which it now faces are therefore characteristic of an organisation which is seeking to remain entrepreneurial but which nonetheless must face the need for formalisation and control as expansion continues.

Such issues are inextricably tied to the issue of competitive advantage (Prahalad & Doz, 1986). That is, the growth of the university's international program to date has come from an opportunistic philosophy and from the leveraging of its expertise in external/distance education delivery. This has been its competitive advantage. Increasingly, however, these advantages are under threat from universities both locally and internationally who are developing similar competencies and in some cases going beyond those of Parkes University. This may be achieved, for instance, by larger institutions establishing small, responsive units which are better resourced and which have access to a more extensive range of support services. While niches will undoubtedly remain to be exploited, and this could continue to be the strategy on which Parkes expands, the university's potential for development and its ability to exploit niches fully remains constrained by a poor fit between strategies and support and reward systems (Thompson & Strickland, 1998). The fit between strategies and structure is also perceived to be less than satisfactory while the structural link between responsibility and authority remains weak. In sum, pursuing a niche and focussed route to expansion potentially may be undermined by executional weaknesses, and it is the simultaneous attention to both which will optimise the chances for strategic

success. Whether this occurs is a key issue, and it is an issue which would arguably make Parkes a '?' if it were considered in the traditional Boston Consulting Group matrix (in McCarthy et al, 1994, p.97).

Like Samuels, Wentworth University resembles the Mintzberg and Waters (1982) description of strategy formation in the entrepreneurial organisation, in that strategy in such organisations typically derives from the mind of the organisation's leader. Wentworth's VC typifies this approach. For this reason, the university appears more like an 'entrepreneurial' organisation than a 'professional bureaucracy'. Certainly it does seem that Wentworth University is in the 'entrepreneurial' or 'collectivity' phases of its life-cycle (Quinn & Cameron, 1983), with moves toward the 'formalisation' stage only now beginning to occur with the elaboration of the role of the International Office and the creation of new positions such as that held by the Head of the Department of International Business in the role of offshore programs coordinator.

Three further issues of significance for strategic management are also of note at Wentworth University. First, there are mixed responses regarding the Vice-Chancellor's dominance of international entrepreneurial activities. While few if any participants saw the approach as overwhelmingly positive, only a small minority viewed the approach as wholly negative. Strategic management theory calls for an 'outside in' approach to entrepreneurial leadership where responsibility for strategically managing entrepreneurship is consistent with levels of management responsibility (Thompson & Strickland, 1998). In Wentworth's case, the degree of delegated authority has little relationship to levels of responsibility. This gives rise to difficulties when academic managers have new programs 'dumped on their laps' with little warning, and also occurs when new programs are developed without consulting academic managers, particularly at departmental level. An associated problem is the inappropriateness of Wentworth's organisational

structure for managing international entrepreneurial activities. The Vice-Chancellor admitted that this structural problem may not be resolved until the appointment of a new VC in 2001. Long-term concerns for the potentially detrimental impacts of current international programs on the institution's reputation, credibility and on academic quality thus lead to the conclusion that while the VC's approach has brought undeniable benefits, major concerns arise from this approach. Many of these concerns may not eventuate if moves toward coordinating, facilitating, consolidating and supporting existing activities are extended. On the other hand, if such moves do not occur, significant weaknesses in the Wentworth approach may undermine the very future which is sought for the institution based on its involvement in international entrepreneurial activities.

Second, significant differences exist between Wentworth's approach and that of the documented strategic management process (see, for instance, Thompson & Strickland, 1998, p.4). In particular, the requirement for organisations to 'craft a strategy to achieve objectives' implies the need for the kinds of specific objectives which are conspicuously absent at Wentworth. Craftsmanship also implies the need for critical reflection and this also appears absent in the Wentworth approach. Further, the absence of formalised organisational learning mechanisms (Miller, 1988) constrain the effective management of international entrepreneurial activities at the university.

Finally, the match between Wentworth's strategies and its organisational capabilities, reward systems and organisational culture is being stretched and stressed by the university's rapid international growth. This stress is exacerbated by the university's 'idiosyncratic' organisational structure. Recent highly publicised problems in one international activity and academic responses to these problems attest to the presence of this stress. Thus, while Wentworth University does indeed pursue many of the imperatives of

competing in dynamic environments (Brown & Eisenhardt, 1998) it does so in ways which potentially reduce its future ability to compete. As with the issue of leadership, issues of organisational stress appear to be becoming critical and demanding of a response.

In sum, Wentworth expresses many of the issues, tensions and stresses associated with rapid expansion. Its future development as a credible and attractive academic institution arguably will be substantially influenced by the ways in which it develops the administration, organisation and management of international entrepreneneurial activities.

In conclusion, the strategic management literature is of critical relevance to this theoretical analysis. The relationships between international strategies and organisational capabilities, structures and systems, as well as issues of organisational learning and leadership are most clearly evaluated and discussed in strategic management terms. The evaluation of universities against these strategic management concepts has identified several individual and cross-case issues confronting the five universities. These include:

- the structural tensions arising as the highly international universities (Reid, Hickling) evolve. Such tensions centre on the need to balance freedom with coordination and control. Structural issues also face institutions such as Parkes and Wentworth as they seek to develop the organisational capacity for further international expansion;

- future international growth strategies potentially being constrained by the stresses of existing activities on organisational systems and cultures (Hickling, Parkes, Wentworth);

- a need for the development of international business competencies and capabilities across all institutions in ways consistent with the demands of current and intended international entrepreneurial strategies.

A summary of these issues is shown in Table 6.10.

Table 6.10 Theoretical Summary – Strategic Management Literature

	Reid	**Hickling**	**Samuels**	**Parkes**	**Wentworth**
Strategic Management. (and org. life cycle) Literature (eg. Quinn & Cameron, 1983; Prahalad & Doz, 1986; Mintzberg, 1987; Miller, 1998; Thompson & Strickland, 1998; Brown & Eisenhardt, 1998)	Reid performs strongly on key strategic mgt. criteria eg. links between strategies and capabilities, systems and culture. Most signif. strategic mgt. challenge is need to balance freedom and control within evolving org. structure.	Strategic fits generally strong but strategy – culture fit under threat. Most signif. Strategic mgt. Challenge is balancing freedom and control. Further challenges arise from Hickling's radical four-tier strategy – eg. institutional-ising org. learning.	Strategic fits weak with org. capabilities and systems. Transitional nature reflected in strategic mgt. Approach which is more akin to Mintzberg's Entrepreneurial organisation – formalisation yet to occur in many areas, eg. org.learning. Time-pacing, experimentation & regeneration are occurring, however, in response to the dynamic environment.	Growth of international entrepreneurial-ism constrained by weak fits between strategies and reward & support systems. Still very much an 'adhocracy' – formalisation required but challenge is to ensure that enterpreneurial qualities are maintained. Achieving a fit between strategies and structures is key. Competitive advantage increasingly under threat from competitors - another major challenge.	Strategic fits with org. capabilities, reward systems & culture under pressure from rapid international growth. 'Inside-out' rather than 'outside-in' approach to leadership may undermine future strategies. Absence of learning mechanisms constrains development, as does absence of 'crafting' approach to strategy.

6.11.3 University and Public Sector Entrepreneurialism Literature

This section evaluates institutional managers against the characteristics of effective public sector entrepreneurship suggested by Godfrey (in Wanna, Forster & Graham, 1996) and Forster, Graham and Wanna (in Wanna, Forster & Graham, 1996), as well as in relation to considerations of

university entrepreneurship as proposed by Slaughter and Leslie (1997) and Clark (1998). Key aspects of this literature may be summarised as follows:

- **Godfrey (in Wanna, Forster & Graham, 1996)** – public sector entrepreneurs see themselves as managers rather than bureaucrats; focus on external customers; see staff as their strength and emphasise organisational learning.

- **Forster, Graham and Wanna (in Wanna, Forster & Graham, 1996)** – the five characteristics of effective public sector entrepreneurs include leadership to promote new ideas and promote and manage change; creativity and innovation including the ability to reconceptualise activities; the ability to take judicious risks; an opportunistic orientation; and facilitation and coordination skills.

- **Clark (1998)** – the characteristics of effective university entrepreneurialism include the possession of a strengthened steering core with the capacity to direct activities (may be centralised or decentralised); an expanded development periphery, for example with a research office to mediate between departments and their environment; the pursuit of a diversified funding base to provide discretionary resources; the development of a stimulated academic heartland to pursue entrepreneurial activities across all departments; and the formation of an integrated entrepreneurial culture which views entrepreneurship as an essential characteristic of a university.

Reid's culture and management style for international entrepreneurial activities achieve many of the suggested criteria for effective public sector entrepreneurialism (Godfrey, in Wanna, Forster & Graham, 1996). Academic and senior institutional managers view their roles from a corporate rather than bureaucratic perspective, maintain a strong focus on external

customers such as students and offshore partners, and see staff as a strength via the comprehensive reward systems in place and through an emphasis on organisational learning.

