European Association for International Education

Measuring success in the internationalisation of higher education

EAIE Occasional Paper 22

Editor Hans de Wit

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The mission of the EAIE is to stimulate and facilitate the internationalisation of higher education, meet the professional needs of individuals active in the field and bring together fellow professionals worldwide in all aspects of international education.

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Chapter 1
Measuring success in the internationalisation of higher education: an introduction

by Hans de Wit, Editor

The issue of quality assurance in internationalisation is not new. As early as 1993, the EAIE dedicated its The Hague conference to the topic of 'Quality in International Education'. *Occasional Paper 7* published the keynote address by Alan Smith, entitled 'International Education, a Question of Quality'. *Occasional Paper 10*, 1996, edited by Urbain DeWinter, bore the title 'Internationalisation and Quality Assurance: Goals, Strategies and Instruments'. In 1997, the OECD published a book edited by Jane Knight and Hans de Wit with the title *Quality and Internationalisation in Higher Education*. Why has a new Occasional Paper therefore been devoted to this issue?

The debate on how we measure what we do is wide open. One of the sessions at the 2007 EAIE conference in Trondheim posed the question: "Measurement of Success in Internationalisation: A Mission Impossible?" This session was well attended and elicited lively debate. This was reason enough to dedicate an occasional paper to the issue of measurement in internationalisation.

Measuring the success of what we do is becoming an increasingly urgent item for professionals in internationalisation. The international ranking of higher education institutions is a widely debated example of how measurement has started to influence our profession in a way that differs from the past. The call for accountability by students, faculty, deans, the management of higher education institutions and national governments, as well as the call for quality assurance, is an important issue on the agenda of higher education, in general, and this includes the internationalisation process, programmes and projects. Accreditation, ranking, certification, auditing and benchmarking have also become key items on the international higher education agenda.

Changing landscape of internationalisation

The landscape of international higher education has changed over the past ten to fifteen years.[1] Increasing competition in higher education and the commercialisation and cross-border delivery of higher education have challenged the value traditionally attached to exchanges and partnerships. The international dimension and the position of higher education in the global arena are given greater emphasis in international, national and institutional documents and mission statements than ever before. The 2006 International Association of Universities (IAU) survey[2] indicates that 73 percent of the participating higher education institutions assign high priority to internationalisation, 23 percent medium priority and only 2 percent low priority. John Scott[3] predicts in this regard that "rapid globalization and modern society point toward a future internationalization mission for the university as a service to the body of world-wide states." One can question whether this will be a general trend in higher education or whether it will only apply to a limited number of institutions. One can also question what type of internationalisation will define the mission of these universities. However, it is undeniable that internationalisation has become a core aspect of higher education at all levels. One can identify several stages of development in the internationalisation of higher education institutions. Teichler, for instance, identifies the following three stages in internationalisation in Europe:

1 from a predominantly 'vertical' pattern of cooperation and mobility towards the dominance of an international relationship on equal terms;
2 from casuistic action towards systematic policies of internationalisation; and
3 from a separation of specific international activities, on the one hand, and internationalisation of core activities, on the other hand, towards the integrated internationalisation of higher education.[4]

According to Teichler there is also a growing emphasis on 'marketisation', competition and management, something also stressed by others.[5] All these authors have a strong inclination to draw more attention to social cohesion and to the public role of higher education as an alternative force to the growing emphasis on competition, markets and entrepreneurialism in higher education. The trade in higher education is an important manifestation in this new landscape. The phenomenon is not entirely new. However, the identification of education as a service in the context of the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) of the World Trade Organisation (WTO) in 1995, in particular, is an expression of the increased importance of this development in higher education and its internationalisation.

It would be too easy, however, to assume that everything has changed over the past ten years with regard to the internationalisation of higher education, namely from a more cooperative model to a more competitive model. As Van der Wende writes: "Not surprisingly most continental European countries pursue a cooperative approach to internationalisation, which in terms of international learning and experience is more compatible with the traditional values of academia."[6]

In a benchmarking exercise on the internationalisation strategies of five European universities, I encountered clear differentiations. "Striking is the difference between the approaches to internationalization of three Northern European universities and two Southern European universities with respect to co-operation and competition. Where the two Southern European universities have a traditional cooperative approach, one Northern university has a strong competitive approach and the two Scandinavian universities are moving into the directions of such an approach, although all three mix it with co-operative activities, in particular in the framework of their involvement in the European programmes. These approaches give a more balanced picture to the idea of shifting paradigms for internationalisation from co-operative to competitive, as presented in current debate and study of the international dimension of higher education in Europe."[7] This was confirmed in a second benchmarking exercise, which involved three other European and four Latin American universities. "From all eight European universities, only one (the Anglosaxon) is more an example of the competitive model, where the seven continental universities are more a mixture of the cooperative and competitive model, with the Southern European being primarily cooperative. If we look at the Latin American institutions, all four are clearly of the cooperative model, with one, the private institution, showing more inclinations than the public one to incorporate competitive elements in their internationalisation strategy."[8]

Assessment of internationalisation

In other words, although there is an increasing emphasis on economic rationales, it would be too simple to state that the changing landscape of internationalisation is developing in similar ways in higher education throughout the world. There are different accents and approaches. Internationalisation strategies are filtered and contextualised by the specific internal context of the university and how they are embedded nationally.[9]

This observation is most relevant in relation to assessing the internationalisation strategies of universities. It is a message which also runs through the various contributions to this *Occasional Paper*, implicitly or explicitly. There is not one model for internationalisation, so in measuring internationalisation this diversity of rationales, approaches, objectives and strategies by region, country and institution must be taken into account. Bronwyn Jenkins-Deas notes in her contribution to this *Occasional Paper* that "institutions are engaged in international activities and processes for a variety of reasons." Mike Woolf observes that there are different objectives that stakeholders have to bear in mind when measuring internationalisation and that "international education may be measured as long as we recognise that the outcomes are partial and usually driven by an agenda beyond the purely educational." John K. Hudzik and Michael Stohl state that "the lack of attention to assessment ultimately weakens the priority which the institution gives to internationalisation," but at the same time that "assessments of internationalisation need to be aligned with core missions of the institution."

Furthermore, the outcomes and impact of internationalisation are crucial to the international education industry in Australia and have driven IDP Education to study this issue. Alan Olsen presents the results of their study in his contribution. Having said this, the statement made by Deardorff, Pysarchik and Yun in chapter 3 is true in all cases, namely that "with globalisation driving the demand for global-ready graduates, it becomes crucial for administrators to assess these outcomes of internationalisation to determine exactly what our students are learning through these efforts and how effective our programmes are in achieving the stated learning outcomes."

Some questions that are relevant in addressing the issue of assessment are:

- How do we measure what we do?
- What do we measure?
- What indicators do we use for assessment?
- Do we assess processes or activities?
- Do we carry out assessments with a view to improving the quality of our own process and activities or do we assess the contribution made by internationalisation to the improvement of the overall quality of higher education?
- Do we use a quantitative and/or a qualitative approach to measurement?
- Which instruments do we use, *ex post* or *ex ante* measurements, indicators, benchmarking, best practices, quality review, accreditation, certification, audits or rankings?
- Are we focussing on inputs, outputs or outcomes?

The ten chapters in this *Occasional Paper* and this introduction deal with these questions and provide examples of different methods, tools, processes and experiences. They are only a selection from amongst many examples of how internationalisation is assessed. However, together they address the key questions and provide useful input into the debate. The article by Hudzik and Stohl debates the relevance of measuring internationalisation, present issues and concerns. Deardorff, Pysarchik and Yun provide a framework for assessing outcomes, discuss some of the basics of assessment and provide a concrete example of how one university is assessing global learning outcomes. Coelen, Spinelli and Woolf link the issue to key present developments in internationalisation: ranking (Coelen), joint and double degrees (Spinelli), and education abroad (Woolf). This is followed by two articles which present tools and instruments for measuring internationalisation which originate from Germany and were developed by the Centre for Higher Education Development (CHE) in cooperation with a group of German institutions of higher education, and from The Netherlands, developed by the Netherlands Organisation for International Cooperation in Higher Education (Nuffic) in collaboration with a group of Dutch institutions.

Similar initiatives have been taken in other countries over the past years, as the following overview of initiatives beyond the scope of this *Occasional Paper* shows:

The Association of Commonwealth Universities (ACU) ran The ACU University Management Benchmarking Programme for the first time in 1996, primarily, but not exclusively, for Commonwealth universities. Both in 1998 and 2008, internationalisation has been one of the themes of the ACU's benchmarking exercise. The ACU Benchmarking Programme helps to identify areas for change and assists in setting targets for improvement and identifying techniques for managing change. The Programme focuses on the effectiveness of university-wide processes and policies rather than narrow departmental functions. It enables members to learn from each other's experience of difficulties and successes across international boundaries. Its mode of operation has been designed by university staff solely for use in universitis and has been refined, year after year, in the light of experience.

AUC describes benchmarking as a self-improvement tool for organisations. "It allows them to compare themselves with others, to identify their comparative strengths and weaknesses and learn how to improve. Benchmarking is a way of finding and adopting best practices. The ACU approach to benchmarking goes beyond the comparison of data-based scores and conventional performance indicators (SSRs, unit costs, completion rates); it looks at the processes by which results are achieved."[10]

The European Centre for Strategic Management of Universities (ESMU), together with CHE and UNESCO/CEPES and the Universidade de Aveiro in Portugal, has started a European Benchmarking Initiative in Higher Education, sponsored by the European Commission, which also includes internationalisation.[11] ESMU has been carrying out a benchmarking exercise for its member institutions, based on ACU's model, since 1999. In 2005, internationalisation was one of the themes. CHE has also carried out a project on measuring internationalisation of higher education in Germany.[12]

Another initiative is the project set up by the **American Council on Education**, known as 'Internationalizing the Campus'. Its *User's Guide* was published in 2003.[13]

NAFSA, the Association of International Educators, has a project entitled Accessing Best Practices in Internationalization (ABPI). NAFSA has published an annual report entitled *Internationalizing the Campus: Profiles of Success at Colleges and Universities* since 2003. Each year, this publication profiles colleges and universities, highlighting best practices in various aspects of internationalisation.

The following is a description of the ABPI:

> "It has been suggested that there are rationales, or motivations, common to all institutions that wish to integrate an international dimension into higher education. But what distinguishes certain colleges and universities as more successful in their efforts to internationalization than others? And how can the success of one institution inform the development of similar efforts and practices of others? This resource allows international educators to search online for the individual profiles that contain information and ideas that are most applicable to their particular situation. Whether you are charged with internationalizing your campus, your division, your department, or if instead you are researching a particular aspect of internationalization, Accessing Best Practices in Internationalization makes the NAFSA reports more immediately accessible to you today. In addition to having information about institutions, this resource also provides information on three internationalization frameworks currently in use in the higher education community."[14]

Also in **Japan**, the discussion on assessing the internationalisation of Japanese universities is in full swing.[15]

The **Spanish Agencia Nacional de Evaluacion de la Calidad y Acreditacion** (ANECA) conducted a pilot project in 2005–2006 with the aim of assessing the international relations of universities which involved five Spanish universities. Based on this pilot project, the European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM) recently gave the quality mark 'Committed to Excellence' to Universidad Pontificia de Comillas in Madrid for its international relations.[16]

The Forum on Education Abroad published *A Guide to Outcomes Assessment in Education Abroad* in 2007, edited by Mell C. Bolen.[17]

There are probably more interesting examples to be found and, although they all seem to have some common bases (in particular the Internal Quality Revue guidelines of the OECD's Programme on Institutional Management of Higher Education (IMHE) of 1999), there are also striking differences based on national contexts and institutional cultures.

