Developing Institutional Internationalisation Policies and Strategies: an Overview of Key Issues

The purpose of the article is to describe the key concepts and strategic choices for European institutional leaders and managers when deciding how to approach and deliver new forms of internationalisation. In providing an overview of key considerations and actions in these areas, the article takes as its starting point the variety of missions and contexts in which higher education institutions and their leaders operate.

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1. Introduction

Universities’ relationships to internationalisation are dynamic and changing. The earliest universities were in many senses international institutions: places for developing, collecting, preserving, exchanging and communicating knowledge across political and geographical borders. Initially, these functions were restricted by the boundaries of knowledge, of specialist disciplines and the privileged access to knowledge of elite groups. In more modern times, in the late 19th and 20th centuries, universities have typically been tied to the aspirations of nation states, with the boundaries of their work expanding, but also becoming more sharply defined as new higher-level institutions have been created or have emerged to deal with the expansion of knowledge and access to it. The idea of the university as an ‘international institution’ has remained, but its practical manifestation has become more diverse across countries and regions and across institutions within countries. Within universities too, internationalisation has often been practised in different ways across the functions of education, research, and knowledge exchange or knowledge transfer.

By the early 21st century, we find that the concept of internationalisation has perhaps shifted from being a universal truth (all universities are by definition ‘international’) to a more relative concept (some universities are more international than others). Internationalisation at national level has become increasingly political, as it plays out in the battle between open access to knowledge and education in a mass system, and privileged access to knowledge, education and research through more sharply differentiated hierarchies of universities. Competition is also part of internationalisation at institutional level in some countries; this is increasingly visible in the recruitment of international students from beyond European borders and in the acquisition of resources for research at European level and outside Europe. Competition is also present, though as yet less visible, in the recruitment of European students by new international higher education businesses within Europe’s borders.

Yet despite these instrumentalist dimensions of internationalisation, there are also new universal drivers. All institutions and societies collectively, and all students, staff and citizens individually, are affected by the mobility of ideas, finance, labour and trade which are some of the hallmarks of globalisation. It is also the responsibility of universities, as public and social institutions, to debate and provide space for critique on the impacts of globalisation. So internationalisation is a key agenda for all institutions, but not a simple one. Both the external and internal landscape of internationalisation is complex and challenging and institu-

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1 Please see Scott, P., article A 3.1-1 in this Handbook, for a full discussion on these drivers at each level.
tional leaders will need to make strategic choices about what it means for them in order to identify their priorities for action. This article examines the nature of the choices to be made and the kind of operational decisions to be taken to give effect to these choices.

2. Internationalisation: articulating and debating different rationales, concepts and activities

Most authors who write about internationalisation\(^2\) argue that the rationales for engaging internationally and being international need to be considered and articulated at institutional level. The reasons for this are alluded to in the introduction, but can be spelt out more clearly as a basis for institutional decision making:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Internationalisation at institutional level</th>
</tr>
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</table>
| **1. Fit for purpose**  
Institutions have different histories, missions, geographical locations, range of activities and disciplines, funding, market position and opportunities. Internationalisation approaches need to be ‘fit for purpose’ in relation to different institutional trajectories, even where groups of institutions, such as state public universities or research-intensive universities, share similar characteristics. |
| **2. Institutional profiles**  
Institutions will have different disciplinary and programme portfolios, and their profiles in relation to research, education, undergraduate and post-graduate students, links to business and regional agendas are likely to be different. Their present position and future aspirations will need to vary accordingly. |
| **3. National and regional context**  
The national and regional context in which institutions are seeking to develop or change their approach to internationalisation differs considerably. In some countries, internationalisation is a route to joining a wider higher education community, in others it is a route to building capacity and capability locally. For some countries, internationalisation is supported by national policies and funding mechanisms, while in others, the drivers towards internationalisation for individual students or institutions may be at odds with national policies. Countries in transition may find they can internationalise faster than some countries with more developed higher education systems and national policies. And finally, some institutions, because of reputational drivers and advantages, will be able to grow beyond national boundaries and constraints to position themselves as global universities. |

4. Engagement and prioritisation  
Strategic choices involve political engagement internally and externally in order to debate and negotiate between different possibilities and opportunities, some of which will conflict or involve competing values and preferences among students, staff and governmental agencies. Where resources are constrained, they will need to be prioritised and allocated according to the choices made and compromises agreed.