Hickling's evolving position demands a recognition that purely descriptive models of public service and higher education management appear somewhat inadequate. For instance, Forster, Graham and Wanna's (in Wanna, Forster & Graham, 1996) identification of five key characteristics of effective public service entrepreneurs are, for the most part, present at Hickling University. Judicious risks are taken, there is an openness to opportunism, innovation occurs, leadership which promotes new ideas is present, and facilitation and coordination skills exist. Beyond such skills, however, a relative deficiency in international business skills was identified. This was viewed as increasingly critical in light of the greater complexity and risk associated with expanding Hickling's international business portfolio.

Both institutions arguably fit comfortably into Clark's (1998) descriptive typology of the 'entrepreneurial university'. In particular, the pursuit of a diversified funding base, strengthening of the 'steering core', and attention to forming an 'integrated entrepreneurial culture' are in evidence at Reid and Hickling.

At Samuels, the combination of the internationally-focused and experienced leadership of the Vice-Chancellor and IO Director and the development of several successful international niche programs within academic units has led to a more entrepreneurial focus than that existing when the organisation viewed itself as a risk-averse, conservative public sector institution. Academic managers were beginning to see themselves as managers rather than bureaucrats, commercial models of risk management and quality assurance were being implemented, and a greater focus on external customers was occurring (Godfrey, in Wanna, Forster & Graham, 1996). The irony is

that although Samuels has long been a leader in its lesser reliance on direct government funding than other universities, the entrepreneurial philosophy underlying this position was not absorbed into the international education area until recent times. Thus, although aspects of Clark's (1998) 'entrepreneurial university' such as an expanded development periphery and pursuit of diversified funding base have long been in evidence, this did not extend to the development of an integrated entrepreneurial culture and stimulated academic heartland.

In terms of international activities, Parkes is in an early developmental phase, as has previously been noted. Its reactivity (Rudzki, 1998) and informality reflect this stage of development. Unlike more established and larger universities, it is not surprising that its entrepreneurial culture is somewhat fragmented and that calls are now being made for the evolution of a strengthened steering core at the university's centre (Clark, 1998). A more business-like, managerialist approach was also advocated, as was the formalisation of organisational learning processes, another characteristic of effective public sector entrepreneurialism (Godfrey, in Wanna, Forster & Graham, 1996).

While the characteristics of effective public sector entrepreneurs (Forster, Graham & Wanna, in Wanna, Forster & Graham, 1996) such as leadership and opportunism appear to be present at Wentworth University, risk taking should be judicious rather than foolish and facilitation and coordination are required to bring the entrepreneurial activities together. It is arguably the case that Wentworth has succeeded on some measures due to the presence of the former and failed on others due to the absence of the latter.

In sum, the characteristics of effective public sector entrepreneurship appear more commonly in the more international universities than those with less experience of international entrepreneurialism. Similarly, Clark's (1998)

qualities of the 'entrepreneurial university' are in greater evidence at Reid and Hickling than at the other institutions. Nonetheless, as Clark (1998) and Slaughter and Leslie (1997) note, there is no 'one best way' for entrepreneurial development, and the differing approaches discussed reflect differing institutional contexts. Still, the models arguably do provide useful evaluative tools against which these differing approaches may be considered and evaluated. The complementary issue of possible best practice and critical success factors arising from this evaluation will be further discussed below.

Table 6.11 evaluates institutional practice against the entrepreneurialism literature.

Table 6.11   Theoretical Summary – University and Public Sector Entrepreneurialism Literature

	Reid	Hickling	Samuels	Parkes	Wentworth
Uni & PS Entrepreneurialism Literature (eg. Godfrey in Wanna et al, 1996; Forster, in Wanna et al, 1996; Slaughter & Leslie, 1997, Clark, 1998)	Reid & Hickling generally demonstrate the suggested characteristics of effective public sector and university entrepreneurialism.		Samuels, Parkes and Wentworth demonstrate these characteristics to a lesser degree. For instance, risk-taking may be less than judicious (Wentworth) or the characteristics may be in an early stage of evolution or development (Samuels).		

6.11.4 International Business Literature

Key models and theories considered from the international business literature include the following:

- **Ellis and Williams (1995)** – present a version of the internationalisation process model which views international engagement on a continuum from little international business (international market entry and development) through extensive regional engagement (international

regional strategy) to that of extensive and integrated international business operations (global competitor). In addition, the market entry model describes key considerations governing the choice of new markets and associated review processes.

- **Strategic alliance literature (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1995; Brown, in Booth, 1997)** – describes various criteria for building and maintaining effective strategic alliances, including the need to pick a compatible partner; to learn thoroughly and rapidly about the partner's operation; ensure that potential costs and benefits are explored beforehand; ensure that competitively sensitive information is not shared; and ensure that monitoring mechanisms and appropriate quality assurance processes are in place.

The universities studied are at varying stages of international development and this is reflected in considerations of the internationalisation process model and the international strategic alliance literature.

Reid appears to be at the international regional phase of the internationalisation process model (Ellis & Williams, 1995), as it typifies the strategy's three defining characteristics. First, knowledge and resources are leveraged across borders via the university's partnership model. This approach seeks to build on the university's corporate knowledge of relationships across the region to build on existing relationships and establish new relationships both in current and new locations. Second, with the establishment of a campus in Malaysia, the institution operates a 'production facility' outside its home country. Third, it organises business functions based on regional needs through the structuring of units such as the Faculty International Office, an office comprised of work teams organised around the needs of individual partnerships and locations. As for related models such as the market entry model (Ellis & Williams, 1995), Reid has moved towards a

more systematic approach to market screening and selection and created the capacity to undertake audits of programs and critically review existing relationships. Similarly, the evolution of the partnerships model as a result of long experience, learning from mistakes and building on what has succeeded has enabled Reid to meet substantially the various criteria for building and maintaining alliance relationships in both the corporate and higher education contexts (Bartlett & Ghoshall, 1995; Brown, in Booth, 1997; Miller, 1998, Thompson & Strickland, 1998).

Hickling University is wrestling with the tensions associated with moving from a well-executed and developed international regional strategy to one which more closely resembles that of a multinational corporation pursuing the potential advantages of both worldwide integration and the satisfaction of specific national needs. This approach has elements of both international regional and global competitor approaches, and brings with it the consequent complexities and challenges which arise from pursuing both of these demands, namely integration and localisation, on a simultaneous basis.

The increased challenge and difficulties of managing an international businesses as they grow are common themes of the international business literature (Kefalas, 1990; Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1995). Hickling in particular is facing the challenges arising from the strategy of establishing campuses and Centres in strategic locations around the world. Herein lies a dichotomy between the call to keep capital mobile in a dynamic world, as identified by one Hickling academic, and the perceived need to develop a strategic presence across the globe, as identified by senior institutional managers. Whatever the extent to which the strategy is realised in the future, the management of campuses and centres has brought new management demands to the institution, and has served as one driver of current moves towards centralisation of key activities and decisions. These demands arguably call

for a transnational strategy approach (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1995, p.14) which seeks to ensure that,

> *'resources and activities are dispersed but specialised, so as to achieve efficiency and flexibility at the same time. Furthermore, these dispersed resources are integrated into an interdependent network of worldwide operations.'*   *(Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1995, p.14)*

Within the internationalisation process model (Ellis & Williams, 1995), Samuels appears to remain at the international market entry and development phase.   While a more coordinated approach to international market development is being considered, the current approach reflects a high degree of openness to new opportunities.   Market selection decisions reflect the general tendency of organisations at this stage to mix rational-analytical judgements with highly subjective factors based on the organisation's internal context. The task of coordinating and configuring organisational functions to administer international activities is reflected in the size and role expansion of the International Office during recent years. In addition, the need to match international development with the commitment levels of staff is reflected in the expansionary but cautious approach of the IO Director which assumes an ongoing and sometimes slow transition toward a less conservative and risk-averse culture.

Parkes University is similarly at the international market entry and development phase of the internationalisation process model (Ellis & Williams, 1995) and thus only now beginning to develop systematic processes of market screening and selection and evaluation of business performance.   Draft guidelines for these processes are currently being considered by institutional managers for adoption.

As has been noted above, key elements of the market entry model become particularly important as organisations move more deeply into international business. Given that Wentworth appears to be becoming an international regional provider, issues of market selection and review are of critical importance (Ellis & Williams, 1995), as are the factors associated with the effective management of strategic alliances and partnerships (Bartlett & Ghoshall, 1995; Brown, in Booth, 1997; Miller, 1998, Thompson & Strickland, 1998). Wentworth's approach, however, is ad hoc and opportunist, and is predominantly driven by one senior institutional manager, the Vice-Chancellor. Opportunities are dealt with quickly and little time exists for critical analysis and reflection. The variable outcomes of programs are consistent with this approach to market selection. Similarly, the university's dependence on international income discourages the termination of poorly performing programs, especially when those programs appear financially successful. Criticisms of one large onshore program operated in conjunction with a private provider do not appear to provoke the concern of senior managers to any significant degree. In addition, Wentworth's internal processes and systems are only now beginning to be coordinated to meet the needs of the university's regional partners.