The last three articles in this *Occasional Paper* provide case studies, namely an Australian study by Alan Olsen which explores the comparative academic performance of international and Australian students, a Canadian case study which discusses experience with reviewing the quality of internationalisation by Bronwyn Jenkins-Deas and a case study which focuses on benchmarking internationalisation in Europe and Latin America by Hans de Wit. These articles give an insight into the outcomes and impact on students of international education at a national level (Australia, in particular the Group of 8 universities). They also show how an institution can use the assessment of its internationalisation for its further strategic development (Malaspina University College). Furthermore, they give an insight into how one can learn about the comparative position of one's institution in relation to others from benchmarking internationalisation strategies. Finally, they show how regional and national contexts and the cultures of institutions influence such strategies, in this case Latin America and Europe, based on a study for ESMU and an Alfa Project.[18]

The examples in this *Occasional Paper* demonstrate the complexity of the elements we assess: inputs (resources available to support internationalisation efforts), outputs (the amount and types of work or activity undertaken in support of internationalisation efforts) and/or outcomes (impacts or end results). According to Hudzik and Stohl, outcomes are “usually most closely associated with measuring goal achievement and the missions of institutions (...) and are the really important measures.” However, the German authors state that only input and output indicators are developed, as outcomes would have required large-scale, in-depth surveys of samples, which was beyond the scope of the project. The Dutch MINT tool also steers clear of outcomes. The contribution by Deardorff, Pysarchik and Yun, however, makes it clear that the assessment of outcomes is possible and that workable frameworks are available. The Australian study also illustrates this.

This *Occasional Paper* does not seek to provide the final answer to how one can measure success in internationalisation, since there is too much diversity in what is meant by success, how internationalisation is defined and how and what one measures. This *Occasional Paper* seeks rather to outline the context and the critical issues, and to give some examples (tools and instruments) that may be of use to institutions in assessing their internationalisation policies and activities. The debate will continue and it is important that EAIE and its sister organisations continue to address the issues in its conferences, workshops and seminars. Learning from the experience obtained from the use of the various instruments may further enhance their quality and might lead to more common understanding of what we measure when we assess internationalisation and how we do so. For the future, tools for measuring outcomes will probably be the most important and, at the same time, the most complicated tools to develop. For the moment, the assessment of inputs and outputs is given greater emphasis in the measurement of internationalisation strategies in institutions of higher education, at least in Europe. However, as the contributions by Deardorff, Pysarchik and Yun, and by Alan Olsen show, we can learn from experience acquired elsewhere.

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Chapter 2
Modelling assessment of the outcomes and impacts of internationalisation

by John K. Hudzik and Michael Stohl

Introduction: a bias towards an integrated approach to assessment

Assessments of the impact and outcomes of international activity should occur with reference to the overall missions and goals of institutions. In short, assessments should simultaneously probe not only the particular outcomes of internationalisation but also the contribution of these to the overarching directions and aspirations of institutions. Internationalisation needs to contribute to core missions and values of institutions or it will never rise above secondary status. The underlying implication is that internationalisation must permeate the missions and ethos of institutions to be successful. It should not be merely a sideshow or an appendage to the institution's main objectives.

This is not a universally shared view of the role of internationalisation in universities. Many see internationalisation as one of the shops in the university mall from which some elect to purchase a product, rather than as something to which all shops in the mall contribute in unique ways. Yet this limited view of internationalisation seems anathema to the fundamental conceptualisation of a 'university' or a 'forum' of learning. After all, thinking across cultures, borders and systems is at the heart of both classical and contemporary discovery and learning in education. The power of internationalisation which permeates an institution has the capacity to strengthen all its parts, just as the power of interdisciplinary work and perspective has the capacity to strengthen core disciplinary knowledge bases, and *vice versa*. This is the paradigm that shapes our approach to thinking about how to assess the outcomes of internationalisation.

We look at various levels of assessment (including input, output and outcomes/impact) and examine the contributions, limitations and benefits of each. We note a number of related measurement and methodological issues which both shape and define the purposes of assessment and the value added by doing it. These include the important choices involved in operationalising measurement.

Ultimately the assessment of international activity focuses on core questions: (1) What are the institutional objectives related to international activity? (2) How do we measure and know whether objectives have been achieved (or to what degree)? (3) What do the achievements contribute or what value do they add to overall missions and objectives of the institution?

This chapter takes the position that the lack of attention to assessment ultimately weakens the priority which the institution gives to internationalisation. It also points out that assessment done well is not without its cost and methodological complexities.

A commitment to internationalisation must be accompanied by a commitment to assessing the outcomes of internationalisation.

Defining assessment scope

Scope of the institution's mission

Assessments of internationalisation need to be aligned with core missions of the institution. Arguably, all institutions of higher education engage to some degree in both knowledge creation and knowledge dissemination. There is tremendous diversity, however, in the attention and priority given to instructional, research and outreach service missions across institutions: liberal arts institutions tend to emphasise undergraduate instruction; some institutions emphasise graduate education and research; large and comprehensive institutions engage in all the missions of instruction and research; and many also give emphasis to community outreach/engagement and problem solving, both at home and abroad (*eg* international development activity). The range of assessment should match the range of institutional missions. As a result, assessment foci and criteria will vary appropriately. This makes it difficult and inappropriate for regulatory bodies to promulgate a single model of assessment and provide criteria which are uniformly applicable across all institutions.

Responsibility for internationalisation

Another key 'alignment' issue is who is responsible for internationalisation—all majors and academic units or, alternatively, only a few specialist individuals and departments. If the narrow view is taken, namely that it is only the responsibility of some, then assessment might focus on their contributions (inputs and outputs) to internationalisation. However, if the 'mainstream' view dominates, namely that all have a role to play, then the assessment of the contribution made is the responsibility of all units throughout the institution, both academic and service units. This has major implications, both in terms of data collection and whose efforts are assessed. Widening accountability has major implications for the contributions made to internationalisation.

For example, it follows from the 'mainstream' model that each academic unit would be assessed for all its contributions to internationalising the curriculum and learning, facilitating faculty research abroad, fostering faculty and student exchanges, and so forth. Registrars' offices might be assessed for their facilitation of the transfer of academic credits, financial aid offices for making student support portable across boundaries and university research offices for supporting faculty travel and research abroad. In all cases, the shift is from measuring what 'they' contribute to what 'we' contribute, both individually and collectively. This approach would be a major paradigm shift in internationalisation assessment on most campuses.

External forces and factors

Many outside forces and factors shape institutional choices about missions and measures relating to the responsibility for assessment.

- Accreditation and quality control bodies are fundamental shapers of what institutions do and increasingly their focus is on outcomes (*eg* what students actually learn, what jobs they get, and the reputation and applications of faculty research).
- The emergence of schemes for ranking institutions, as supplements to national or regional schemes, has broadened the international scale of assessment, with many of these global schemes relying heavily on methodologically suspect, but nonetheless powerful, 'judgments' by academics with regard to the global rankings of institutions and disciplines.
- Increasingly the general public, students, families and other institutional clientele (*eg* employers of graduates) have become actively engaged in demanding 'value for money'. Some see this as strengthening the 'customer service' model in higher education.
- Entities throughout the world that fund higher education are under increasing pressure to deliver value-for-money, both by constraining resources to extract greater efficiency and by requiring certain outcomes (*eg* graduation rates, student performance on standardised tests, faculty research and instructional productivity). Shrinking public support and the encouragement of entrepreneurialism have widened the range of clientele to whom institutions must be responsive.
- There are many other forces, such as institutional politics, peer assessments, charters and legislation which impose both expectations and constraints.

The assessment models used to assess internationalisation must bear a relationship to these outside forces and their expectations. The value ascribed and support given to internationalisation increase the more it contributes positively to these external factors. It is important to recognise the values which underlie outside forces and factors and which are inherent in the questions we ask about the 'success' of internationalisation. For example, are internationally aware and experienced graduates more successful in finding employment? Is the quality and applicability of faculty research output enhanced through international engagement? Is the reputation of an institution enhanced through international engagement? Does the institution's funded research portfolio grow and diversify through international research work?

The key point is this: if the assessment of internationalisation cannot demonstrate that contributions have been made to meeting the expectations of external groups, the perceived value and actual support for internationalisation will be weakened, both internally and externally.

Institutional motivations to internationalise

There are also important internal motivators for internationalisation, which must be taken into account in assessments. These may include the enhancement of the institution's reputation, student learning outcomes, revenues and markets, research and scholarship, service and engagement, and global bridge building. Irrespective of whether all or only some of these apply, assessment models should help provide evidence of the impact of internationalisation (*eg* the increase in students' knowledge, increased or more stable funding and the reputation of faculty).

It should be noted that demonstrating responsiveness to internal motivations is as important as demonstrating responsiveness to external factors.

Key issues in assessment

Assessment should be understood as research or, more accurately, as applied research because the aim is to apply the findings. The applications may be retrospective (How did we perform?) or prospective (What areas are there for improvement?). Ultimately assessment should focus on impacts, achievements and outcomes, particularly when considering the results of internationalisation. At one level, internationalisation in higher education is like motherhood or apple pie – almost everyone thinks it is a good thing. However, as internationalisation requires a substantial commitment of institutional resources and often a substantial revision of practices and orientations, and perhaps an opportunity cost in some other area, knowing objectively and in measureable terms that it produces value in the intended directions becomes critical in garnering support beyond rhetoric.

Social and scientific measurement

The results of assessment will only be as good as they are valid; validity begins with sound research methodology and design. At best, social and scientific measurement proceeds in five general steps: (1) important concepts, such as 'internationalisation', 'success' and 'goals' are identified; (2) the important components and dimensions of these are disaggregated; (3) these component dimensions are defined operationally and calibrated in measurable terms; (4) each important dimension is measured through empirical data collection; (5) these data, in turn, can be re-aggregated to form composite pictures of results.

The idea is to achieve the right balance and 'relevant completeness' in what is measured. We seek to balance: (1) scope – covering the pertinent range of what we mean by and hope to obtain from 'internationalisation'; (2) precision – selecting the indicators that do, in fact, measure what we intend to measure; and (3) parsimony – having the fewest and simplest number of measures that nonetheless validly measure what we intend to measure. Each of these steps or components is important in conceptualising and carrying out the assessment of internationalisation.