5. Organisation, delivery and promotion  
Articulating institutional rationales for internationalisation is necessary not only to determine the direction to be taken and the boundaries of what is to be done or not done. It is also to determine how the agenda is to be organised, co-ordinated and delivered internally, and described and promoted externally to partners, stakeholders and clients.

Handout B 1.1-1-1  
Internationalisation at institutional level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variety of institutional rationales</th>
<th>2.1 Rationales for internationalisation: why do it?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jane Knight(^3) and Hans de Wit(^4) have tracked the changing rationales for internationalisation at national and institutional levels, and the International Association of Universities (IAU) has conducted surveys of its members (in 2003 and 2005) to identify trends in different countries and regions. It is important to recognise that the rationales for internationalisation differ quite markedly across countries and regions of the world. For example, in the UK and Australia, economic rationales are dominant, while in other countries and regions, although economic rationales are growing – particularly at national level, other rationales such as human resource capacity-building, internationalising staff and developing international co-operation are very important. A variety of rationales is captured in Table B 1.1-1-1 below.</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rationales</th>
<th>Constituent elements or focus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social and cultural</td>
<td>• National cultural identity</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>• Intercultural understanding</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Citizenship development</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Social and community development</td>
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<tr>
<td>Political</td>
<td>• Foreign policy</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• National security</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Peace and mutual understanding</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>• National identity</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Regional identity</td>
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<tr>
<td>Economic</td>
<td>• Economic growth and competitiveness</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Labour market</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Financial incentives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Income generation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic</td>
<td>• International dimension to teaching and research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Extension of academic horizons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Institution-building</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>• Profile and status</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Enhancement of quality and curriculum development</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• International academic standards</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Research collaborations</td>
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<tr>
<td>Competitive</td>
<td>• International branding or positioning</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Strategic alliances</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Knowledge production</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Knowledge transfer</td>
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<tr>
<td>Developmental</td>
<td>• Student and staff development</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Institutional learning and exchange</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Capacity building</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Technical assistance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table B 1.1-1-1 Institutional rationales for internationalisation

It is also important to recognise that the rationales for internationalisation are likely to differ between different groups of people. Domestic students may have different interests and expectations of internationalisation from non-nationals. Staff may perceive different benefits and opportunities or identify serious barriers to internationalisation. Institutional leaders and managers may have different objectives from deans of faculty or heads of department. Rationales may also need to
differ according to function, such as education, research or enterprise, particularly if institutions are at different stages of development in these areas. For example, if research in the Faculty of Engineering is strong, it is likely to attract international students and to involve international research collaborations. However, in the same institution, research in local history may involve regional partners (or none at all) and be aimed at nationally-recruited students. A key issue for institutional leaders and managers is to decide whether it is practically possible – and desirable – to find a single rationale to underpin the development of institutional strategies and policies, or whether multiple rationales and differentiated strategies across disciplines or decentralised faculties make more sense.

2.2 Concepts of internationalisation: why they are needed and how they are changing

Common understandings and core elements

From detailed evidence gained recently in one institution\(^5\) as well as evidence drawn from across institutions and countries\(^6\), it is clear that the concept of internationalisation does not mean the same thing to different constituencies either within or outside institutions, nor has it remained static over time, as suggested in the introduction. This provides a further reason for engaging in discussion and debate. Where a discussion of rationales answers the questions: ‘why are we doing internationalisation?’ and ‘what kind of internationalisation should we be doing or not doing?’, a discussion of concepts seeks to identify how internationalisation is understood, whether there are common understandings or not, and what the core elements of internationalisation are or might be for the institution. These are central ingredients for the development of strategies and policies for internationalisation.

Integrated internationalisation strategy

A useful distinction is captured by Jane Knight\(^7\) in her analysis of how institutional approaches to internationalisation are changing. She argues that institutions have engaged in international activities of varying degrees of intensity for a long time. For example, many research collaborations involve international partners, institutions attract international students and encourage student and staff exchanges across countries, and institutions deliver a range of services to businesses, some – or many – of which have international dimensions. However, a differentiating factor is that institutions are now actively seeking to


Institutional policies and strategies

Approaches Policies and strategies

integrate what may have been disparate international activities into a holistic approach to internationalisation, contained in a strategy for internationalisation, linked to institutional mission and planning. Moving from a position of engaging in international activities to developing an internationalisation strategy involves two significant changes and a range of operational challenges, for example:

- the need to bring functions together, horizontally, across different disciplines and service areas of the institution, so that they complement each other and add value in ways that make the whole greater than the sum of the parts (e.g. teaching and curricula, research, business and community development on the academic side and finance, human resources, marketing and quality assurance on the services side of the institutions’ functions);

- the need to operate more formally and strategically as an institution, adopting a proactive rather than responsive stance to international engagement, collaboration and opportunities. This implies a need to align international activities and international engagement, vertically, from the level of individual academics, through departments, schools and faculties, to the corporate level.