In sum, the highly international universities of Reid and Hickling are pursuing more advanced international regional or global strategies while the strategies of Samuels and Parkes are consistent with international market entry and development strategies. Wentworth is in a transitional phase between these stages with a strategy increasingly becoming regional in focus. These models and frameworks appear to be particularly relevant to universities. The market entry model in particular identifies deficiencies and shortcomings in institutional strategies, as well as serving to confirm the advanced international management practices undertaken at Reid and Hickling. A summary of the cases in terms of their position in the internationalisation process model is contained in Table 6.12.

Table 6.12 Theoretical Summary – International Business Literature

	Reid	**Hickling**	**Samuels**	**Parkes**	**Wentworth**
Int.Bus.Literature					
Ellis & Williams (1995) – internationalisation process model stage	International regional	elements of int.regional and worldwide competitor stages	international market entry and development	International market entry and development	transition to international regional

6.12 CONCLUSION

This theoretical synthesis has compared and contrasted the cases to key models, frameworks and concepts derived from a number of important literatures. A summary of institutional positions relative to these models is contained in Table 6.13.   In the interests of brevity, selected theoretical concepts only are used in the table.

Both individual and cross-case issues have been considered and discussed within this chapter, in both general and theoretical terms.   The study's conclusions can now be presented, implications for policy and practice considered, and opportunities for future research identified.

Table 6.13 Case Theoretical Summaries

	Reid	Hickling	Samuels	Parkes	Wentworth
Int.Ed.Management. Literature Davies (1995)	Quadrant D	Quadrant D	Mix of Quadrants C & D	Quadrant A or C	Quadrant C
van Dijk & Meijer (1997)	Cell 8	Cell 8	Transition from Cells 5/6 to 7/8	Cell 5 (?)	Cell 5
Rudzki (1998)	proactive	proactive	reactive	reactive	Reactive
Knight (1994)	international-isation cycle elements present including culture	elements present	elements such as planning & reinforcement long absent but changing now	several key elements not present – eg. planning.	elements missing include appropriate planning, review & reinforcement
Back, Davis & Olsen (1996)	good practice elements present	good practice elements present	elements recently institutionalised	some elements missing – eg. communications and information sharing mechanisms	elements missing include encouragement for faculty-based c'tees, prof. devel. programs, approp. staff incentives.
Uni & PS Entrepreneurialism Literature (eg. Godfrey in Wanna et al, 1996; Forster, in Wanna et al, 1996; Slaughter & Leslie, 1997, Clark, 1998)	Reid & Hickling generally demonstrate the suggested characteristics of effective public sector and university entrepreneurialism.		Samuels, Parkes and Wentworth demonstrate these characteristics to a lesser degree. For instance, risk-taking may be less than judicious (Wentworth) or the characteristics may be in an early stage of evolution or development (Samuels).		
International Business (eg. Ellis & Williams, 1995)	international regional	elements of int.regional and worldwide competitor stages	international market entry and development	international market entry and development	transition to international regional
Strategic Management. (and org. life cycle) Literature (eg. Quinn & Cameron, 1983; Prahalad & Doz, 1986; Mintzberg, 1987; Miller, 1998; Thompson & Strickland, 1998; Brown & Eisenhardt, 1998)	Reid performs strongly on key strategic mgt. criteria eg. links between strategies and capabilities, systems and culture. Most signif. strategic mgt. challenge is need to balance freedom and control within evolving org. structure.	Strategic fits generally strong but strategy – culture fit under threat. Most signif. strategic mgt. challenge is balancing freedom and control. Further challenges arise from Hickling's radical four-tier strategy – eg. institutional-ising org. learning.	Strategic fits weak with org. capabilities and systems. Transitional nature reflected in strategic mgt. approach which is more akin to Mintzberg's Entrepreneurial organisation – formalisation yet to occur in many areas, eg. org.learning. Time-pacing, experimentation & regeneration are occurring, however, in response to the dynamic environment.	Growth of international entrepreneurial-ism constrained by weak fits between strategies and reward & support systems. Still very much an 'adhocracy' – formalisation required but challenge is to ensure that enterpreneurial qualities are maintained. Achieving a fit between strategies and structures is key. Comp.advantage increasingly under threat from competitors - another major challenge.	Strategic fits with org. capabilities, reward systems & culture under pressure from rapid international growth. 'Inside-out' rather than 'outside-in' approach to leadership may undermine future strategies. Absence of learning mechanisms constrains development, as does absence of 'crafting' approach to strategy.

CHAPTER 7 – CONCLUSIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to present the study's conclusions as well as its implications for policy and practice. A conceptual model deriving from the study is presented in section 7.4. The limitations of the study are discussed and potential areas for further research identified.

This chapter considers the case and cross-case conclusions discussed in Chapters 5 and 6 in light of the research questions posed in Chapter 1. The conclusions also give consideration to the theoretical synthesis contained in Chapter 6. The presentation of a conceptual model in section 7.4 completes the process, and this model reflects the results of the analytical process outlined in Chapter 4 (section 4.4.2).

7.2   CONCLUSIONS FOR EACH RESEARCH QUESTION

7.2.1 Research Question 1

What international entrepreneurial activities do Australian universities and their Faculties of Business undertake?

The Australian universities and their Faculties of Business studied undertook an array of international entrepreneurial activities. These included the traditional strategies of recruitment of fee-paying international students to Australian campuses to the more ambitious strategies of establishing full offshore campuses. Between these extremes, strategies such as the provision of supported Distance Education (DE) in partnership with overseas and/or local universities, professional associations or private corporations were particularly common.

Common dimensions of these strategies included a focus on growth, primarily occurring via offshore strategies, the diversification of country markets, and the further development of strategic alliance and partnerships as the primary vehicles for offshore growth.

The major difference in international entrepreneurial strategies derived from the ambition and expansiveness of the strategies of Reid and Hickling, the early moving and highly international universities. The scale of Reid's offshore growth strategy and the nature of Hickling's ambitious four-tier international strategy stand in contrast to the more limited international strategies of Samuels and Parkes and, to a lesser extent, Wentworth.

7.2.2   Research Question 2

Why have they chosen particular activities and modes of operation?

Historically, the approach taken by all of the universities in the study has been highly opportunistic. That is, internally and externally identified opportunities have been pursued in order to build international operations. Markets and modes chosen have generally been easy to access, geographically nearby and English speaking. In the case of the later starters, markets selected generally appeared to be those already long established as international education centres.

A strategic dimension has become important to issues of market and mode selection at these institutions, however the extent to which this occurs varies greatly. At the highly international institutions, namely Reid and Hickling, formal evaluative criteria increasingly were being used in the consideration of international opportunities. This was less the case at Samuels, Parkes and Wentworth. This suggests that adaptive strategy prevails in the early stages

of internationalisation, to be replaced in later stages of organisational growth and maturity by broader strategic management approaches.

As for more specific rationales (the sub-question to Research Question 2), the financial imperative was viewed as critical by academic managers and academics across the institutional sample. This is consistent with previous research findings (Manning, 1998, p.112; Rudzki,1998, p.232), and raises questions about the sustainability of some international programs and thus other institutional activities if numbers or revenues fall below threshold levels. In contrast to these earlier studies, more holistic internationalisation rationales were identified by senior institutional managers, for instance in Reid's broader vision of becoming a 'world class' university and Hickling's emphasis on the development of global scholars.

7.2.3   Research Question 3

How are these activities managed and organised?

As may have been expected, the universities manage and organise their international entrepreneurial activities in ways reflective of their individual contexts, circumstances and histories. This is arguably as it should be (Knight, 1994, p.126; Manning, 1998, pp.185-186). Nonetheless, trends were discerned, particularly in terms of the relatively decentralised way in which most of the universities managed and organised these activities. This was especially the case at Reid, Hickling and Parkes. The highly international universities of Reid and Hickling had established umbrella structures (Reid Global and the corporatised Hickling International Office) to oversee international activities. The management of these activities however remained fundamentally decentralised. This strategically decentralised approach to structuring international activities has been identified as an appropriate approach to managing internationalisation (Storer, 1998, p.366).

An elaboration and extension in the role of institutional International Offices toward becoming more proactive players in international activity management was also discerned at the majority of universities studied (Reid, Hickling, Samuels, Parkes).

This evolution in approach is consistent with Clark's (1998) notion of a 'strengthened steering core' guiding entrepreneurial activities within an overall structure which may continue to be predominantly either centralised or decentralised.

This discernible shift from highly decentralised structures to at least a partial degree of centralisation also has parallels with organisational life cycle models (Greiner, 1972; Quinn & Cameron, 1983) as well as general theoretical notions about the need to balance freedom and control (Mintzberg, 1987). In particular, the formalisation (Quinn & Cameron, 1983, pp.35, 44) stage of the organisational life cycle appears particularly relevant to the structural transitions recently undertaken or underway at Reid, Hickling and Samuels. This current phase of structural evolution among the universities in the study reflects the tension between control and coordination on one hand and autonomy and freedom on the other.