Cost-effective methodology for assessment

Many appealing assessment models are impractical, either due to their cost or on methodological grounds. It is no good proposing an assessment model that will be burdensome or unaffordable in terms of money or time. It is worse to propose an assessment model that produces invalid results, overly simplistic criteria on which to assess outcomes and false comparisons because of faulty operationalisation. The major problems to avoid include the following:

- A failure to link measures of the impact and outcomes of internationalisation to core institutional values, responsiveness to external demands and expectations, and to link the internal motivation for internationalisation within the institution. The design of a good assessment model must begin with these.
- A failure to consider or understand the importance of choice in how certain outcomes are to be measured (operationalised). For example, how do we measure increases in student knowledge: should we use instructor appraisals of class performance, scores on standardised tests or subsequent assessments of the work performance of graduates? What should we measure? Should we measure students' knowledge, skills or abilities, what they know, their ability to learn *from* others, or their ability to learn *with* others? These and many other elements may be aspects of 'knowledge acquisition'. Are they all equally important or are some more important than others? What data are we collecting to measure which outcomes?
- A failure to recognise data constraints. Can we obtain the data our model demands? For example, it is one thing to obtain ready access to students' classroom performance and test grades, but quite another to obtain valid and reliable data on the performance of graduates from subsequent employers. Thus, for example, finding out who the employers are, persuading them to cooperate, and collecting data from them, which are a valid and a reliable measure of performance 'caused' by the learning (*eg* exposure to international content and experience) is not a simple task.
- The collection of data that will never be used or reported back for the purposes of assessment, *ie* wasting time and money. Few things irritate participants more in assessments than having to collect, keep and report mounds of data that appear never to be used or are unrelated to the purposes of the assessment.
- Not using the results. Assessment without consequences is assessment without accountability. If it is not the intention to use the results of an assessment, do not bother to do the assessment.
- 'Shotgun' data collection. The answer to avoiding the methodological challenges of simplicity and false comparisons is not rampant data collection to cover every conceivable data point. Rather, it is simultaneous attention to knowing (1) what is most important for us to learn and know; (2) which data provide an adequate answer; (3) how the answers will be used; (4) what data we already have and what data need not be collected again; and (5) what data gaps should be filled as a matter of priority. A shotgun approach to data collection is inefficient, ineffective and discouraging to all who participate.

What is measured?

Systems modelling provides a means of categorising what can be measured in assessments. Three elements measure unique assessment dimensions.

- **Inputs:** resources (money, people, policies, *etc*) available to support internationalisation efforts;
- **Outputs:** the amount and types of work or activity undertaken in support of internationalisation efforts; and
- **Outcomes:** impacts or end results. It is these that are usually most closely associated with measuring achievement and the missions of institutions.

In Table 2.1, which provides an example of such indicators of international activity, it is outcomes (or end products) that are of greatest interest. Outcomes measure goal achievement, justify obtaining and spending resources, and justify doing the work. However, the other two types of indicators ('inputs' and 'outputs') are often part of assessments. They are often also used by outside ranking bodies and funding agencies to gauge the scope of institutional effort.

If outcome measures are the really important measures, why do we bother with input and output measures? One reason for including some input and output measures is that they help track progress toward achieving our goals. For example, if we believe that good research relies on sufficient funding, do we have goals and measures for insuring that sufficient resources will be allocated to support research? If not, fewer publications may appear, fewer discoveries may be made with problem-solving and/or commercial value, reputation will decline, and so forth. On the flipside, only measuring the funds available and spent begs the question whether anything of value happened as a result.
A second reason is that valid or reliable data for measuring outcomes is often not available, or interpreting their meaning gives rise to methodological problems. For example, are students who study abroad more employable? The first problem is defining what 'more employable' means. Secondly, tracking students after graduation is difficult. Thirdly, are we really interested merely in the students employability or in their careers and, if we are interested in the latter, are we aiming to engage in costly and long-term career data collection? We could perhaps attempt to 'shadow measure' by asking employers if they would be more inclined (or not) to hire students who have had experience studying abroad. Regardless of the answer to this type of question, we will only obtain an answer which relates to the intention, rather than actual outcomes. These kinds of data problems often lead assessment models to count what *can* be counted. It is relatively easy to measure resource expenditure and work effort, *eg* the number of options for studying abroad offered and the number of students who participate. The 'easily obtainable' data takes the place of data that focuses on the achievement of goals. There is also the challenge posed by the old adage that "what gets counted, counts". If we collect data on expenditure in support of faculty research abroad, but do not track and measure the outcomes of research, assessment tends to focus on expenditure growth as a good thing in itself, almost as if this were the objective.

There are other methodological and policy challenges when thinking about the progression of assessment from inputs, through outputs, to outcomes. There are connections between inputs and outcomes which are only partially mediated by institutional outputs (*eg* efforts to provide learning opportunities). For example, if higher quality students enter the institution, one is likely to have higher quality students graduate, almost despite what one does to them.

Table 2.1. Dimensions for the assessment of internationalisation

Core institutional function	Sample input indicators	Sample output indicators	Sample outcome indicators
Discovery	Institutional research expenditure per faculty member in support of international, global or comparative research. Or external research dollar for..., *etc*.	Publications, patents, incidence of citation, grants and contracts from external sources from international activity.	Enhanced institutional reputation, awards, commercial applications income, economic development of communities or regions, community problem solving, *etc*.
Learning	Number and diversity of options to study abroad; extent of on-campus curriculum that incorporates global, comparative or international content; institutional financial support for such courses or study; number of faculty with relevant expertise.	Number and diversity of students studying abroad, enrolments in courses with global, comparative or international content, curricular integration of international content, number of faculty delivering this content.	Impacts on student learning, knowledge acquisition, attitudes, beliefs, life skills, careers, *etc*.
Engagement	Funds, people and other resources applied to community or international development problem-solving and engagement.	Numbers of projects, locations and people abroad involved. Problem-solving domestically that incorporates methods and learning from other societies and cultures.	Impacts on people's well-being and condition – economic, health, income, nutrition, safety and security, access, *etc*.

There are also few, if any, linear relationships between inputs/outputs and outcomes – non-linear marginal returns on further investment are the rule. At some point, more funding and more programmes cease to result in the further advancement of institutional goals because the marginal increment resulting from the increase in funding and programmes is zero

The challenge, however, is that assumptions are made in relation to cause and effect in almost any measurement progression from inputs, through outputs, to outcomes, such as those in the table. For example, offering more options to study abroad is assumed to provide students with more choice and a better fit with their learning interests and needs. This, in turn, is assumed to improve the quality of learning and graduates, and perhaps also the number of students studying abroad. However, an increase in the number of options may also reduce the economies of scale of individual programmes, thereby raising programme costs to students and, as a result, actually lowering participation rates. It is assumed that an increase in research funding leads to more research output and finally to valuable outcomes. Due to challenges in proving cause and effect relationships, we are often left to assume a connection from input, through outputs, to outcomes, which hard data may not support.

There are also trade-offs and conflicts which have to be resolved. An increase in the number of faculty engaged in international programmes may increase access and lead to greater exposure to international content and learning, but more faculty can also drive up the cost of internationalisation to both the institution and the student. If costs soar, should we limit access? It is true that 'more faculty' produces a 'better' student-faculty ratio, but this also results in less desirable outcomes for other measures such as cost. In addition, it is not always true that more funds spent per faculty member on research yields an equivalent or greater return on investment in research outcomes. Where is the breakeven for optimising the cost-benefit ratio by investing further in supporting faculty research abroad? Once again, we are back to trade-offs and balance in determining precisely how far some of these metrics or measures should be promoted.

Role of goals and choices in measurement

Important reference points for identifying variables and, indirectly, for assessment are core functions of institutions – knowledge creation (both basic and applied discovery) and knowledge dissemination (learning and engagement/outreach). The key question is how the institution envisages internationalisation playing a constructive role across these core functions. Put differently, what are the goals of internationalisation with respect to these core functions. A starting point might be to brainstorm on some general directions in non-specific terms, such as the list below.

Expanding international reach: an example

- Expose undergraduate and graduate students to significant international, comparative and global content
- Enhance recruitment, retention and integration of high quality international students
- Provide language instruction and cultural information, making it accessible and relevant to students at all levels
- Internationalise faculty, research/scholarship, and institutional engagement through expanded opportunities abroad, focused hiring, and strategic global partnerships and alliances
- Encourage interests that engage faculty and staff in international activity

A great deal needs to be done to make this list useful. In particular, as noted above, the items on the list must be defined in measurable terms. However, as general as it is, the list serves as a starting point and orienting device.

Goals help to identify what is important, they define intentions, they provide a basis for accountability and they drive behaviours, but only if the goals are known, clear, accepted and provide a basis for accountability. This will only happen if we have a valid way of measuring our goals through measurement operationalisation. Goals are given practical meaning through the way in which they are measured. Different measures typically produce different results.

How we choose to measure goals is how we choose to be held accountable. How we choose to measure goals defines what is counted and what counts.

Goals typically have multiple dimensions and, as a result, choices must be made with regard to which dimensions should be measured and how this should be done. For example, a goal of internationalisation might be expressed as increased international or global learning among students, but what does this mean? Does it mean knowledge acquisition in the form of facts, a broadening or shaping of beliefs, an ability to learn from others or with others, an ability to function effectively in other cultures or all of these and more? Different measures are needed for each of these goals. The data source and the choices made in relation to these also acquire importance. What will the results be if we rely on standardised pencil-and-paper tests to measure any of these? Will the results be different or the same if assessments are based on actual performance and behaviours of students in the real world?

Consequently for goals to be useful they must first be defined in measurable terms and disaggregated into their component parts, and a conscious decision must be taken to determine which parts are most important for the goal as we understand it. Secondly, we need to choose the measure(s) appropriate to the meaning(s) we attach to our goals.

Measuring success and milestones

A statement of goals implies a way of defining success. If we reach the goal we are successful. The key issue is to define what success means to the institution in terms of internationalisation. The measures of success that will be used become another basis for defining how to measure goals and the impact of internationalisation. Is the measure of success for study abroad the percentage of students who participate? Or is it learning outcomes that can be documented in intended directions? Maybe it is both (quantity *and* quality). What is the measure of success in faculty-centred terms: international reputation; funding for international, global or comparative research; refereed publications; or all or only some of these?

The key issues for institutions and assessment is whether there is agreement, not only on the goals of internationalisation and how to measure them, but also on what constitutes 'success'.

Directional, comparative and milestone measures

Goals and 'success' can also be measured directionally and comparatively for purposes of assessing progress in the intended directions. What is the direction of change expressed as percentages of students studying abroad, *eg* percentages of graduates with curricular exposure to global and comparative content, the growth or decline in funding to support international activity, and the number of students achieving identifiable levels of knowledge and skill competencies? What is the direction of change in relation to attitudes and beliefs, and the careers and skills of students and faculty? What is the direction of change in relation to the ranking of the institution, its faculty and its students?

Comparing or benchmarking ourselves to others not only provides a basis for relative assessment, but also for relative measures of success. For example, where do we rank on a given metric with respect to 'peer' or aspirational institutions? What is our goal (or definition of success) with respect to such comparisons? Is it to be the best, to be in the top half or in the middle of the pack, or to move up to the next higher comparative group?

Comparison metrics have advantages and disadvantages. On the positive side, the standardisation of a set of metrics across institutions is required for meaningful comparisons on some key indicators. We get a sense of where we stand relative to others. On the other hand, too much reliance on a limited number of standard measures across institutions minimises diversity and experimentation. It also tends to ignore valuable niche strengths and outcomes, and homogenises the outcomes of higher education.
Too much reliance on a set of comparative metrics leads individuals and institutions to 'play to the test' rather then develop their own unique goals and programmes. This is one

of the pitfalls of global, national or even regional ranking schemes, which in the interests of manageability apply a limited number of widely used measures available for cross-institutional measurement.