Jane Knight’s definition describes internationalisation in this form as a process which touches all aspects of the institution:

> “Internationalisation at national, sector or institutional level is defined as the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education.”

A further important conceptualisation is that made between ‘internationalisation abroad’ and ‘internationalisation at home’8. Making such distinctions is useful because each form of internationalisation may require different institutional structures and governance arrangements. In addition, some activities may be readily organised and managed by individual academics or academic departments, while others require organisation, management, resourcing and recording at the institutional level.

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## B 1.1-1 Institutional policies and strategies

### Policies and strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Approaches</th>
</tr>
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</table>
| Movement of people | • Recruitment of international students  
| | • Strategic alliances/partnerships with overseas institutions  
| | • Staff and student exchange programmes  
| | • Development of alumni networks  
| | • Joint faculty appointments  
| | • Opportunities for international volunteering, work or study placements  
| International projects | • Academic and research co-operations and partnerships  
| | • Participation in EU research projects (through Framework programmes)  
| | • Publications with international partners  
| | • Partnerships with business  
| | • Development of international companies  
| Mobility of programmes | • Joint programmes  
| | • Overseas consultancy and development  
| | • Franchise  
| | • Exchange of curriculum resources and learning materials  
| | • Distance and e-learning programmes  
| | • QA and validation  
| | • Twinning arrangements  
| Mobility of providers | • Establishment of branch centres abroad  
| | • Establishment of branch campuses abroad  
| | • Establishment of new institutions in collaboration with local providers  
| | • Development of regional offices (for market intelligence and permanent presence of the university abroad)  

### Table B 1.1-2 Internationalisation abroad

#### Varied levels of experience

In continental Europe, the first two categories, movement of people and international projects have traditionally been the main focus for internationalisation, although some countries have also established national universities in other countries (for example, German and British universities in Egypt). European countries also vary in their success in promoting the outward mobility of domestic students and the recruitment of international students from outside Europe. For some countries, the latter is a relatively new venture while for others it is long-standing.

#### More recent ventures

The last two categories, mobility of programmes and providers are more recent forms of internationalisation and to a large extent, reflect the growth of market elements in internationalisation such as collaborations with private sector organisations in other countries and regions, and the wider development of trans-national education.
### Approaches

#### Curriculum, programmes, research
- Internationalisation of the curriculum (integration of international perspectives, international relevance)
- Study abroad opportunities and study visits
- Implementation of Bologna process
- Development of courses attractive to international students
- Internationalisation of research
- Encouraging acquisition of language skills
- Provision of specialist or tailored support for international students (induction, support, advice)
- English-language teaching
- Study skills for international students
- International foundation programmes

#### Teaching & learning process
- International recruitment of staff (teaching & research) and of students
- Embracing different pedagogical cultures to ensure that teaching is sensitive to students' educational contexts
- Staff development on intercultural understanding

#### Services & extra-curricular activities
- Improvement of current provision of international student facilities
- Encouragement of international students to participate fully in the social and cultural life of the university
- Compliance with national and European legislation
- Commitment to equality and diversity
- Implementation of Lisbon convention for the recognition of foreign qualifications

### Table B.1.1-3 Internationalisation at home

The main focus of internationalisation at home activities is on the academic and developmental rationales previously identified in Table B.1.1-1 above. They include a combination of actions that are tailored to the needs of international students entering the home campus and the needs of domestic students for an education that will equip them as global citizens.

### 3. Developing strategies

In the wider literature on strategy, it is evident that there are many different ways of developing, articulating and agreeing direction and positioning for an organisation or unit. The important questions to ask in relation to strategy development and design are: where are we now in relation to internationalisation and where do we want to be in five or more years’ time? A simple conceptual distinction to help answer
these questions (although involving hard work in practice) is *either* to identify one’s present position (a) and articulate the direction and position for the future (say, in 5, 10 or 20 years’ time) *or* to identify where one may wish to be in the future (b) in a similar time-scale, and work backwards to where one is now by identifying and mapping the gap between the future and the present position. Figure B 1.1-1-1 provides an illustration of these two approaches.