The move toward partial control via centralisation occurring at Reid, Hickling and Samuels, and advocated at Parkes, illustrates institutional responses to this tension which seek to retain the benefits of decentralised structures while bringing them under greater central control. Senior institutional managers hope to achieve an "entrepreneurial balance" from restructuring which balances these competing tensions, as illustrated in Figure 7.1.

Figure 7.1   Structural Tensions in the Management of International Entrepreneurial Activities at Australian Universities

| Demands for decentralisation so that entrepreneurialism is "close to the action" | Aim: the "entrepreneurial balance" | Demands for control, coordination and central oversight so that efficiencies and synergies occur |
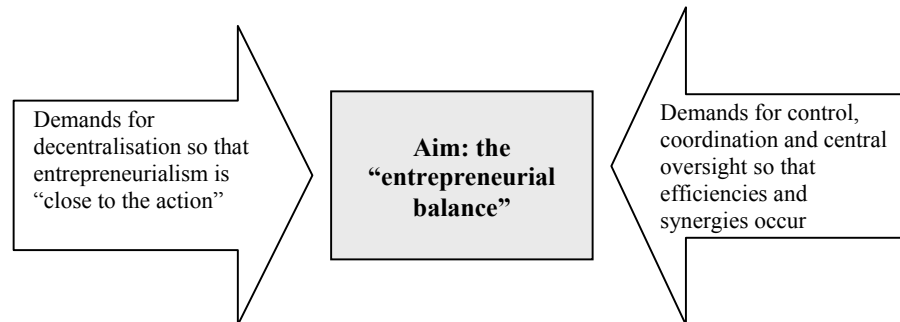
The evolution and development of communication, information technology and reward systems was seen to lag behind the growth of international activities at most universities. The exception was Reid, where institutional systems generally were viewed favourably or at least as moving in appropriate directions. The perception of academics that the reward for international work may be as simple as keeping one's job, and that academic managers generally lamented the rewards coming to their departments were previously identified in a study by Manning (1998, p.174), and this study supports such findings.

This study also identified the presence of a supportive culture for entrepreneurialism as generally existing across all three participant levels in the institutions studied, a requirement previously identified by Knight (1994, p.131) and similarly found by Manning (1998, p.175) in a study which included two universities also considered in this study.

As for the first sub-question, "why were these management processes implemented?", the conclusion arising from this study is that such processes generally have been implemented in reactive ways. New management processes and structures have arisen from the demands arising from the expansion of international activities. For instance, the creation of a separate International Office at Parkes University and the establishment of the

Department of International Business at Wentworth University are both reflective of incremental responses to demands as they have arisen. This level of reactivity appeared to be diminishing to some degree as a more strategic and reflective approach was assumed, especially in the highly international universities. The approaches of Reid and Hickling increasingly were becoming more deliberative, as evidenced by the systematic development of international policies at Reid, and in the long-term strategic planning approach at Hickling.

As for the second sub-question, "how have they (the management processes) evolved?", the conclusion is that they have evolved and are continuing to evolve in the direction of greater professionalisation and a more business-oriented focus, at least in the cases of the highly international institutions, Reid and Hickling, and to a lesser extent at Samuels. Manning (1998, pp.205-206) identified a similar trend occurring in the context of several "best practice" institutions. In contrast, the evolution of management processes at the less-international, regional institutions of Parkes and Wentworth continued to reflect ad hoc, reactive approaches. As well as reflecting the earlier organisational life cycle stage of these institutions, this also appears to reflect the argument that entrepreneurialism in universities discriminates against smaller, regional and newer universities (Fairweather, 1988, pp.63, 73)

Thus, it may be concluded that universities in the study tended to illustrate divergent approaches to international activity management which also appear elsewhere in the literature. While Back, Davis and Olsen (1996, p.110) concluded that Australian universities managed international entrepreneurialism in mature ways with a focus on continuous process improvement, Pokarier and Ridings (1998, pp.11-12) argued that Australian universities had inadequate management competencies and were not committed to appropriate strategic management processes. For this study, the

former conclusion appears appropriate for Reid and Hickling and, to a lesser extent, Samuels, while the latter is arguably appropriate for Parkes and Wentworth. Significant differences exist between these two groups in their degree of managerial professionalism, commitment to continuous improvement and development of business competencies.

7.2.4 Research Question 4

How are these processes perceived by senior institutional managers, academic managers and Faculty of Business academics? What implications for the future practice of international entrepreneurialism arise from these perceptions?

A general response to this question is considered in the conclusion to Research Question 3. That is, the processes, as considered in terms of the dimensions of structures and systems, are perceived very favourably at Reid, somewhat favourably at Hickling and Samuels, and generally less than favourably at Parkes and Wentworth. Further, across the institutions, the management processes tend to be viewed less favourably by academic managers and academics relative to senior institutional managers. A range of implications for future practice are considered in section 7.5.

The first sub-question to Research Question 4 asks "what are the perceived impacts of these activities?". This question was addressed through interview questions which explored perceived impacts on core university values and of Faculty of Business dominance of international entrepreneurialism. Responses to the core university values question subsumed the second sub-question, namely "what is the perceived "fit" with ongoing university activities?".

The conclusion to the core values question is that in many cases, international involvements were viewed as reinforcing core values. This was the case with internationalisation as a perceived core value at Reid, Hickling and Samuels. Similarly, the revenues from international activities at Parkes and Wentworth were perceived to reinforce regionally-oriented core values. The major caveat to this conclusion concerned the potentially detrimental impacts on research (as a core value) identified by academics across the institutions arising from international commitments. This finding is consistent with earlier research on university entrepreneurialism which identified negative impacts on research as a significant consequence of entrepreneurial activities (Leslie & Harrold, 1993; Philpott, 1994; Slaughter & Leslie, 1997).

In terms of the second sub-question, the impacts of Faculty of Business dominance were generally identified explicitly by senior institutional managers who tend to be closer to the tensions arising from this issue than academic managers and academics. Such impacts included the greater wealth and resources of Faculties of Business as well as the resentment expressed by staff from other Faculties unable to access the financial incentives accruing to Faculty of Business academics from teaching and administering international programs. Since such tensions were being addressed in various ways across the sample, it may be concluded that the tensions were perhaps of a lower level than had been initially expected.

7.2.5 Research Question 5

What are the perceived critical success factors (CSFs) required for the effective management of international entrepreneurial activities, and are these CSFs a potential source of ongoing competitive advantage?

During the study, the potential generalisability of responses to the issue of CSFs met with two obstacles. The initial obstacle arose during the first case

study when participants stated that they did not see their institution as particularly "successful" in the international entrepreneurial domain, and thus could not comment about CSFs. The second obstacle came from a retrospective review of the literature where researchers stressed the importance of contextual, institution-specific factors to organisational success (for instance, Knight, 1994, p.126; Manning, 1998, p.207; Rudzki, 1998, p.211). Despite this, these writers had indeed developed descriptive and prescriptive models of the strategic management process which tended to subsume institutional specifics into the general. Nonetheless, and as previously noted, these models were based on the organisation of an array of international activities included under the general banner of "internationalisation", rather than arising from a predominantly business or managerialist perspective. In response to this perceived inadequacy, the data in this study were analysed in relation to the degree of institutional and Faculty success or effectiveness attributed by each participant to the management of international activities, and then for the presence of underlying factors perceived to contribute to this success. Consideration was also given to perceived shortfalls at the less-effective and less-successful institutions, as they were designated and described by participants. In addition, responses at Reid and Hickling were given additional weight on the basis that a previous researcher (Manning, 1998) had case studied both institutions as examples of "best practice" in internationalisation. Reid, Hickling and Samuels were also cited as examples of internationalisation best practice in the Back, Davis and Olsen study (1996).

Key elements of this synthesis, such as the identification and creation of executional advantages and the leveraging of organisational and strategic competencies, are illustrated in the conceptual model outlined in section 7.4.

In terms of the first sub-question, the issue of potential comparisons between this research and suggested CSFs in other literatures, it is clear that a number

of suggested guidelines continue to be of relevance if institutions are to successfully develop and maintain their international entrepreneurial activities. A review of the study would draw attention to issues such as the relevance of the business and university guidelines for establishing and developing international strategic alliances (Section 2.5.3), as well as those located in Table 2.1, the suggested characteristics for an effective university internationalisation process.

In relation to the second sub-question, the issues of organisational learning and leadership have been revealed as critical to organisational effectiveness. It may be concluded that organisational learning from international entrepreneurialism occurs primarily in informal ways across the institutions in the sample. Reid and Hickling have, however, sought to institutionalise organisational learning through the creation of key positions within faculties and departments, a range of departmental and cross-institutional international committees and forums, and via the establishment of country reference groups.

A preferred model of organisational leadership for international entrepreneurialism also arose from the study. An approach combining a high degree of decentralised leadership responsibilities to deans and departmental heads and oversight at central level by internationally-experienced and competent senior managers was viewed as appropriate, particularly at the highly international universities. This leadership model was similarly advocated by a range of participants at the other institutions, and appears to reflect the demands of the maturity phase of organisational life cycles (Greiner, 1972; Quinn and Cameron, 1983) currently being experienced at the highly international institutions.