The assessment of internationalisation outcomes needs to incorporate both a set of measures that allow for cross-institutional comparisons and measures specific to the institution. Higher education institutions are diverse, as are the constituencies they serve and the outcomes they demand.

Sample indicators for the assessment of internationalisation

We return to our initial organising paradigm and to a multi-mission view of internationalisation in a higher education institution: (1) knowledge creation (discovery, both basic and applied) and (2) knowledge dissemination (learning and engagement/outreach). At some point, after other framing issues have been decided, one has to deal with the issue of identifying potential metrics or indicators of our inputs, outputs and intended outcomes, and to consider how these relate to the basic missions of knowledge creation and dissemination. The following are some examples of lists which are useful in setting up the assessment activities. These are not yet measures, as such, because much has to be done to operationalise them (*eg* to define and determine the components of the most important concepts, to specify the data elements that will comprise them, to determine empirical data collection methods, *etc*).

Examples of learning inputs

- The range and availability of courses, curricula and active learning opportunities with international comparative or global content
- The range and availability of language courses and language learning experiences
- The number and diversity of faculty engaged in teaching with international, comparative or global content
- The number of international undergraduate and graduate students on campus and their diversity of country of origin and major preferences
- The number and diversity of study abroad options
- Tenure and promotion guidelines giving recognition to the value of international teaching, global or comparative content available on campus or obtainable through study abroad

Examples of learning outputs

- Student enrolment in courses and active learning opportunities with international content
- Student enrolment in language courses and language learning experiences
- Number of students in international, comparative or global majors
- Number and diversity of students in activities abroad (*eg* study, research and internships)

Examples of learning outcomes

- Number of students achieving identifiable knowledge competency in global or comparative studies, or learning objectives achieved
- Number of students achieving levels x, y or z of language competency
- Evidence of impact on students, (*eg* knowledge, attitudes, beliefs, skills, careers)
- Evidence of students' capacities to learn from and with others from different cultures

Examples of discovery inputs

- Internal and external support for faculty projects and activity abroad
- Dollar value growth (above inflation) of contracts and grants awarded to the institution to support international activity
- Diversification of the sources of international contracts and grant support
- Internal and external *per capita* support awarded to faculty members
- Incidence of publications by faculty and staff in international journals, invitations as speakers at international conferences, review panels, and so forth
- The number of faculty engaged in international teaching or research or projects abroad

Examples of discovery outcomes

- Incidence of refereed publications by faculty and staff in international journals, invitations to speak at international conferences, review panels, and so forth
- Position of the institution in global rankings of higher education institutions
- Awards, prizes, recognition, rankings of institutional international activity
- Strategic joint or other ventures abroad that meet or exceed contributions to institutional mission objectives
- Global strategic alliances which are linked to and strengthen the institution's priorities in relation to programme enhancement
- Growth in the institution's income from commercial applications
- Contribution to community or wider economic and/or cultural development

Examples of engagement inputs

- Dollars, people and other resources applied to problem solving and development engagement
- Encouragement of and rewards for engagement activity

Example of engagement outputs

- Numbers of projects/locations, numbers of people involved

Examples of engagement outcomes

- Impact on the condition of the people and the community – the economy, health, education, nutrition, safety/security, access

Designing assessment: steps in the process

As noted, the lists above contain potential indicators for assessing the impact of internationalisation across multiple organisational missions. Which of these are, in fact, used depends on a number of decisions that have to be made about the scope and purposes of assessment, and also about the design of assessment research. A series of steps, roughly in the order listed below, should help resolve these issues and should result in the identification of the concrete measures (data) to be collected and how these are to be used.

1. Identify the missions of the institution, which will be affected by internationalisation and the form of assessment which is relevant.
2. With respect to each of the selected missions, determine a set of desired institutional goals or outcomes of internationalisation. It is likely that multiple goals will emerge for each because 'missions' are typically multi-dimensional concepts.
3. Operationalise the goals and associated desired impacts/outcomes by identifying (a) indicators, (b) measures, (c) data sources and collection methods to gauge the results empirically.
4. Determine the extent to which data on inputs and outputs need to be collected for the reasons discussed earlier.
5. Select the best set of measures, balancing issues of convergent and divergent validity, parsimony of effort and adequacy in measuring what is intended.
6. Determine the needs and expectations in relation to milestone and benchmark monitoring.

Assessment and allocation of the institution's funds

University funding is allocated across a number of portfolios: (1) funding to preserve or strengthen core programmes as well as more mature and historically strong programmes; (2) investments in new areas of opportunity that have a good institutional fit and a good probability of success; (3) investment in riskier, but potentially high-gain entrepreneurial activity. In order to be strong now, as well as strong or stronger in the future, universities need to invest across these portfolios. The metrics, milestones and outcomes expected from resource investments need to be considered in the differing contexts that these three categories reflect. If internationalisation is to be supported, one of the key purposes behind assessment is its contribution to documenting the case for its valued impacts and outcomes on missions of the institution. So, an important role for assessment is the case it builds for continuing investment, expanding investment or reducing the time, effort and money invested in internationalisation.

Summary

We have argued that a lack of attention to assessment ultimately weakens the priority which institutions give to internationalisation. However, we have also argued that assessments of internationalisation need to be aligned with core institutional missions. While assessment done well is not without its cost and methodological complexities, a commitment to internationalisation must be accompanied by a commitment to assessing the outcomes of internationalisation.

Furthermore in our discussion of the process of considering the requirements of assessment, we drew attention to the important differences between inputs, outputs and outcomes as they apply to learning, discovery and engagement. We also considered how each of these can assist the institution, its faculty and its administrators in thinking about the roles they play in the internationalisation of the institution. While there are many different audiences that may be served by assessment, and many may initially see assessment as a threat to the independence and vitality of the university's educational mission, there are many benefits to the university in developing assessment strategies and tools that serve its mission and values. Developing such tools serves to clarify and increase the institution's opportunities and to encourage behaviours that promote engagement, the extension of the internationalisation effort and the outcomes of internationalisation.

Chapter 3
Towards effective international learning assessment: principles, design and implementation

by Darla Deardorff, Dawn Thorndike Pysarchik and Zee-Sun Yun

Introduction

"The educated American of the twenty-first century will need to be conversant with at least one language in addition to his or her native language, and knowledgeable about other countries, other cultures, and the international dimensions of issues critical to the lives of all Americans", according to a report of the Committee of Economic Development.[1] To succeed in today's global environment, students, regardless of their citizenship, increasingly need to complement their academic and career preparation with international knowledge, skills and attitudes that allow them to understand and respect others' cultures and to work effectively and appropriately with people from diverse cultural backgrounds. This set of international knowledge, skills and attitudes translates into global learning outcomes at the post-secondary level. According to the American Council on Education's recent report on mapping internationalisation,[2] 45 percent of the over 2000 US American post-secondary institutions included in the study had articulated global student learning outcomes and 30 percent were formally assessing progress on internationalisation. With globalisation driving the demand for global-ready graduates, it becomes crucial for administrators to assess these outcomes of internationalisation to determine exactly what our students are learning through these efforts and how effective our programmes are in achieving the stated learning outcomes. This means going beyond the traditional output measures of mobility to capture the meaning behind the numbers: the learning outcomes that relate to preparing global-ready graduates for the twenty-first century. This chapter provides a framework for assessing outcomes, discusses some assessment basics and provides a concrete example of how one university is assessing global learning outcomes.

Framework for assessing outcomes: the programme logic model

The one model which provides a concise framework for addressing outcomes within the context of a programme, regardless of the field, is the Programme Logic Model,[3] also known as the 'logic model'. This model takes into account the inputs as well as the overall impact and includes the following dimensions: inputs, activities, outputs, outcomes and impact. It is widely used in the private, public and non-profit sectors and by such entities as the US Department of State, the Kellogg Foundation and United Way. This model also incorporates both definitions of assessment as integral to student learning and the broader programme evaluation definitions based on the systematic collection, analysis and reporting of information on programmes that contribute to decision making.

The Programme Logic Model will be considered here. Not only how this framework can be used to provide a road map for clarifying intended outcomes, but also ultimately as a way of achieving lasting change within the programme or organisation. The model addresses three basic questions: Where are we going? How will we get there? How will we know when we have arrived?

The following are the specific components of the model:

Inputs

What is needed to achieve the stated goals? The stated goals and objectives can be specified using the SMART Goal format (Specific, Measurable, Action-oriented, Realistic, and Time-delineated). Inputs are the resources and may involve people, time, money, partners or other items available to the programme.

Activities

What are the specific activities undertaken to achieve the goals? In the case of international education, these activities may involve learning opportunities that occur through the curriculum, education-abroad experiences, research, involvement of faculty abroad and so on.

Outputs

Who is involved and who is being reached? In other words, who are the participants? Outputs often include numbers of participants, such as the number of students in education-abroad programmes.

Outcomes

What do participants know, think and/or feel, and/or what can they do as a result of being in the programme? How has the behaviour of participants changed as a result of the programme? Measuring outcomes involves both short-term learning outcomes, as well as more medium-term action-oriented outcomes, including student engagement related to social action.

Impact

What is the long-term impact (consequences/results) of the programme on participants? What is the effect on other learners on campus, including international students and scholars? What is the effect on faculty, on the campus and on the institution? What is the effect on the community, both at home and abroad? Longitudinal studies are often necessary to assess the long-term impact.

Figure 3.1 General Programme Logic Model applied to internationalisation

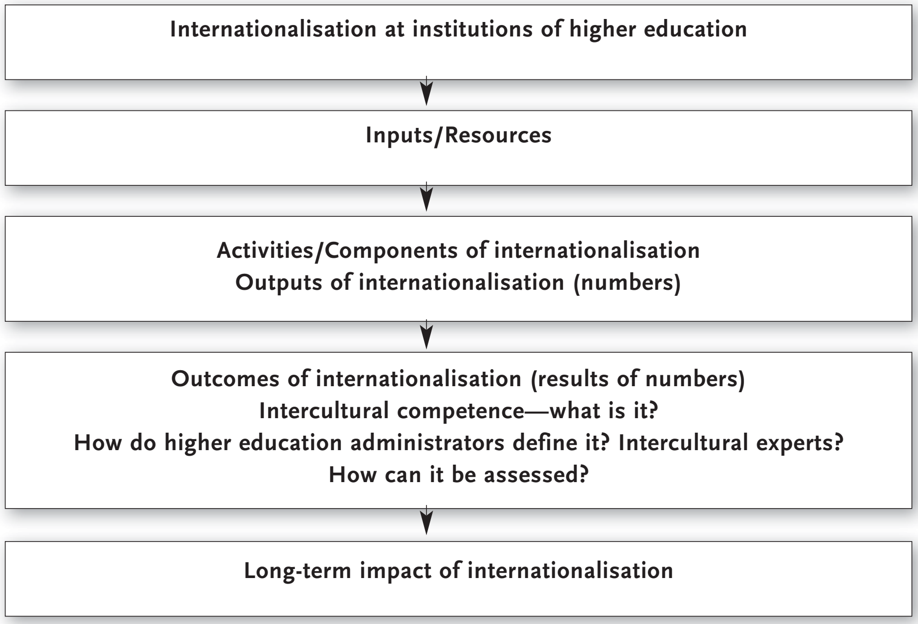


Figure 3.1 illustrates the Programme Logic Model adapted to international education. Utilising programme logic is often one of the first steps in assessing and implementing change. This model helps to move programmes beyond counting numbers to providing the underlying meaning of the numbers, such as the student learning outcomes that result from student participation in experiences leading to their development as global citizens. Change occurs when the specific aspects of the logic model are understood, in particular the outcomes that are expected and then assessed. The limitations of the Programme Logic Model include the challenge of causal attribution, since there are many factors that may influence outcomes, especially in education-abroad experiences.