**Fig. B 1.1-1-1**  
Ways of developing strategy

**SWOT analysis**

Techniques for approach a) include undertaking a SWOT analysis (identifying strengths, weaknesses, threats and opportunities) in relation to the institution’s current approaches to international activities and internationalisation, identifying the main rationales (as in Table B 1.1-1-1) for internationalisation, and debating the kinds of activities that need to be developed (as in Tables B 1.1-1-2 and -3). It will then be necessary to develop a list of priorities for the international activities and the countries and regions identified.

**Other forms of analysis**

Other forms of analysis include the use of measurement tools such as the European Business Excellence Model to identify the outcomes to be achieved and the internal ‘enabling processes’ that lead to the achievement of results (ie leadership and governance, financial resources, organisational structures, human resource and planning systems, marketing and organisational processes such as staff development, internal communication and developing of commitment). Benchmarking processes may also be useful in comparing the institution with others on relevant dimensions, such as numbers of international students or staff, approaches to mobility, joint degrees or the establishment of international centres.

Techniques for approach b) include undertaking first a PESTEL analysis (identifying the political, economic, social, technological, environmental and legal trends and drivers that may affect future positioning) against a SWOT analysis of where the institution is now. Useful
Institutional policies and strategies

Approaches

Institutional positioning

An important aspect of strategy development, beyond the consideration of rationales and the meta-level analyses described above, is to consider the institution’s position, both in general terms and specifically in relation to a number of factors including:

• Position in relation to other institutions, e.g. in league tables, discipline profile, research, programme portfolio, overseas markets for research and education, where relevant

• Geographical location

• European advantages and opportunities, including the internal and external dimension of the European Higher Education Area, the European Research Area, Bologna as a European trademark, mobility for students, joint degrees and ECTS

• Mission

• Aspirations – academic, developmental, financial, social, ethical; these may differ for different groups within the institution and can be elicited in the discussion of rationales, see above

• Organisational structures appropriate to the development or expansion of international activity and the delivery of an internationalisation strategy

• Capacity and capability, particularly in terms of the skills, motivations and incentives for academic, professional and administrative staff

• Management and leadership capacity, including time, knowledge, skills and motivation, management information systems, level of autonomy and appropriate governance arrangements

• Level of financial resources and ability to deploy these in support of the institution’s strategy

• National policies, particularly in relation to immigration, regulation and accreditation, work experience, employment opportunities, scholarships and support for international students and staff, national and international Codes of Conduct.

Handout B 1.1-1-2  Factors relevant to institutional positioning

**Identifying and debating strategic choices**

In addition, is the general approach to be built on collaboration or competition, or both, in relation to different activities or countries? Furthermore, is the institution well-placed to operate on its own internationally, or will it need to form partnerships? A matrix can be used to identify and debate the possible strategic choices, as Figure B 1-1-1-2 illustrates. This might be used to discuss, for example, which partners to seek out in relation to particular activities, such as undergraduate student recruitment, postgraduate programmes, research collaborations, or to identify where in the world the institution will operate by itself or in partnership with others, for example with private sector partners in Japan or with public sector universities in Brazil.
Another way to consider institutional positioning is to review approaches to internationalisation in other countries. Three approaches provide useful possibilities.

Figure B 1.1-1-2 above can assist in debating choices and possibilities. However, without sound knowledge of where the institution is now, it will be difficult both to identify appropriate strategies and to assess what needs to be done to implement the strategy. A useful tool for institutional self-analysis has been developed by Middlehurst and Woodfield\textsuperscript{10}, building on the International Quality Review Process (IQRP) originally developed by Knight, de Wit and colleagues.\textsuperscript{11} The Institutional Audit Tool invites institutions to collect both primary and secondary data to explore the institution’s approach to internationalisation. The primary data can be collected by means of questionnaires, qualitative interviews with staff and students, focus groups and observation of practice while the secondary data consists of documentary and statistical information relating to the institution’s approach to internationalisation. The topics covered by the audit tool are outlined in Table B 1.1-1-4.