7.2.6   Research Question 6

To what extent do existing models derived from the fields of international education management (eg. Knight, 1994) and strategic management (eg. Thompson & Strickland, 1998) adequately describe the strategic management practices of universities in the international entrepreneurial domain? Are new models demanded by the changing nature of this sector, its institutions and markets?

The response to this research question may be considered in terms of the international education management, strategic management, university and public sector entrepreneurialism, and international business fields of literature outlined in Chapter 2 and considered again in Chapter 6. The concepts and theories contained therein generally include a number of strategic management dimensions.

First, in relation to the international education management literature, the models of Davies (1995) and van Dijk and Meijer (1997) have been demonstrably useful in describing the current management practices of Australian universities, as outlined in this study. Nonetheless, these models are only a starting point, since they are limited by the relatively low number of elements or dimensions incorporated in them. In terms of processes, Rudzki's (1998) reactive and proactive models have been particularly valuable in providing a general categorisation of strategic management processes. Knight's (1994) internationalisation cycle has also served as a particularly useful evaluative mechanism for analysing both the general and operational dimensions of internationalisation. The usefulness of this model will be extended in this study as it becomes the core of the new model to be outlined in section 7.4. Manning's (1998) extension of the model with the addition of the structural dimension valuably adds to the Knight model,

particularly given the centrality of structure to the ways in which international entrepreneurial activities are managed and organised.

While international education management models provide much of value, their direct application to this study is somewhat limited by their context. That is, these models are designed to cover the spectrum of international activities undertaken by universities and they assume a more holistic approach to the topic than that taken here. If, as found in this study, international entrepreneurialism is rapidly assuming an international business orientation for universities, bringing new complexities to management and organisation, then a model incorporating strategic international business dimensions will be arguably of some value in guiding considerations of institutional practice in this domain.

Second, the general strategic management literature has served usefully to guide this study and to organise its findings. It has also highlighted institutional strengths and weaknesses in their strategic management approaches. In particular, the tasks of 'crafting' an appropriate strategy, pursuing executional advantages, and evaluation, review and improvement tasks were revealed to be critical aspects of institutional strategic management processes (Thompson & Strickland, 1998). These dimensions are accordingly incorporated into the model to be outlined in section 7.4. In addition, the elements of organisational learning (Miller, 1998), differentiation (Porter, 1996), decentralised strategic leadership (Thompson & Strickland, 1998) and flexibility of approach (Mintzberg, 1994) have been identified as key dimensions of effective strategic management in the international entrepreneurial domain. These too are incorporated into the model in section 7.4.

Third, the university and public sector entrepreneurialism literature is of limited relevance to the specific aspect of strategic management practices. In

particular, the characteristics of effective public sector entrepreneurs (Forster, in Wanna, Forster & Graham, 1996; Graham, in Wanna, Forster & Graham, 1996) are relevant but limited in terms of their potential application. Their high degree of generality reflects the paucity of research undertaken on this topic, especially in the Australian context. In addition, like much of the international education literature, the university entrepreneurialism literature tends to reflect national and institutional contexts other than those covered in this research. For instance, while Burton Clark's (1998) model of the entrepreneurial university has general relevance, its focus on European universities and broad nature distinguish it from this study.

Nonetheless, Clark's identification of the need for universities to balance freedom and control, an application of a general and critical strategic management concept, is arguably of relevance to the international entrepreneurial context, as is the proposition that the development of university entrepreneurialism takes a period of ten to fifteen years (Clark, 1998, p.145). The latter point is consistent with organisational life cycle theory (Greiner, 1972; Quinn & Cameron, 1983). That is, appropriate management structures and processes are demanded by the maturity phase of the life cycle, and this seems to have occurred at institutions like Reid and Hickling some ten to fifteen years after establishing a program of international entrepreneurial activities.

Finally, the international business literature provides several concepts which have been usefully applied in this study. The internationalisation process model (Ellis & Williams, 1995) offers a useful description of institutional approaches relative to those undertaken in the corporate sector. The market entry model (Ellis & Williams, 1995) highlighting issues of international strategic choice and review has been revealed in this study as a highly valuable tool for international entrepreneurial activity management. Institutions such as Hickling and, to a lesser extent Reid, had recognised this

and were implementing evaluative choice and review mechanisms. In contrast, universities such as Wentworth continued to suffer public embarrassment arising from the problems associated with poor strategic choice and a reluctance to review and retrench programs (Davies, 1995, p.10). While this need also had been earlier identified by Pratt and Poole (1998a) and Pokarier and Ridings (1998), this may be the first empirical study to affirm the criticality of choice and review and thus highlight the potential relevance of international business literature to this sphere of institutional activity.

A similar degree of relevance and usefulness is affirmed for the relatively prescriptive international strategic alliance literature (for instance, Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1992; Hamel, Doz & Prahalad, in Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1992), much of which has been applied to the university context (Daniel, 1996; Booth, 1997; Saffu & Mamman, 1998). Guidelines such as the need to institute appropriate quality assurance processes and regular joint periodic reviews of relationships against objectives were more common in the highly international universities of Reid and Hickling and relatively less common elsewhere, a deficiency identified and lamented by a number of participants in the less international and smaller institutions.

In sum, a number of theories and concepts across a range of fields have been of descriptive and/or prescriptive value to this study. Arguably, other literature sources such as those associated with organisational change and resource dependence theory within the organisational studies literature could also be of relevance. Nonetheless, the strategic management approach, complemented by international business and entrepreneurship approaches, has provided an appropriate perspective on an increasingly business-like sphere of university operations. Further, this approach builds on the strategic management approaches previously taken by Knight (1994), Rudzki (1998) and, to a lesser extent, by Manning (1998).

7.3 CONCLUSION TO THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

The study's research problem was as follows:

With particular reference to Faculties of Business, how do Australian universities manage their international entrepreneurial activities?

This study has revealed that while universities manage their international entrepreneurial activities in ways reflective of their contexts, histories and circumstances, significant commonalities existed in their approaches. As outlined in section 6.10, cross-case analysis revealed a number of relatively common themes:

- institutional growth strategies emphasised diversification, offshore growth, and a partnership or strategic alliance focus. While countries to be targeted and intended operational modes differed, these broader strategic elements appeared common across the institutions studied.

- academic managers and academics generally were not as well informed about institutional international missions and objectives as were senior institutional managers. This may be attributed to a failure of senior managers to adequately communicate such information across the organisation.

- while rationales differed among senior institutional managers, academics and academic managers across the sample identified financial imperatives as significant drivers of international entrepreneurial activities. The use of formal evaluative criteria for the consideration of new opportunities was limited, however, to the highly international universities of Reid and Hickling.

- the transition to more centralised organisational structures for international activity management occurring at three universities (Reid, Hickling and Samuels) and advocated at a fourth (Parkes). This is not to say that the structures are now centralised, however. Although they remain fundamentally decentralised, there was a noticeable shift toward centralising overall responsibilities for international activities such as via the creation of umbrella structures at Reid and Hickling. A similar process has also been occurring over recent months at the pilot study university, "Australia U". There the entrepreneurial Business Dean has been appointed to the newly created position of Vice-President (University Enterprises) in order to provide additional central oversight of domestic and international entrepreneurial activities and, presumably, to leverage the Business Dean's entrepreneurial expertise across the wider institution. Wentworth's over-centralisation provided an obvious exception to this theme.

- the development of strategically supportive systems was generally viewed as lagging behind international activity development. Reward systems in particular were viewed as somewhat unsupportive of international entrepreneurialism. Reid was an obvious exception to this relatively negative response.

- organisational cultures were generally seen as supportive for international entrepreneurial activities, although they were beginning to be stretched at some institutions as academics identified overload from international responsibilities.

- the impact of these activities on core university values was generally viewed as limited, particularly at institutions such as Reid and Hickling where internationalisation was itself viewed as a core value. This may also have been the case since international activities are closely linked to

the financial imperative driving much contemporary institutional activity. Academics across the institutions lamented the lack of time available for research as international commitments expanded. The pressure to research remained, however, since promotions criteria continued to stress the importance of research outcomes.

- the dominance of business-related faculties and departments was perceived as an important issue by senior institutional managers across the institutions, and this issue was being addressed in a variety of ways. Academics and academic managers did not see business dominance as an important issue, reflecting their distance from interdisciplinary institutional forums and the reality that they were business academics themselves.

- organisational learning occurred primarily in informal ways, with the exceptions being the highly international institutions (Reid and Hickling) where formal structures had been introduced to promote organisational learning.

- effective leadership processes at these institutions (Reid and Hickling) reflected a decentralised strategic approach which empowered Deans and Departmental Heads while retaining experienced senior international managers at Deputy Vice-Chancellor level with overall responsibility for international activity management. Attention was being paid at both universities to retaining the benefits and character of this leadership approach while moving to more centralised organisational structures. Samuels appeared to be moving in this direction in its development of international expertise among academic managers within Faculties and Departments. While Parkes continued to emphasise a highly decentralised leadership approach, Wentworth's highly centralised

leadership approach was viewed negatively by a number of participants at that institution.