A further limitation is the long-term impact, which may not be addressed in initial assessment efforts.[4]

Assessment basics

So where does one start with assessment? In many cases, international education administrators have not been trained in assessment and are thus often challenged even to know where to begin developing and implementing an assessment strategy, especially as it relates to such amorphous and complex concepts as 'global citizenship' and 'intercultural competence'. More professional development in assessment (*ie* workshops, conferences and courses) may be needed for international education administrators and others involved in assessment endeavours. This section outlines some of the basics that administrators need to know about assessment.

The first question that administrators often ask is which assessment tool is the best to use. While this may seem like a logical first question, administrators actually need to take a step back and first review the mission statement and overall goals of the programme or course. Goals provide broad direction, purpose statements and even expected outcomes. Objectives provide the roadmap for achieving these goals. What is the overall mission? What are the specific goals and objectives related to the mission? With regard to the goals and objectives, what are the priorities for assessment? What evidence can be collected to demonstrate the achievement of those stated goals and objectives? Answering these questions will help determine which assessment methods and tools to use. The alignment of the mission, goals, and objectives with assessment tools is essential.[5] Otherwise institutions may use tools that measure something other than their stated goals and objectives. One comment about prioritising goals and objectives should be made at this point: given the time-intensive nature of good assessment practice, it is often quite difficult and overwhelming to assess all the goals and objectives each time for every programme. This leads to the importance of prioritising which goals and objectives to assess for a given programme. These priorities may certainly change from year to year.

Goal	Outcomes	Assessments
To generate new knowledge about global studies	• Students can identify some of the processes through which civilisations, nations, or people are defined historically and in the present. • Students develop new abilities to describe the host country from the inside out.	• Pre/post test essay requiring students to demonstrate mastery of the desired outcomes • Focus group discussions • Documentation of classroom discussions • Student portfolios
To encourage greater civic engagement and social responsibility	• Students acquire a heightened sense of global interconnections and interdependencies. • Students can describe a social problem requiring collective remedies that transcend national boundaries. • Students are more likely to believe their individual intervention in a global social problem is both possible and consequential	• Documented questions and issues raised in course assignments • Reflection exercises and activities about experiences in civic participation • Journal entries or writing assignments about involvement in social advocacy groups and programmes

Table 3.1: Sample of aligned goals/outcomes/assessments[6]

In developing goals and objectives with measurable criteria, it is very important that key terms be defined clearly, based on existing scholarly literature. For example, an oft-stated goal of internationalisation efforts is to develop students' intercultural competence or global citizenship. Yet what do we mean by such terms? We must define what we are assessing before we can implement a successful assessment strategy.[7]

The next step in developing an assessment protocol is to explore one's own institutional context of assessment and discover available resources, including people on campus who are already engaged in assessment. Once potential resources and on-campus partners have been identified, it is important to put together an assessment team. Assessment is too complex an undertaking to be implemented by only one office. With an assessment team in place, an assessment plan can be developed and reviewed regularly to further refine it. To guide the development of an assessment plan, the points listed in Table 3.2 should be considered:

Table 3.2 Checklist for assessment

☐	Aligned & articulated – Are goals, objectives, assessment measures aligned and articulated?
☐	Intentional – Is assessment intentionally addressed?
☐	Developed – Have assessment issues been carefully analysed before a plan is implemented?
☐	Integrated – Is assessment integrated throughout the programme and not viewed as an 'add-on' *ie* implemented only as a pre/post phenomenon?
☐	Focused – Is assessment realistic with 2 – 3 outcomes assessed per programme per year?
☐	Shared – Is assessment shared with others on campus through partnerships?
☐	Supported – Is the senior leadership supportive of assessment efforts?
☐	Resourced – Is there adequate time and funding for assessment efforts, have administrators received sufficient training, do they have sufficient knowledge of assessment and do they receive ongoing professional development?
☐	Analysed – Have the assessment tools, results and process been analysed and evaluated?
☐	Communicated – Have the results been communicated to all stakeholders?
☐	Used – Have the results been used, for programme improvement as well as for learner feedback?
☐	Reviewed – Has the assessment process and strategy been reviewed on a regular basis and improved upon?

Developed by Darla Deardorff, 2008

It is important that a good assessment plan considers a package of assessment tools and methods, instead of only one tool. Why is this important? Using multiple assessment tools and methods leads to a better validation of the evidence collected. These tools and methods would ideally be integrated throughout the programme. Within coursework, this can be done by embedding assessment in the course itself and fine-turning assignments to collect the evidence needed to ascertain achievement of the stated goals. Assessment methods include both direct evidence of student learning (tests, papers, capstones, performance, portfolios, *etc*) and indirect evidence, that is, student perceptions of their learning (self-report instruments, focus groups, interviews, *etc*). Self-report surveys are a popular assessment tool with administrators, but should only be one part of the assessment package for the reasons already discussed. When selecting appropriate assessment tools the following questions should be considered. What does the tool actually measure and how does it align with the stated goals? Is the tool valid and reliable? Is the tool based on a theoretical framework? What are the limitations and biases of the tool? Are the logistics of administering the tool manageable? The key question, however, relates to evidence of student learning; what evidence can be collected that indicates successful student learning in accordance with the stated goals and objectives? The evidence may be both quantitative and qualitative and sound research requires both, while a combination of direct and indirect measures should also be used. The triangulation of evidence (that is, the collection of more than one piece of evidence) is critical, given that it can be used to validate the data collected (which is similar to obtaining a second opinion).

Once an assessment strategy has been developed and an assessment team is in place, assessment can be implemented. The assessment cycle consists of the following steps:

1. **Define outcomes** (based on mission/goals) **and determine measurable criteria.**
2. **Identify appropriate assessment methods** based on the stated goals and objectives.
3. **Collect data** – use a variety of tools/methods aligned with the goals/objectives.
4. **Analyse the data** – identify the patterns that emerge.
5. **Use the data** – determine how the data will be used. It is important only to collect data that will be used (*ie* for programme improvement, providing student feedback and so on). If there is no clear use for the data, then they should not be collected.
6. **Communicate data to all relevant stakeholders**. Stakeholders may include administrators, faculty, students, parents, community members and so on.
7. **Evaluate the assessment process and the assessment strategy itself**. Determine what can be learned from this process and what can be improved. Determine what new priorities should be assessed.

The discussion of the basics of assessment above is necessarily brief. Some lessons learned from those engaged in assessing global learning outcomes include the importance of aligning goals, objectives and assessment methods, of maximising resources and people at an institution, of using a mixed-methods approach (multiple methods and multiple perspectives) and of integrating assessment into existing programmes and courses on an on-going basis.

A case study in assessment: Michigan State University

Given these caveats about assessment, what form does the actual assessment of global learning outcomes take at a post-secondary institution? In this section, we describe a formative international learning assessment project that is being piloted at Michigan State University (MSU) with very promising results. The project is based on a mixed-methods design, which includes qualitative and quantitative components. The qualitative component of the project (the electronic portfolio) originates from a Fund for the Improvement of Post-Secondary Education (FIPSE) project involving five other universities which was coordinated by the American Council on Education.[8] The quantitative component of the project (Beliefs, Events, and Values Inventory [BEVI]) was adopted by the FORUM[9] and several other universities. MSU is the only university to the best of our knowledge that is using the BEVI and an e-portfolio in its approach to assessment.

The assessment goals are to determine the efficacy of using a mixed-methods approach in examining the outcomes of students' international learning in investigating the influence of key antecedent factors on this learning and in determining how the findings could be used to enrich the curriculum and non-curricular activities. The objectives of the study are to understand how students think and feel about a range of broadly defined 'international', 'global', and 'multinational' learning opportunities and to understand the knowledge and skills that students gain when they acquire international experience.

Theoretical background

To respond successfully to the growing interest of students in international learning, educators need to understand the underlying influences of learning motivation and the experiences which potentially influence attainments in international/global learning. We begin by discussing the development of a pioneering conceptual model which is grounded in Equilintegration Theory, Attribution Theory and Learning Theory, and provides a richer and more comprehensive understanding of students' international learning.

Firstly the conceptual assessment model draws from Equilintegration (EI) theory, which attempts to explain the processes by which beliefs, values, and worldviews are acquired and maintained, why their alteration is typically resisted, and how and under what circumstances their modification occurs.[10] According to the principles of EI theory,[11] 'values' and 'beliefs' are central mediating processes for behaviour at individual and societal levels, but they may or may not be held consciously and are not necessarily rational or grounded in logic. Values and beliefs are (a) determined by an individual's history and larger culture, (b) inculcated over time, and (c) may or may not transcend a specific time and place. Although that which is valued and believed may be relative to a given time or place, the human capacity and need for an organising worldview is a derivative of the self; thus, values and beliefs may be contingent upon that which is available for acquisition, but the processes (*eg* developmental, affective and attributional) by which beliefs and values are acquired are particular to the individual. Values and beliefs are not easily modified because they represent for each individual the unique culmination of an interaction among affective and attributional processes and developmental/life experiences, which are codified in personality and 'self'.

The second theory which contributes to our conceptual model is Attribution Theory (AT). This theory assumes that individuals try to determine why others do what they do, that is, attribute causes to behaviour.[12] To explain this, the tenets of AT suggest that there are three causal dimensions: locus of control, stability, and controllability.[13] Locus of control is considered to be an important aspect of personality and refers to an individual's perception of the underlying causes of events in his or her life. The locus of control dimension has two poles: an internal and an external pole. An internal control orientation is a belief that an individual's behaviour is guided by his or her personal decisions and efforts. An external control orientation is a belief that his or her behaviour is guided by fate, luck or other external circumstances. Weiner's approach, as it applies to motivation, is that a person's own perceptions or attributions with regard to success or failure determine the amount of effort he or she will expend on that activity in the future. Students are most successful when they believe their own behaviour, rather than external circumstances, leads to success or failure.

Finally, we apply Learning Theory (LT) in the model to understand better the complexity of students' attainments in international learning. According to Rogers,[14] we can examine learning as a product and as a process. When analysing learning as a product, we focus on a change in behaviour. In other words, learning is approached as an outcome, the end product of some process. Ryle[15] coined the terms 'knowing that' and 'knowing how' to explain the types of learning products. 'Knowing that' refers to learning as a quantitative increase in knowledge. 'Knowing how' refers to learning as the acquisition of facts, skills and methods that can be retained and used later. Bloom[16] developed a classification scheme for the types of learning products, which include three domains: cognitive, psychomotor and affective. We often refer to these three domains as KSA (knowledge, skills and attitudes).