\textsuperscript{11} OECD (1999). \textit{Op cit.}
Beyond the UK, other countries have been giving increasing attention to supporting their institutions’ efforts to develop internationalisation strategies and policies. The American Council on Education (ACE) has been studying internationalisation on US campuses for the last five years and has undertaken regular surveys of the extent and scope of activities as well as producing guidance on the change management issues involved.\textsuperscript{12} ACE has also produced more focused working papers on specific issues in internationalisation such as guidance on developing curricular partnerships and joint programmes \textsuperscript{13} and guidance and case studies on offering US degrees through overseas branch
In Australia, both the federal government and the Vice Chancellor’s Committee (Rectors’ Conference), Universities Australia, have encouraged the development of internationalisation strategies and Australia has been particularly active in the development of collaborative teaching partnerships and offshore campuses. There has been a Code of Practice and Guidelines for Australian universities on the provision of education to international students since April 2005.

4. Delivering internationalisation: issues to consider in implementing strategies and policies

Internationalisation shares common elements with other aspects of institutional strategy and policy, particularly those aspects – such as quality – that require debate and the building of consensus and commitment, and that cut across all the functions and operations of the institution. Internationalisation requires planning and prioritising, leadership, organisation and management, the deployment and development of financial and human resources, assessment of risks and benefits, and measurement and evaluation of process and results. These issues are dealt with in detail in other articles in this Handbook, but a brief overview is offered here.

4.1 Planning and prioritising

The ACE Handbook offers guidance on approaches to planning for internationalisation. They suggest either that a specialist team is created to engage in a review of the institutions’ current approach and to build from this in terms of a plan for the future or to involve a wider group of staff at senior and other levels in the process. The authors suggest that the plan needs to be situated in relation to the climate of the institution as it stands: a vision for internationalisation may be aspirational, but the plan needs to be grounded in reality. It needs to be built on careful consideration of the readiness of individuals, departments or faculties to implement the plan, as well as the practical issues of capacity and resources.

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Institutional policies and strategies

Priorities for action
A plan also needs to include clear priorities for action so that resources can be effectively targeted on the strategic objectives in the plan. Since there may be many possible priorities, particularly those generated at different levels of the institution, it is useful to have criteria that can guide the selection of priorities and decide between competing or conflicting priorities. Such criteria can be linked to the analysis of institutional rationales described above and to specific aspects of internationalisation, such as development of curricula and student learning outcomes or development of international research collaborations and staff exchange programmes. The process of prioritisation will help to address another key aspect of planning, that is, the development of support across the institution for the delivery of the strategy.

Main contents of plan
As ACE suggests, an internationalisation plan may include many elements, but most plans will include the following: a vision statement that reflects the culture of the institution and the role of internationalisation in the institution’s future goals, strategic priorities or goals and performance indicators (that is, evidence of success in achieving the objectives), action items, responsibilities and time-lines to achieve the objectives, and costs.16

4.2 Leadership, organisation and management of internationalisation strategies

Leadership roles
Leadership is needed at several levels of the institution if internationalisation is to be taken seriously as a strategic priority and if resources are to be appropriately assigned and deployed. Recent studies in the UK have paid particular attention to leadership17 and the role played by leaders at different levels of the institution, from institutional leaders such as rectors and heads of university administration, to academic leaders, professional service leaders and student leaders. Such studies have also focused in detail on the new roles that are emerging at senior levels including pro-vice chancellors (assistant or deputy rectors) for external affairs or international development, and directors of internationalisation.18 Leadership is closely related to governance in countries which have a governing board, including executive and lay members. In these cases, the governing body may be responsible both for high level direction in relation to internationalisation strategies and policies.

16 Further discussion on the topic of institutional strategic planning can be found in Van Rooijen, M., article B 1.1-3 of this Handbook.
and for assessing risks and opportunities. In other countries, these functions are fulfilled at national or State level.\footnote{For a fuller discussion on this topic, please see Coelen, R. article B 1.1-2 of this Handbook.}

Some of the issues that governing bodies will need to address include:

- the choice of international strategic partners, particularly in relation to reputational or financial risk;
- academic standards and quality associated with the delivery of trans-national and collaborative programmes;
- the goals and outcomes for students in relation to the internationalisation strategy and the institution’s success in achieving these;
- conformity to the requirements of legislation and regulations in other countries and regions.

The responsible authorities, whether at governing body or State level, will wish to exercise their responsibilities through access to information and data that will increasingly need to be generated by institutions in relation to their internationalisation activities.