When evaluated against the prescriptive approaches to strategic management advocated in the literature (and described in Chapters 2, 4 and 7 of this study), the highly international universities of Reid and Hickling tended to more closely resemble models of best practice. Samuels and Parkes were moving in this direction, while Wentworth was yet to begin this transition.

In sum, Australian universities, or at least those in this study, were managing their international entrepreneurial activities in increasingly business-like and sophisticated ways. While this was yet to equate to or resemble the managerial practices of international businesses and multinational corporations, a definite movement in this direction could be discerned.

7.4 IMPLICATIONS FOR THEORY

In this section, a new conceptual model will be presented which synthesises the study's findings and builds upon existing international education and strategic management models.

While the model is built around Knight's (1994) internationalisation cycle and incorporates the addition by Manning (1998) of structure, several significant additions are made. This reflects the view that the Knight-Manning model is too general, in that it could be applied to virtually any institutional activity, as well as the belief that the model does not capture the complexities of managing what is now a critical international business for almost every Australian university.

The model, illustrated in Figure 7.2 and termed the "Strategic Advantage Model of Internationalisation", is based on the concept of best practice. It

reflects critical success and best practice factors identified in the cases. As noted above, it gives additional weighting to those institutions recognised in previous research as exemplifiers of best practice. It also includes elements deriving from the strategic management and international business fields which were commonly identified as critical by participants in this study.

Figure 7.2 Strategic Advantage Model of Internationalisation
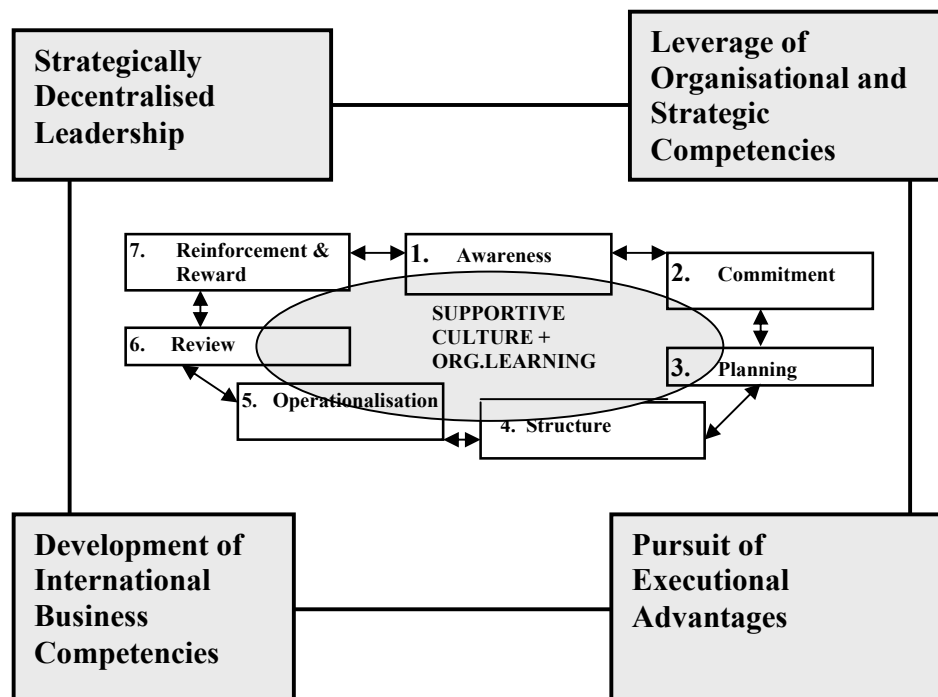
Source: Adapted from Knight, 1994, p.122; Manning, 1998, p.188.

This study adds five new elements to the Knight-Manning model. The dimension of organisational learning is added in the core of the model to that of a supportive culture. Organisational learning was viewed as critical by participants in a number of universities. It was commonly seen as a deficiency in the approaches of several institutions, and viewed as increasingly important to institutions as international activities expand and

international responsibilities disperse and fragment among Faculties and Departments.

A description and rationale for each of the four strategic advantage elements is as follows:

Strategically Decentralised Leadership – This dimension incorporates a high degree of delegated and empowered leadership to Deans and Departmental Heads, as well as to appointed international leadership positions. Instances of the latter positions include Associate Dean, International (Hickling) or Head of the School of International Business (Wentworth). While leadership was generally viewed as a critical issue across the institutions, however it was at universities like Reid and Hickling that leadership was viewed as most effective. In these institutions, and increasingly becoming the case at Samuels, well-resourced and supported academic managers were operating with significant delegated responsibility and authority under the oversight of experienced and competent senior institutional managers. In contrast, the failure of institutional leaders at Wentworth and to a lesser degree at Parkes to delegate appropriate levels of authority alongside responsibility was perceived as a significant leadership shortcoming. In sum, while the complexities and demands of international entrepreneurialism increasingly depend on umbrella structures and internationally-competent senior institutional managers, effective operationalisation and openness to new opportunities demands empowering academic managers at other levels to lead international entrepreneurialism within their Faculties and departments.

Leverage of Organisational and Strategic Competencies – Some institutions seemed to be developing a momentum of success as international activities grew. In many cases, this occurred where the universities leveraged their existing strengths and competencies. At Reid, the ability to effectively

manage strategic partnerships led to growth within those partnerships and the ongoing and rapid development of new alliances. Hickling leveraged the size, capabilities and resources which it derived from being an early mover in many markets, as well as the expertise of its experienced senior institutional managers. This led to the development of existing strategies and creation of industry-leading new strategies. In this way, the leveraging of organisational and strategic competencies does not therefore just exclusively relate to the incremental development of current and historic strategies. Instead, as in Hickling's case, the development of transformational strategies can spring from the resources and expertise arising from successful current strategies.

Parkes and Wentworth achieved a measure of success from leveraging their core competencies in Distance Education delivery. At Wentworth, a number of international strategies have been highly innovative, deriving from the core strengths and competencies long existing in the institution. At Samuels, the new International Office Director leveraged his expertise, market knowledge and contacts to quickly establish new international programs. The achievement of rapid growth rates experienced across the sample appears to owe a great deal to this strategy.

In sum, this element is broad enough to encompass both the leveraging of existing strengths in incremental directions as well as the development of transformational strategies which build on the resources and expertise deriving from existing strategies. In virtually all instances of ongoing and potentially sustainable success, a key ingredient appears to be the momentum which comes from using existing organisational and strategic competencies as a springboard to further growth.

Pursuit of Executional Advantages – Many of the benefits of leverage may be lost unless institutions pursue the potential advantages arising from the efficient and effective execution of international entrepreneurial activities,

primarily via the effective management of institutional systems. While such executional advantages bring the short-term rewards of greater profitability, they can also ensure that there are long-term benefits which flow from these activities. For instance, Reid's streamlined and policy-driven approach to managing its relationships with overseas partners provides supportive evidence of this approach. While other universities drift in and out of partnerships, Reid's customer-focus achieves mutually beneficial outcomes for both partners. In this way, the university achieves both long-term synergies as well as the short-term financial rewards seen as difficult to achieve by many players in the sector (Fell, 1999). In contrast, there appeared to be low profitability in the revenue and volume focus of Wentworth University, primarily because executional advantages were not pursued. While a low-cost, high-volume approach brought strong revenues, the low level of revenue received per student did not bring the focused approach to execution seemingly demanded by this strategy. One consequence was that resources for quality control and assurance were insufficient to meet the demands of this strategy.

In sum, executional advantages can result in both short and long-term benefits. Such advantages can thus be a potent source of competitive and strategic advantage in virtually any segment of the international education market.

Development of International Business Competencies – While international business management competencies are developing as international experience builds, this study revealed a shortfall in risk management, international finance, market knowledge and strategic alliance management skills in the universities studied. This deficiency was identified at both highly international (and successful) institutions as well as those with less international activity. Arguably, this is a critical missing link in the current approaches of Australian universities and one which will become

increasingly necessary to address as strategic complexity, sophistication and ambitiousness grows. In the case of highly ambitious global strategies such as that being pursued at Hickling, institutions are moving into a previously unknown risk profile as new international investment decisions are made. The linkages between this and the other three strategic advantage dimensions will potentially collapse unless universities address this deficiency in a timely and appropriate manner.

7.5 IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICY AND PRACTICE

Several implications for policy arise from this study. In terms of the broader picture, concerns for quality arising in the delivery of international programs point to the need for sectoral policies for quality assurance. In particular, quality concerns identified at Wentworth University call for the kinds of quality mechanisms common in the United Kingdom and only now being considered by the Australian government. While such quality processes were institutionalised in the approaches of Reid and Hickling, this was less the case at the other institutions. This is an issue for both governmental and institutional decision-makers. For the Federal Government, consideration is required about the extent to which the proposed national system of quality assurance will incorporate international entrepreneurial activities, and in what ways. At institutional level, policy-makers need to consider the relative merits of pursuing international quality accreditation, as occurred at Reid and Hickling, against the benefits and costs arising from using existing internal quality control processes. The responses from participants in this study tend to indicate that the benefits of accreditation, both formally and informally, may outweigh the costs.