The cognitive domain involves knowledge and the development of intellectual skills. This includes recall or recognition of specific facts, procedural patterns and concepts that serve to develop intellectual abilities and skills. The psychomotor domain includes physical movement, coordination and the use of the motor-skill areas. The development of these skills requires practice and is measured in terms of speed, precision, distance, procedures or techniques in execution. Finally, the affective domain includes the manner in which we deal with events emotionally, such as feelings, values, motivations and attitudes.

When examining learning as a process, we look at how and why behaviour changes as a result of an experience. In other words, we are concerned with what happens when learning takes place. To investigate the effects of the learning process on learning achievement, it is important to identify and understand the role learning environments play for students. The engagement of students, both inside and outside the classroom, has an impact on curricular, co-curricular and extra-curricular learning.[17] Courses and curricular programmes (*eg* participation in a course with an international focus) support and prepare students to meet a defined set of international learning competencies, which are reflected in the course objectives. Students are involved in learning and fostering intellectual and social connections with faculty and peers. Co-curricular learning activities are associated with a course, major or academic programme. The activities include learning in structured programmes and interactions, and residential and social environments (*eg* joining a club that is specific to the major or participating in a conference related to a student's academic programme). Extra-curricular learning is non-academic, non-course based learning and falls outside the realm of the normal academic curriculum. Extra-curricular activities are those of a voluntary nature: something 'extra' which students wish to do in addition to attending classes. For example, they may join a social club, or attend a cultural event or a dance sponsored by the university.

Although co-curricular and extra-curricular learning activities occur outside the classroom, students have much to gain from the coordination of these activities with their academic programmes. According to Wilhite and Banset,[18] when students engage in out-of-class experiences, they tend to take greater responsibility for their own learning; they learn from one another as well as from their instructors. In addition, co-curricular and extra-curricular activities promote personal growth, physical and mental health, academic achievement, social and cultural awareness, and help students formulate short and long-range goals.

Project design

The design of the assessment project is based on a mixed-methods approach: quantitative (BEVI) and qualitative assessment (e-portfolio with scoring rubrics) to assess international learning. Mixed methods are likely to increase the quality of the final results and to provide a more comprehensive understanding of attainment in international learning.[19] Incorporating both methods allows researchers to triangulate their findings.[20] In our study, we examine students' international learning achievement, as measured by their knowledge (what they know), skills (what they can do) and attitudes (perspectives on a particular item) associated with targeted international learning outcomes. Reflecting the internationalisation goals of their universities, six universities involved in the initial phase of the project first developed nine common international learning outcomes, three outcomes for each of the areas of knowledge, skills and attitudes. Next they developed 11 performance indicators and rubrics that measured international knowledge (*eg* increased knowledge and comprehension of the students' own culture in a global context, nations and their neighbours, global issues and processes, and other cultures), 10 performance indicators and rubrics that measured skills associated with critical thinking (use of a second language to gather information and to communicate with other cultures), and 19 performance indicators and rubrics that reflected attitudes (*eg* towards other languages, art, religions, philosophies, cultural differences and international or intercultural experiences).

The use of a quantitative assessment (*ie* BEVI) has strong potential as a basis for assessing learning outcomes. Predicated on EI Theory, the BEVI assessment is "designed to understand whether, how, and to what degree people are (or are likely to be) 'open' to various transformational experiences".[21] This instrument could be helpful in assessing several of the learning outcomes or processes of interest in this project (*eg* understanding one's own beliefs and values, capacity for interpersonal and intercultural relations, and a capacity to apply cultural knowledge in diverse contexts).

Each student takes a pre-BEVI assessment (as freshmen) and a post-BEVI assessment (ideally as senior students) to detect changes in international learning. The instrument contains 11 scales (*eg* basic openness, receptivity to different cultures, tendency to stereotype, self/emotional awareness).[22] It also contains 54 demographic items (*eg* gender, ethnic background), situational or attributional variables (*eg* socio-cultural closure, religious traditionalism and gender stereotypes) to assess variables that may influence or shape both the processes and outcomes of international or multicultural learning. It is highly innovative, highly accessible (web based) and low cost. Although the BEVI assessment has not been used previously in international learning assessment, it has demonstrated good reliability and stability (the majority of scale estimates are 0.80 or above) in previous applications.

The use of a qualitative assessment instrument (*ie* e-portfolio with scoring rubrics) provides direct evidence of changes in student attitudes and an additional insight into values, affective development and students' knowledge. Students identify the origin and submit to their e-portfolio at least five pieces of work that are retrospective or prospective in nature. Ideally, these artefacts represent a broad range of the student's work from different international learning environments (curricular, co-curricular and extra-curricular) and class levels. Examples include course papers or other written work in English or another language, photographs and digital images with commentary about an international event or activity, course presentations, audio files containing music or recorded language skill demonstration, and reflective essays about an experience while studying abroad or living with an international roommate.

The e-portfolio provides a mechanism for gathering evidence over time and across levels of study, disciplines and diverse international learning activities. The process uses a user friendly format, that is flexible (*eg* web based and adaptable to different levels of students [from freshmen to seniors] and types of artefacts).[23] Moreover, it compels students to document and interpret their own learning[24] and provides an additional opportunity for noting connections between various international learning experiences and the achievement of international learning outcomes.

Conceptual model and its measures

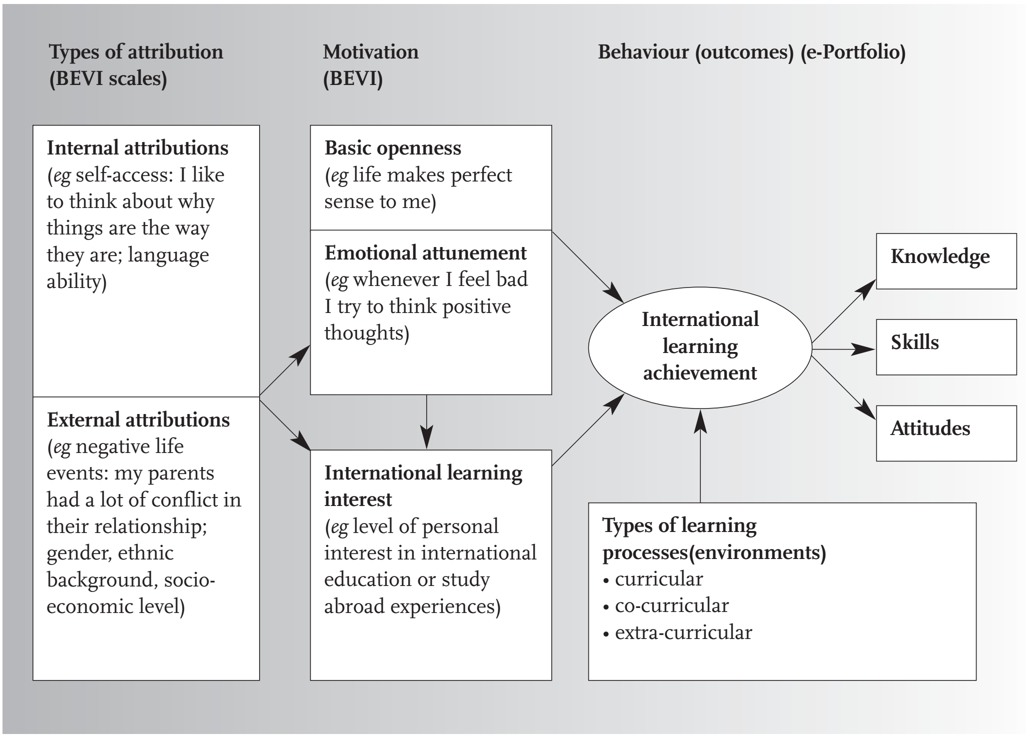
Drawing from the theoretical underpinnings, we developed a conceptual model to examine the influence of attribution, motivation and type of international learning process (environment) on international learning achievement (see Figure 3.2). The model reflects the notion that students are unique and complex individuals.[25] Depending on their background, culture or embedded worldview, they may build personal motivation and interest in international education. Thus, it is important to take into account the background and culture of the learner throughout the learning process, as this background helps shape the learners' motivation (see Figure 3.2).

AT reflects certain assumptions about the level and source of motivation to learn. Sustaining motivation to learn is strongly dependent on the learner's confidence in his or her potential to learn. In our study, AT could help to explain the difference in motivation between high and low achievers.[26] From the literature, we expect that international learning achievement will be related to a student's demographic background, foundational worldviews, motivation and interest in international learning.

From LT we know that learning is an active process. The dynamic interaction between a task, instructor and learner will impact differently on students' achievement in international learning. We anticipate that students gain knowledge, skills and attitudes from all types of learning processes. We therefore wish to investigate the effects of the learning process (*eg* curricular, co-curricular and extra-curricular learning) to determine how these may impact differently on international learning outcomes.

The measures of the key constructs included in the conceptual model are drawn from the BEVI and e-portfolio artefacts. We use personal background (*eg* language ability) and several BEVI scales (*eg* self access) to measure internal attribution. External attribution is measured by specific BEVI scales (*eg* negative life events) and demographics (*eg* gender, race and socio-economic class). International learning motivation is measured by selected BEVI scales (*eg* basic openness, emotional attunement) and international learning interest items in the BEVI assessment. We investigate the effects of the learning process (curricular, co-curricular and extra-curricular learning) on international learning achievement by having students submit at least five pieces of work from an array of different international experiences. International learning achievement is evaluated by a rating panel of trained faculty, who apply the indicators and rubrics (associated with the nine learning outcomes) to the students' work in their electronic portfolios.

Figure 3.2. Conceptual model



Developed by Pysarchik & Yun, 2008

Data analysis and interpretation

The conceptual model offered in this project was developed so that the data could be analysed using Structural Equation Modelling (SEM). SEM is a multivariate procedure used to analyse a complex set of causal relationships between multiple independent variables and dependent variables. As conceived, data analysis would include confirmatory factor analysis and path analysis.[27]

Lessons learned from this project

Preliminary analysis of the student data gathered in this project suggests that the inclusion of a qualitative and a quantitative assessment method provides additional information and complementary views of student global or international competency. While acknowledging that there are challenges in any type of assessment, we will point out some that have surfaced. Since our project is formative in nature and we are attempting to assess international or global learning achievement from an array of learning environments (processes) and not only from study abroad, there are additional issues that have surfaced due to the comprehensiveness of the assessment.

The first issue is initial student and faculty engagement in assessment. The logical access point to engage students is through internationally or globally focused courses. Depending upon the level of interest of the faculty teaching these courses, this approach has worked quite well as a means of gathering curricular and co-curricular work by students. The challenge arises when we attempt to have students include work from their extra-curricular involvements. Since they do not necessarily have reflective work from these experiences readily available, this requires some additional work. Depending upon the nature of the involvement and the time available during the semester, this may be viewed as excessively time consuming. The introduction of various monetary and enrichment incentives (*eg* special invitations to seminars on topics of interest) has helped to increase students' interest in providing these e-portfolio artefacts. Despite the critical nature of the ratings of the e-portfolio artefacts by faculty, the members of the rating panel have raised the time-consuming nature of this assessment method as an issue. Once again, we have provided monetary incentives to the faculty panel, which has helped to allay this concern. Although we continue to pilot the e-portfolio review process, we are pleased with the inter-rater reliability, which is about 80 percent.