The UK studies offer many case examples of how international activities are organised and co-ordinated, including the changing roles and structures of international offices, the structures of overseas’ offices, the skills required of international office staff and the types of committees and working groups that are used to operationalise strategies and policies. The most recent study\footnote{Fielden, J. (2008). \textit{The Practice of Internationalisation: Managing International Activities in UK Universities}. UK Higher Education International Unit, Research Series/1. London: UK International Unit.} also contains benchmarking data for the UK, Australia and Canada. These data illustrate, for example, the wide ranging functions of international offices, with those in Australia having the widest range of functions including marketing, enquiries, admissions and student services, and the importance of development work overseas for Canadian institutions. The Canadian example has parallels with activities in continental Europe, since the principal motive for expanding the numbers of international students is to increase the internationalisation of the campus, rather than to generate income. A further point of reference is that deans, rather than rectors and vice-rectors, have had principal responsibility for designing and developing international plans, often building on partnerships developed at faculty level. Institution-level leadership has been the focus for developing strategies for particular countries, and a majority of institutions appear to have taken this route, according to the Association of Universities and Colleges Canada (AUCC) 2007 survey.
A classification of the functions of an international office by John Fielden\textsuperscript{21} illustrates how these change as internationalisation itself changes and develops. What is regarded as ‘core’, ‘core plus’ or ‘comprehensive’ will vary from country to country and from institution to institution.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Core</th>
<th>Core Plus</th>
<th>Comprehensive</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>International marketing, liaison with agents</td>
<td>Study abroad, student mobility</td>
<td>Overall responsibility for the internationalisation strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Handling international enquiries</td>
<td>Support for incoming international staff and their families</td>
<td>Looking after incoming international visitors and scholars</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Managing international admissions</td>
<td>Staff travel and research abroad</td>
<td>International market intelligence and due diligence on potential partners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Student support before and after arrival</td>
<td>Review and due diligence for agreements and Memoranda of Understanding (MoUs)</td>
<td>International alumni relations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Compliance with legislation and codes of conduct</td>
<td>Support for academic exchanges and teaching partnerships</td>
<td>Fostering global employability</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>English and other language support</td>
<td>Integrating the experience of international and domestic students</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Financial and welfare advice for students</td>
<td>Delivering staff and student development in cross-cultural matters</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Assisting with access to scholarships</td>
<td>Management of international volunteering</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Management of overseas’ offices</td>
<td>Relationships with international networks and associations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table B 1.1-5 Changing functions of an international office (with reference to UK and Australia)

4.3 Financial and human resources

For all institutions, it is difficult to quantify the level of financial and human resources that are needed or may need to be devoted to delivering an internationalisation strategy. The reasons for this vary and include: the difficulty of separating aspects of ‘new internationalisation’ from existing efforts that are contained within existing institutional and faculty budgets; the lack of autonomy in some universities in Europe whereby institutions or faculties do not have full discretion over their budgets and the allocation of resources; or the difficulties of identifying the costs associated with particular aspects of internationalisation given the spread of activities across many functions of the institution. Both the UK and US studies offer some guidance in relation to funding to support internationalisation that can be built upon further.

Some issues to consider when identifying necessary resources include:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions to address in allocating resources</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Is there a central budget available for internationalisation, or can separate budgets be identified at institutional and other levels?</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What are the costs of an international office, and what further resources may be needed to support a widening of its activities?</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are central or faculty funds available to fund exploratory missions related to strategic partnership development, including due diligence assessment?</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are central or faculty funds available to finance incoming scholars?</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are central funds available to fund specific posts in faculties to support the development of internationalisation?</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are there funds available for overseas fellowships for staff or student placements?</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What external sources of funding might be available for scholarships or other activities?</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When considering specific objectives and actions, can these actions be classified as ‘funding neutral’, or ‘needs additional funding’ or ‘requires further analysis to identify funding needs and opportunities’?</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does the institution have or need a strategic investment fund for internationalisation?</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Can specific business cases and business plans be developed for new international projects and activities? □

What are the specific cost elements of setting up overseas operations? □

Do faculty and administrative staff have the financial skills to undertake these activities? □

Checklist B 1.1-1-1 Sample checklist for resource allocation

Human resources

An assessment of the human resources to be devoted to internationalisation needs to be no less rigorous than that devoted to finance. In some new aspects of internationalisation, such as the development of joint degrees or overseas campuses, particular skills will need to be deployed, including, in many cases, incentives and rewards for faculty participation. Attention will also need to be given to the employment of staff, where contracts lie with the home institution, and to the contracts and human resource management arrangements for foreign staff wherever these are located. In all cases, the development of skills in negotiation, collaboration and partnership working and in intercultural awareness and sensitivity will be important. The ability to communicate in more than one language is also an important advantage for internationalisation.