Also at institutional level, an explicit focus on international policy development as typified at Reid in its development of a range of international policies is arguably necessary for all Australian universities, not just those

which are highly international. Policies relating to academic rewards, the continuous improvement of systems and the evaluation and management of strategic alliances are typical of the kinds of policies needed for the effective institutional management of international entrepreneurial activities.

One important aspect of international policy development confronting senior institutional managers is that of providing appropriate rewards for international activity. For instance, there appears to be a degree of reluctance on the part of senior institutional managers to include international work in promotions criteria. This deficiency seems to be a reflection of the extent to which institutions remain driven by research outcomes and thus desirous of maintaining research as a key criterion in promotions policies. On the other hand, the identification of this problem by a number of academics indicates that unless a solution is found, it may become increasingly difficult to attract academic participation in international activities, especially from among the ranks of junior academics. One potential solution is for institutions to develop academic career-paths based on multiple "streams" so that varying weights can be given to a range of criteria accepted by both academics and their academic managers.

As for practice, this study has provided a model of best strategic practice in section 7.4 which incorporates a range of practical elements which should be considered by institutional and academic managers in their quest for effective management in the international entrepreneurial domain. These include the need to focus on organisational learning, executional advantages, the crafting of appropriately contextual and competitive strategies, and the development of international business competencies. A focus on practice has thus been integral to the development and outcomes of this study.

As has been shown in this study, however, the development of appropriate systems often lags considerably behind the growth of international activities.

This gap will continue to widen unless deliberate steps are taken to deal with this problem. It is possible that some institutional systems will collapse given the rapid expansion of international activities across different locations and modes of operation unless this problem is addressed.

Similarly, the ongoing inability of some universities to institutionalise organisational learning may negatively affect competitive advantage in the medium to long term unless steps are taken to more fully exploit learning opportunities. In particular, the growing threat to Australian universities from both public and private international competitors may be difficult to withstand unless learning from dispersed international activities is pursued.

Academic managers also need to consider the implications of additional international responsibilities on the stress levels and morale of their academics, as well as the implications of international activities for teaching quality at home campuses. In particular, this study has shown that many academics are uncomfortable about the amount of time spent offshore and the effects of these absences on local classes.

7.6 LIMITATIONS

The findings of this study reflect several limitations. The pilot and substantive studies together explored management processes and practices at six universities. This represents just one-sixth of the Australian university sector, and thus the findings are limited to those universities studied. It is left to readers familiar with other institutions to draw their own application to these other contexts.

Further, the focus on Faculties of Business necessarily also limits the findings to these contexts. Additionally, as the faculties studied differed in terms of their disciplinary makeup and size and thus within the study, the findings are

not strictly comparable between Faculties. Despite these limitations, a number of analytical, ethical and procedural steps have been undertaken to reinforce the study's rigour, integrity and quality. These are outlined in Chapter 4.

7.7 IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

A number of further areas for potential research arise from this study. In particular, the impacts of international entrepreneurialism and dominance of Faculties of Business may be perceived differently in other parts of universities. Academic managers and academics who may or may not have international responsibilities could be usefully studied to determine if impacts are indeed perceived differently in other academic units.

Another potentially valuable area for further research would be to investigate whether research outputs differ depending on the level of international responsibilities. The majority of academics in this study stated that their research was hampered by international work, however one participant, a senior institutional manager, argued that internationally-active academics were among the most productive of researchers. It would be interesting to see if this is in fact the case.

An analysis of the differences in the management of quality between those institutions subscribing to international accreditation organisations and those who choose to use existing internal processes could provide a valuable contribution to the debate about the value of international quality accreditation. Such an analysis could include considerations of quality outcomes for students as well as considerations of the extent to which accreditation serves as a useful marketing and promotional tool.

This study focused only on the views of senior institutional managers, academic managers and academics. It would be valuable to know how other stakeholders such as administrators (student advisers and the like) and students view the strategic management processes of their institutions in the organisation and management of international entrepreneurial activities.

A study of financial risk management would valuably add to the findings of the present study. Issues such as appropriate levels of return on investment from international entrepreneurial activities could add a level of necessary detail to discussions of program introduction, maintenance and retrenchment.

Another area of potentially fruitful research could build upon the parallels appearing to exist between internationalisation process models and organisational life cycle models. The development of a hybrid model based on research from a larger sample of institutions may be possible.

The findings of this study could be more usefully generalised if a larger-sample, quantitative study was undertaken addressing similar management and organisational issues across a broader spectrum of Australian universities.

Other potentially fruitful areas for further research may include:

- the study of internationalisation in faculties other than business

- the actual determinants of student choices of destination and institution

- a complete sectoral study within all 36 Australian universities perhaps by postal questionnaire

- a study of the extent and operation of Australian university offshore operations

- an historical analysis of the growth of international education as an economic sector in Australia

- a study of the impacts of the export of Australian education on the higher education systems of recipient countries such as Malaysia and Indonesia

- a further study in five years which returns to the case study institutions covered in this study to review the changes occurring over that time

- similar studies on other countries undergoing similar processes such as the United Kingdom would indicate the degree of international convergence now underway, as well as the relevance of the Strategic Advantage Model to other settings

- placing international entrepreneurialism within a general study of university change management processes would provide insights into the critical area of institutional change and adaptation

- similarly, exploring management processes in this domain could usefully occur from an organisational learning perspective, a particularly important issue given the attention and resources being expended on institutional continuous improvement and quality management processes

APPENDIX A

Sample Letter to Potential Research Participants

19 August 1999

Dear

I am writing to seek your assistance with a research study I am undertaking as part of my PhD studies in the School of Management at the University of Technology, Sydney. Supervised by Associate Professor Graham Pratt and co-supervised by Associate Professor Mark Lyons, my study is entitled "The Strategic Management of International Entrepreneurial Activities in Australian Universities".

For your information, an abstract of the study is attached to this letter. In brief, I aim to interview ten people in each of six Australian universities to see how they manage their international student programs. The focus is particularly upon the development and management of activities such as strategic alliances, offshore campuses, joint ventures, the introduction of new programs targeted at the overseas student market, and the attraction of international students to onshore programs. I am also interested in exploring how universities manage the tensions inherent in maintaining these "international businesses" in the traditional university context. For your information, I have also attached a copy of the research problem and research questions guiding the study.

A pilot study was completed earlier this year at a New South Wales university. I spent time collecting public documents such as Annual Reports and the university's strategic plan, and conducted 45-50 minute interviews with the Pro Vice-Chancellor (International); Dean, Faculty of Business; Director, International Programs; Faculty of Business International Marketing Manager; Head, School of Management; two management lecturers; an accounting lecturer, and two administrative staff with international student responsibilities.

I have received positive feedback from the study's participants, both for the manner in which the interviews were conducted and in terms of the potential validity of the study's findings. Modifications made as a result of the pilot study include a greater focus on senior institutional managers and a consequent lesser focus on administrative staff.

In sum, I am seeking your assistance in providing permission for the case study, and in suggesting appropriate staff whom I could approach for interviews. My aim is to interview the following staff:

- Vice-Chancellor
- Director, International Programs
- Manager, International Development
- Dean, Faculty of Business (or equivalent)

- Heads of Departments of Management and Accountancy (or equivalent)
- two academics from each of these departments, each of whom possesses some experience in teaching and/or administering international programs

I am happy to write to or contact any of the study's potential participants, and would appreciate your advice in regard to how I may be able to progress this.

This study has received the unconditional approval of the UTS Human Research Ethics Committee, and a copy of this approval and my ethics application are available on request. A commitment to confidentiality has been made. Both institutions and individual participants will be disguised through the use of pseudonyms, and data will be altered if it potentially identifies its source. In addition, interview transcripts will be forwarded to participants for verification, as will a summary of the conclusions derived from the analysis of interviews and documents. In sum, I am interested in management processes, not commercial-in-confidence information.

Outputs from the research undertaken to date include conference papers presented at the annual conferences of the Australasian and American Associations for Institutional Research, and a conference paper presented at the "Reworking the University" Conference. One of these papers has recently been published in the Journal of Institutional Research in Australasia. Copies of this material are also available on request.

If permission is granted, I would like to conduct the case study at xxxxx University during the period 27 September – 1 October, however I do have some flexibility to alter these dates if necessary, particularly if those suggested are unsuitable to the university. I am currently on sabbatical from my position at UWS Hawkesbury, so would very much like to have data collection completed before the end of semester.

It would be greatly appreciated if you could provide an indication of your intention to participate or otherwise as soon as possible. If you wish to discuss any aspect of this study, please do not hesitate to contact me on   , by fax on 02 9837 4398, or via email at d.poole@uws.edu.au. My supervisor, Associate Professor Graham Pratt, may be contacted on 02 9514 5167 (w).