Since administration of the BEVI is new to the international or global assessment arena, establishing the validity and reliability of the instrument in this setting is critical. We will be assessing this in the near future, however, anecdotally students frequently mention the uniqueness and relevance of some of the BEVI items. Their comments seem to suggest at least face validity.

All in all, we believe that the advantages of a comprehensive and mixed-methods approach to international or global assessment outweigh the challenges that have surfaced. We look forward to completing the pilot phase of the study, making adjustments, if necessary, and gathering sufficient data to run the SEM analysis.

Conclusion

Developing a comprehensive curricular and co-curricular programme that addresses and assesses global learning, beyond a one-off course or experience of education abroad, is essential if post-secondary institutions are to be truly successful in preparing global-ready graduates. The challenge is to move beyond that single course or single experience of education abroad to a true integration of learning across courses and co-curricular experience on campus.[28] Furthermore, as the study by the Association of American Colleges and Universities found, such learning outcomes "are poorly defined and not well integrated into global components of the curriculum".[29] Consequently, the further challenge is how to define and integrate global components into post-secondary education. In reviewing specific international education programmes that are actively assessing student learning outcomes, in this case study-abroad programmes, the following patterns emerge which may provide guidelines for the assessment of global learning outcomes in general:

- A variety of assessments are being used before, during and after the education-abroad experience, such as e-portfolios, self-report surveys, embedded course assessment, focus groups, interviews and observations by others including host families and internship supervisors.
- Intentional and adequate preparation (offered in such forms as pre-departure courses), as well as intentional intervention in student learning during and after the experience, are necessary in order for students to maximise their intercultural learning and global citizenship development and to articulate learning outcomes.

- Existing surveys and course assessments are being adapted to obtain more specific evidence of student learning, so as to move beyond the basic satisfaction surveys to include more relevant data on actual student learning.
- Given the complexity of assessing global learning outcomes, adequate support (in terms of leadership, finance, time, commitment and training) must be provided for efforts to be successful.

As international education administrators document evidence of global learning by our students, we not only transform internationalisation efforts but also help prepare students for the twenty-first century and ultimately help guide students towards fulfilling their responsibilities in the global community.

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Chapter 4
Ranking and the measurement of success in internationalisation: are they related?

by Robert J. Coelen

Introduction

Global ranking, or the global league tables of universities, is a relatively recent phenomenon. What began in 2003 as an exercise in measuring where Chinese universities stood in relation to their foreign counterparts[1] grew into a world-wide 'race to belong'. The global ranking phenomenon became the subject of national political debates[2] (particularly the ranking produced by the *Times Higher Education Supplement, THES*), countless senior university management discussions and much public interest. National ranking schemes, at times no less controversial, have been with us for much longer. The ranking of US institutions of higher education was created by Bob Morse in the early eighties in the *US News and World Report* to provide an insight into the various aspects of colleges and universities, which were thought to be helpful in deciding where to study. Many other systems have emerged since and the more recent global rankings have drawn renewed attention to national ranking systems.

The essence of the global ranking schemes is that a number of parameters are measured, assigned a particular weight and then combined to produce a single measure (score). This score determines a university's position on a list.

The term 'world-class university' was sporadically used prior to the global comparison of universities to draw up league tables. This term became part of the regular vocabulary of those concerned with the positioning of their institutions. It is a term that has escaped precise definition, but somehow became billed as something that a university had to achieve or even something the nation should have. Not having a university in the top few hundred in the world in some or other ranking scheme led government leaders in a number of countries to raise serious question as to how this situation had arisen.

The Internet and print media have ensured that the general public has had access to the global rankings. Insufficient information about or at times incorrect interpretation of what these schemes measured, coupled with public access, led to an understanding by the general public that these schemes accurately measured and compared the performance of universities. These ranking schemes became proxies for a determination of the quality of a university. They thus became part of the arsenal of information used by those seeking an education outside their home country. At present there is no evidence that this use is waning.

The internationalisation of higher education, as a process of integrating an international dimension into the teaching, research and service functions of a higher education institution, had existed as a tangible activity for about a decade before the advent of global league tables. Before that, internationalisation was not a deliberate response of higher education institutions to the forces of globalisation. Many internationalisation activities aimed solely at promoting student and staff mobility.

During the last 15 years, the growth of international student participation in education outside their home country has mirrored the globalisation of economies. Based on OECD data[3] and assuming 5% growth per annum, in all probability there were 3.16 million international students in 2008. This is about triple the number of international students compared to the late eighties.

Since the 1980s, higher education institutions have been increasingly called upon to account for their expenditure and to demonstrate their effectiveness. The tension that exists between the public good and private benefit of higher education, the effectiveness of higher education in terms of the preparation of graduates for the work force, retention rates and the output of research funding have all been drivers of increased accountability. Measurement against standards (benchmarking) is often used to assess an institution's efforts.

The serious focus on internationalisation by higher education institutions as well as their global ranking are relatively recent phenomena and are both undoubtedly here to stay for the foreseeable future. As institutions spend more effort on their response to globalisation, accountability for this aspect, like so many others, will be required.

This in turn will cause institutions to reach for internationalisation benchmarks so that their performance in this regard can be measured. There is now evidence to suggest (see below) that the mobility of students and the development of inter-institutional relationships are influenced by the standing of universities in global ranking schemes. These two aspects are important facets of internationalisation. This chapter will examine both the ranking and the measurement of success in internationalisation and conclude with some remarks about their relationship.

Problems with ranking

As Marginson[4] has pointed out, ranking is popular and has most certainly overshadowed the interest in quality assurance and national research assessment. It will most likely have an impact on many aspects of higher education. Given its powerful effect on public opinion and its place amongst the instruments used by international students for the selection of their foreign place of study, it is likely that one way or another institutions will be drawn towards it, even if only to ensure their rightful place in the ranking order of these league tables.

Ranking relies on the measurement of a number of characteristics (metrics) and the combination of all or some of the results for these metrics in a ranking order. The most widely known global rankings, produced by Shanghai Jiao Tong University and the *Times Higher Education Supplement*, combine all metrics to produce a ranking with individual places (at least for the most highly ranked institutions). There is another system, though not on a global scale, that allows the user to select those metrics that are most relevant to their situation. This system is produced by CHE[5] in Germany. It allows users to intervene by selecting preferred metrics (not all of them) with which to produce a grouping into three classes (bottom, middle and top).

While combining individual metric scores to generate a single overall score follows the same pattern for all universities listed in a particular ranking table, the weighting that is applied to an individual metric, as part of the overall score, may have profound effects on the position of an institution in the table. The rationale for weighting the various metrics is one of the clouds of uncertainty that surround this method of ranking. What is the rationale for counting one metric for 20% or 10% of the total? There may perhaps be scope for the end user of a ranking table to apply a different weighting, depending on the importance an individual user places on one metric or another.

The Berlin Principles on Ranking of Higher Education Institutions[6] recommends that the metrics used in ranking be relevant, valid and related to outcomes, whenever possible. Most importantly, the methodology used for creating the ranking should be clear and unambiguous.

The need for adherence to the Berlin Principles is easily demonstrated. One example of how easily ranking can be influenced was observed in The Netherlands, where PhD students were more frequently regarded as employees than as students. This interpretation of their status had an impact on the ranking data collected by the *Times Higher Education Supplement's* ranking. Many Dutch universities reinterpreted the status of the international PhD student in line with the practice in many other jurisdictions, thus optimising their scores for this ranking metric.

Other examples of this phenomenon relate to institutional success in publishing in peer-reviewed journals. Where once academics were left to their own devices when it came to declaring the institution to which they were affiliated – that is, before global ranking – they are now increasingly asked to ensure the institution to which they are affiliated is named correctly. This is to ensure that their publication efforts count towards the performance of the institution in ranking tables that include publication or citation scores, or which use highly cited authors[7] as part of their measurement.

This problem is compounded for non-Anglophone countries where two or even more English names may regularly be used for the same institution. Other complications are the mixed usage of English or local language names for the institution to which the researcher is affiliated or the existence of institutions where people have two appointments, one as an employee of the institution cited in the publication and the other an academic appointment at the university. Leiden University (the official English version of its Dutch name) is a typical example of this problem. There are 15 highly cited Leiden University professors, though their reported institutional affiliations include no fewer than six institutions.

Thus even where metrics appear to be relatively straightforward, local interpretation and other cultural characteristics may already present problems. Usher and Savino[8] have provided a thorough analysis of some 19 university league tables. In their analysis, they considered the metrics used for these tables, including the ARWU and *THES* rankings. One division of the metrics relates to the method of data collection. They identified metrics that relied on survey data, were provided by independent third parties or were provided by the universities themselves. Each of these types has its own advantages as well as its potential problems. Those provided by the universities themselves may be manipulated for maximum gain, whereas third-party independent data are usually not designed for use in ranking. They are often collected for quite different reasons.

Survey data can be problematic insofar as they are used for ranking, since no single respondent would have knowledge of all the institutions ranked. The low level of respondents in the *THES* peer survey provided no guarantee that the average reflected an overall view, since the subjective assessment from one individual to the next would most likely be based on a different scale. Depending on the subjective assessment of a particular peer, universities which are not often selected as the best in a particular field might end up much lower or higher in the ranking than would otherwise be the case if a reliable number of respondents selected that particular university. The level of confidence attributable to the selection of the institutions at the top of the list (with many respondents making a selection) would be much higher than the ranking of institutions lower down the list. Connecting these assessments with varying degrees of confidence into a single continuum would therefore be problematic.

Another problem with this survey came to light at the First Leiden University International Symposium on Ranking[9] in a discussion about the peer review used in the *THES* ranking. It became apparent that the peers who responded to the survey were not necessarily peers in the sense that they enjoyed a similar standing to their counterparts at the top universities they were asked to name. It has also become clear that peers were induced to respond, as was shown in a paper by Wills.[10] These issues raised serious doubts as to the validity of the survey results.

In the sense that global university ranking is meant to signify a quality scale, with the highest ranked universities having the highest quality, it is worthwhile viewing the metrics as proxies for the measurement of quality. Even more important would be to consider whether a collection of metrics can be combined to provide an overall ranking with respect to quality. Clearly the characteristics of the metrics have an important effect on the 'quality' that is measured.

In the Usher and Savino paper,[11] the nature of these characteristics was examined after dividing the characteristics into seven categories. The two global rankings, ARWU and *THES*, used very different combinations of categories and weightings applied to these characteristics. Of the metrics used by ARWU, 90% were research related and 10% were related to learning outputs. *THES,* on the other hand, used four categories, with reputation carrying most weight (50%), followed by learning inputs (25%), research (20%) and the characteristics (qualities) of newly admitted students.

THES used international students as one of its metrics. Presumably this is a measure of attractiveness and prestige (the ability to attract international students). However, the distribution of international students across disciplines is far from uniform, with the bulk of international students studying in professional disciplines, including business, commerce, accounting, IT, engineering and law. A university without some or all of these disciplines would not score well on this metric. Equally, non-English teaching universities would tend to attract fewer international students because of the additional language barrier. Would the presence of many cross-border students at universities in Europe, who live in border areas, be a reflection of quality?