4.4 Assessing risks and benefits

Assessing risks and benefits will vary, of course, by institution and country, as well as by level and function within the institution. The process may be part of the original discussion of rationales for internationalisation, or relate to this, and be linked to other parts of the process of planning, prioritisation and management. Risks and benefits will differ for different constituencies and stakeholders inside and outside the institution. Typical areas of risk to assess include: financial and economic risks, reputational and ethical risks, environmental and political risks, social and technological risks. These can be assessed in terms of short, medium and long-term risks and in terms of level of risk: high, medium or low. An assessment of benefits can follow a similar process and will be particularly useful as part of building commitment from different groups to the internationalisation process.22

22 For a fuller discussion on this topic, please see Woodhouse, D. and Antony, S., article B 3.1 of this Handbook.
4.5 Measurement and evaluation of process and results

Universities and colleges are becoming more sophisticated in their approach to collecting and distilling management information, as well as information for public accountability. This ability, in turn, supports a number of related processes including evaluation and the production of key performance indicators (KPIs). ACE\textsuperscript{23} notes that institutional performance indicators should be directly linked to strategic priorities and should provide useful feedback to the institution for improvement to programmes and practices. At the University of British Columbia in Canada, this approach is clear in that the university’s overall strategy, including internationalisation, has goals, strategies and targets set for each of five elements and individuals are held accountable with annual assessments required on the progress made.

Examples of quantitative performance indicators are easy to generate and readily available. They may include, as the UK study by Fielden\textsuperscript{24} suggests:

- Numbers of home students studying or working overseas in any year
- Number of new strategic partnerships agreed each year
- Number of fully operational strategic partnerships
- Number of operationally active memoranda of understandings or other strategic partnerships
- Percentage of international students on campus
- Number of students studying offshore for the university’s degrees
- Percentage of academic staff that are international
- Number of articles co-authored with international partners
- Research funding generated from international sources
- Numbers of inward international visitors
- Numbers of international student and staff volunteers
- Numbers of invitations for staff to give keynote addresses to international conferences and events
- Scale of international media coverage
- Institutional and discipline performance in international league tables.

\textbf{Handout B 1.1-3 Performance indicators}

\textsuperscript{23} Olson, C., Green, M., & Hill, B. (2006). \textit{Op cit.}
\textsuperscript{24} Fielden, J. (2007). \textit{Op cit.}
However, more wide-ranging tools that address qualitative outcomes are also available. These include the assessment of student portfolios in relation to global learning outcomes, tests of attitudes and values towards intercultural issues and questionnaires to measure the degree of internationalisation of universities. In some cases, such as the evaluation of global learning outcomes, surveys can be done at different levels including institution, department and student performance levels. The ACE provides many case study examples from their work with US institutions. At institutional level, as indicated above, review processes and audit tools have also been developed as aids to evaluation and methods of charting development and progress towards the achievement of institutional strategies.

5. Conclusions

The field of internationalisation continues to expand into new territories which draw upon universities’ traditional values but also challenge them as other concepts and ideologies compete for attention. Institutions of higher education need to remember who they are and decide what their role is in their own societies and in the international arena, as they seek to forge a competitive and collaborative path in an increasingly global world.

The tasks of strategy development, positioning and delivery of services, projects and activities are not easy; they require leadership, management, resourcing and skills development at many levels of sophistication and delivery. However, universities and colleges in different parts of the world have been travelling the road of internationalisation for some time, so there are many tools available for strategic leaders and managers to use and much rich experience from which to learn.
Bibliography


Biography:

Robin Middlehurst is professor of Higher Education, Kingston University and Director, Strategy, Research and International, Leadership Foundation for Higher Education, UK. Robin has focused her research on borderless and trans-national education, leadership and governance, quality assurance and enhancement, and internationalisation policies at national and institutional level, undertaking commissions for UNESCO, OECD/IMHE, CHEA, COL and EUA.

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