Thank you for considering my request. My hope is that the results of the study may usefully inform the further development of management skills and competencies in this dynamic element of university administration.

I look forward to hearing from you.

Yours sincerely

DAVID POOLE (B.Bus.(UWS), MBA, M.Ed.Admin.(NE))
LECTURER IN MANAGEMENT
FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT

Original Interview Question Guide – Pilot Study

1. What are the major international entrepreneurial activities undertaken by the Faculty of Business? What is the brief history of each?

2. In international student no's, your university has experienced an average annual growth rate of 29% per annum since 1993, against an Australia-wide average of 13.5% for the system as a whole. To what do you attribute this?

3. There appears to be various "players" within the University with an interest in or responsibility for international entrepreneurial activities, such as the PVC, Dean of the Faculty, International Office, International Business Development Unit, and the Schools themselves. How is responsibility and authority for the management oversight of these programs distributed among these players? (day to day/long-term)

4. How long has this been in place? Does it work? Is it appropriate for more competitive environments?

5. How is program performance judged? Against specified objectives? Who sets these objectives?

6. If expectations are met/surpasses, to what is this attributed? (good luck/good management?) If expectations are not met, to what is this attributed? (bad luck/bad management?)

7. How do new programs emerge?   Emergent deliberate? Is the process managed (formal environmental scanning, SWOT, assessment of competitive situation?) What happens in alliance situations?

8. How are programs reviewed?   How is quality managed? (consumer perspective of quality – meets expectations of students and potential students, achieves promoted quality; OD perspective – need to meet educational objectives) Does QA occur before/during/after? How is quality managed in alliance relationships where the University has less control than it otherwise would over the operation of the alliance?

9. Thompson and Strickland in their strategic management text argue that the effectiveness of strategy implementation depends substantially upon the existence of "strategic fits" between an organisation's strategies and its capabilities, reward structures, internal support systems (strategy-supportive policies and procedures; information, communication and operating systems that enable staff to carry out their strategic roles effectively) and culture. I would like to get your perspective on the strategic fits existing at this university between its international entrepreneurial strategies and these other elements:

- capabilities
- reward structures
- internal support systems
- culture

10. Do you believe that the university undertakes organisational learning in its management of these programs? If so, how? If not, why not?

11. Two lecturers in international business at an Australian university recently made the comment that, in relation to the management of international entrepreneurial activities, *'critical institutional capabilities are still lacking, institutional developments are unproductive, and strategic planning has been ad hoc and opportunist'*. How would you respond to that generic statement in light of your experience at this university, particularly in terms of the Faculty of Business?

12. In a contrasting statement, Back, Davis and Olsen concluded in their study of international strategies in Australian universities that we are now in a 'mature' phase of internationalisation. They state that *'In this mature phase, universities cooperate extensively, in consortia and in other forums. Universities perceiving weaknesses in their own practices seek out good practice in other universities for implementation. This continuous process improvement enhances the quality of practices in internationalisation programs in all Australian universities…This is not to say that the system is perfect…What is impressive about Australia's internationalised university system is the speed with which universities rectify problems, bringing safety nets to bear to minimise any disadvantage to individual students, to institutions or to Australia's international reputation'*. Once again, in light of your own experience, how would you reflect on this statement?

Introduction

1.   Could you please explain your involvement in international entrepreneurial activities?

Activities (Research Question 1)

2. What international entrepreneurial activities does the Faculty undertake?

Rationale for Activities and Modes (RQ2)

3. Why have they chosen particular activities and modes of operation?

4. Why have particular countries been targeted?

5. Why have particular modes been chosen?

6. Is there an overarching strategy/vision driving this?

Management of Activities (RQ3) and Perceived Impacts (RQ4)

7. What positions and structures are in place to manage these activities?

8. How are these perceived in terms of their effectiveness?

9. How do the systems (communication, administrative/operational, rewards) support the strategies?

10. How have these processes/systems evolved?

11. Does the organisation's/Faculty's culture support the strategies and the strategies support the culture?

12. Is the dominance of the Faculty in this sphere an issue for the institution? If so, how is it managed?

13. Do you believe that the core values and activities of the university are altered by a focus on these kinds of activities?

Perceptions of Process (RQ5)

14. In overall terms, how effective are these processes? Why?

15. If viewed as effectively managed, what are the critical factors behind this? (rank them)

16. Conversely, if seen to be ineffective, why? What is missing?

17. Does the university/Faculty learn from its experiences? If so, how?

18. Any other comments, issues?

Information for Participants – PhD Study, David Poole

Research Problem

With particular reference to Faculties of Business, how do Australian universities manage their international entrepreneurial activities?

Aims

The primary aim of the research is to explore how Australian universities manage their international entrepreneurial activities (such as offshore courses, alliances, twinning programs and on-shore international student programs).

In other words, the research is seeking to answer the fundamental question "how do they do it?". In their management of these "international businesses", are universities responding as businesses, as higher education institutions, or in some hybrid manner? How are universities adapting their processes and structures to the new demands arising from these activities? What are the impacts of these changes?

Research Questions

1. What international entrepreneurial activities do Australian universities and their Faculties of Business undertake?

2. Why have they chosen particular activities and modes of operation?

3. How are these activities managed and organised?

4. How are these management processes perceived by senior institutional managers, academic managers, and by Faculty of Business academics?

5. What are the perceived critical success factors (CSF's) required for the effective management of international entrepreneurial activities?

6. To what extent do existing strategic management models adequately describe the strategic management practices of universities in the international entrepreneurial domain?

Further Information

If you would like to discuss any aspect of this study with the author, please contact David Poole at the Faculty of Management, University of Western Sydney, Hawkesbury, Locked Bag #1, Richmond NSW 2753. Phone: . Fax: 02 9837 4398. Email: d.poole@uws.edu.au. The study's supervisor, A/Prof Graham Pratt, may be contacted on 02 9514 5167 (UTS School of Management), or by email at graham.pratt@uts.edu.au.

Thank you for your participation in the study. I will forward a copy of the interview transcript and summary of conclusions in the coming months.

Interview Protocol

- thank participant for involvement

- distribute "Information for Participants" sheet

- briefly discuss aims of study

- note that researcher has no preconceived notions about how such such activities should be managed, nor is the literature particularly comprehensive in this area, in any event

- note also that I am not here as an exercise in criticism, but to explore in an open way what goes on

- discuss commitment to ethical values – note approval of UTS Human Research Ethics Committee on 16 April.

  Important ethical values include:

- confidentiality – use of pseudonyms; disguising of other information; no interest in commercial in confidence information; secure storage of information

- openness – intention to provide a copy of interview transcript to participants, as well as a summary of conclusions – thus also seeking permission to record interview

- offering participants freedom to withdraw at any time, without question

- participants should feel free to ask any questions, now or at any time during the interview and study.

  Seek endorsement of Research Consent Form.

RESEARCH CONSENT FORM

I _____ agree to participate in the research project entitled "The Strategic Management of International Entrepreneurial Activities in Australian Universities" being conducted by David Poole, a PhD student in the School of Management at the University of Technology, Sydney.

I understand that the purpose of the study is to explore how Australian universities manage their international entrepreneurial activities, such as the recruitment of international students and the development of offshore delivery programs.

I understand that my participation in this research will involve participating in a semi-structured interview of approximately 40 to 50 minutes, as well as giving the researcher access to non-confidential documents relating to the institution's international activities. I further understand that my identity and that of the institution will remain confidential in any publications or outputs arising from the research, and that the interview will be audio-taped for later analysis.

I further understand that I can contact David Poole, telephone [redacted], or his supervisor Associate Professor Graham Pratt, telephone 02 9514 5167, if I have any concerns about the research or wish to discuss any issue related to the research. I also understand that I am free to withdraw my participation from this research project at any time I wish and without giving a reason.

I agree that David Poole has answered my questions fully and clearly, and I understand that issued of participant privacy and confidentiality will be stressed throughout the research project.

I agree that the research data gathered from this project may be published in a form that does not identify me in any way.

_____   _____/_____/_____
Signed by   Date
_____   _____/_____/_____
Witnessed by   Date

NOTE:
This study has been approved by the University of Technology, Sydney, Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any complaints or reservations about any aspect of your participation in the research which you cannot resolve with the researcher, you may contact the Ethics Committee through the Research Ethics Officer, Ms Susanna Davis (phone: 02 9514 1279). Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated fully and you will be informed of the outcome.

DOCUMENT SUMMARY SHEET

Institution:
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Document:
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Author and Date: _____

Summary of Material: _____

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Issues and Reflections: _____

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OBSERVATION SUMMARY SHEET

Institution:

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Observations and Reflections (including dates and times):

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INTERVIEW REFLECTIVE JOURNAL

Institution:
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Interviewee:
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Key Themes, Underlying Issues and Implications for Theory:

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METHODOLOGICAL JOURNAL

Institution:

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Methodological Issues and Reflections (including notation dates):

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