ARWU used the fact that it had a Nobel Prize winner or a Fields Medal winner on its staff, or that it had educated such a winner, as a metric, albeit with a different weighting. It was more valuable to have someone of this calibre on its staff than to have educated him or her. The weighting also decreased with the passage of time. What does having educated a Nobel Prize winner at bachelor's level have to do with the quality of the institution in today's ranking? If used well by the PR department, such facts add to an institution's prestige, especially in the eyes of a lay audience, and thus they may enhance the institution's success in attracting international students.

It is, of course, possible to criticise each and every metric that is used, depending on the point of view of the user of the ranking. The CHE ranking goes some way towards addressing this problem by allowing users to select those metrics that best match their needs. However, the CHE ranking's data collection does not always travel well across borders. The opinions of university professors about their colleagues' departments within the same discipline provided reasonably consistent results within one country, but this metric did not provide good results for cross-border assessment between two neighbouring countries.[12] Other problems relating to the cross-border application of the CHE system are being investigated in a pilot in which the use of the system has been extended to two additional countries.

A particular ranking table may or may not make sense. This depends not only on the view of the observer or user of a ranking system, but also on the mission and the type of institution which is ranked. A ranking which is rich in metrics and assesses published output would be of little benefit to an excellent institution that has a strong focus on the arts and humanities, if it is compared to counterparts that have strong medical and/or science faculties with much higher published output *per capita*.

Although ranking is not without its problems, it is clear that global ranking is influencing a number of stakeholders in higher education. Salmi and Saroyan[13] observed that the governments of some countries restricted the granting of scholarships to students at highly ranked universities. These actions would also convince local citizens, who were not able to access scholarships, that the universities for which scholarships were granted would also be a safe investment in their future. CEOs of universities are another group who are influenced by the rankings. More than 50% of CEOs indicated that they formally reviewed rankings and that ranking played a role in deciding on partnerships.[14]

It is common knowledge that the primary concern of international students is the quality of the education they will receive at their chosen institution. Faced with the overwhelming task of trying to determine the quality of foreign universities, especially when embarking on a university education, these students seek advice and reassurance through a number of avenues that effectively channel the students towards certain choices, rather than providing an all-encompassing and objective selection. The advice and reassurance given is in part serendipitous, driven by what information is available to the student at the time, even where this is collected over a year or more. This form of assessment may be likened to a snapshot assessment. International students are known to use ranking as part of their snapshot assessment when deciding where to enrol for their international studies. There is early anecdotal evidence to suggest that this is indeed so.[15] More recently, research has shown that postgraduate students use global ranking as an important instrument when selecting a place to study within a country.[16]

For better or for worse, the current global rankings have an impact on the prestige associated with a university. This in turn has an effect on the institution's ability to attract talented students and staff. This effect extends beyond the areas in which the institution excels at present. Princeton University has a lot of prestige associated with it and would be able to attract talented law students to its law school, save for the fact that it does not have one. This did not stop students ranking its law school among the top ten in the nation.[17] This 'halo' effect therefore enhances the standing of the entire institution, including units which perform less well.

The contribution of prestige to the ability to attract international students, inferred from being well ranked in global ranking tables, is a pivotal link discussed in this paper. Before considering the juxtaposition of internationalisation and ranking, it is necessary to consider internationalisation. In particular, this paper needs to consider the measurement of success in internationalisation.

Measurement of success in internationalisation

Just as an institution's success in rankings depends on the metrics used in a particular ranking system, so too the measurement of success in internationalisation is influenced by which parameters are used. While this seems self-evident, this is not the case where internationalisation is concerned. The problem relates to the lack of clarity with which this term is used. Depending on the reason for internationalisation, success in internationalisation has very different meanings.

According to which process is being considered, teaching or research, the level of spontaneity with which internationalisation occurs, as the introduction of international dimensions into the core processes of a university, differs considerably. Excellent cutting-edge research takes into account what the global state of knowledge is on a particular topic and ensures that the outcome increases this level of knowledge. Such advances are of global significance. It is thus an essential requirement that excellent research take into account the global state of knowledge (knowledge needs to be globalised). In order to conduct excellent research, the researcher has to be aware of international developments. Clearly it is through this that excellence and internationalisation are intimately connected.

The level of spontaneity, in terms of introducing international dimensions into learning and teaching at universities, is much lower. At the more basic levels of instruction early in the degree programme, the knowledge provided tends to be broadly accepted and embedded and has long since lost its connection to the cutting edge in that field. Given the universality of such knowledge, academics tend to think of it as not needing an international dimension. This is a narrow view of adding an international dimension, but explains the lack of attention to this concept.

Obviously at more advanced levels of knowledge within a discipline, closer to the cutting edge, the need to introduce international dimensions becomes greater as the amount of information available decreases. Advanced levels of specialisation will further force knowledge to be imported and, at the highest levels, will emphasise the need for intercultural skills, as the sharing of such knowledge will often involve interaction with people from other cultures.

The acquisition of intercultural skills is one of the driving forces behind internationalisation. While those operating in the academic domain will only need these intercultural skills when they reach the stage of knowledge production at the cutting edge (apart, of course, from the need for these skills created by the present increase in global student mobility), outside of the academic domain globalisation has permeated society at many more levels. The need for intercultural skills is expanding daily as globalisation continues its presumably unstoppable march.

Two principal motives that drive the internationalisation of teaching are related to the global mobility of students and graduates. The knowledge that graduates are increasingly in need of intercultural skills, coupled with the trust society places in institutions of higher learning to prepare graduates appropriately for working life, has motivated universities to internationalise teaching. As universities seek to attract international students and as they increasingly come to see these students as clients in a relationship of client to service provider, they will be driven to make the education they offer relevant to local and international students alike. Enhancing the international relevance of teaching is another form of internationalisation.

The motive for attracting international students may be economic or it may be to secure talented individuals. Societies are increasingly aiming to develop knowledge-based economies and for this they require a highly educated workforce. Immigration policies, such as the issuing of permanent residence permits to graduates, as currently practised in Australia, or the ability to stay longer to seek work, a change recently introduced in The Netherlands, take into account the global search for talent which is needed to build these economies.

Institutions of higher education may be sending their students abroad so that they can acquire intercultural skills during their study period. At the same time, for reasons of foreign cultural policy, countries may stimulate the same mobility. Indeed, Thailand currently has a scholarship scheme (one district, one scholarship),[18] in accordance with which they send their best and brightest young students to study in non-English speaking countries to enhance awareness at home and the experience of other cultures. Likewise the Senator Paul Simon Study Abroad Foundation Act of 2007[19] clearly states the need for American students to engage with a larger part of the world than they have up until now in order to promote the cultural enrichment of American society.

There are many other motives for internationalisation, including the promotion of peace and global responsibility, as well as regional integration and development.[20] At times the same action may be supported at different levels (government versus institutional levels) for different reasons. As was stated earlier, depending on the motive, the measurement of success in internationalisation could require very different metrics. Some measurements may be very difficult to make. How would one measure success in terms of foreign cultural policy motives at national level? In any event, this could not be measured as success in internationalisation if the motive at institutional level is economic. A quick look at the finances of such an institution would tell that part of the story.

It is possible to consider the international dimensions of many other aspects of university operations, including the administration, governance, staff and student support. The measurement of success in internationalisation in these areas would be subject to yet other metrics. This diversity, as well as the diversity of higher education institutions in terms of their type and mission, will ensure a lively debate on how best to measure success in internationalisation.

Concluding remarks

In the race for the acquisition of talent in the global arena (as an aspect of internationalisation) the two processes of ranking and internationalisation have become intertwined. Both apparently exert an influence on each other. Recruiting talented staff with good credentials will improve an institution's performance in ranking and, in turn, good performance in ranking will enhance the chances of recruiting talented students. The ranking and the measurement of success in internationalisation could therefore be viewed as two complimentary forces. The higher the ranking, the easier it is to recruit talented international staff and students. This improvement in internationalisation (if it were measured as such) could in turn lead to a higher ranking (if only through increased foreign presence, but more likely through higher published output).

This virtuous quality spiral is possibly the root cause of the level of excellence experienced by a few institutions in the world at present. They almost certainly would not have started at the relative levels of excellence they are at today. The prestige derived from acknowledge excellence, strengthened by today's global ranking, will do much to secure their status, although other factors, such as finance and size, will also play a major role. It remains to be seen whether sustained investment will build universities of world-class standing. The experiment is ongoing in China today. There have been calls in Europe for funding to be concentrated to ensure the compulsory development of centres of excellence. Equally there are voices which call for such investment to be spread across many centres. The latter approach will almost certainly not build institutions which enjoy the status of the handful of elite universities, but according to some it will provide a greater yield of new knowledge, created in a more diverse and therefore innovative academic environment.

Since words like 'most', 'biggest' and 'best' are part of the innate and innermost vocabulary of mankind, taking ranking into account is unavoidable. Accountability to society or governing boards will ensure that our new responsibility for internationalisation will be measured. It is our role as the experts involved in this field to make sure that we know how to measure success before universities are hit by the full force of this accountability. The global ranking of universities came about by accident in the first instance. Let us not repeat this for the measurement of the success of internationalisation.

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Chapter 5
Measuring the success of internationalisation: the case for joint and double degrees

by Giancarlo Spinelli

Introduction

Almost everyone accepts that strong internationalisation goes hand in hand with the quality of the institution. However, if a deeper analysis is made, it is evident that the problem is not clearly defined and that, very often, there is no agreement even on the meaning of the terms used.

The first term which can have different meanings is ‘quality’. Here are some of the many definitions that are used:

Quality = conformity to specifications
Quality = suitability for use
Quality = an orientation to the present and future needs of consumers
Quality = the ability to satisfy the needs (explicit and implicit) of the customer
Quality = the degree to which a set of intrinsic characteristics satisfies requirements (requirements = needs or expectations that can be defined)[1]

People working in manufacturing speak of a circle, starting from and returning to the customer. In this context, the ‘expected quality’ is what the customer expects in terms of the satisfaction of his or her needs in relation with a specific product or service. ‘Design quality’ is the set of requirements of a product or a service at the end of the design process. At this stage, the product has been developed and produced. ‘Supplied quality’ is the set of requirements of a product or a service at the end of the production or the supply process. The next step returns to the customer. ‘Perceived quality’ is what is perceived by the customer in terms of the satisfaction of his or her needs and expectations, directly correlated to the requirements of the product or service. Moreover, there are gaps between the steps in the process, so that each category of quality differs from the others not only with regard to its definition but also in the way it is measured.

If the problem is already so complex in manufacturing, where the products are usually clearly defined, one cannot expect it to be easier to define a complex issue such as the internationalisation of a university. Here the concepts of ‘customers’ and ‘products’ themselves become fuzzy and often overlap. Internationalising an institution requires huge investment, both financially and in terms of human resources, combined with critical efforts by the organisation to create an efficient support structure. It is therefore natural to demand quality control and assessment.

On the one hand, the quality of the process of internationalisation is at issue.

On the other hand, the most urgent question that has to be answered, even before starting the process, is whether internationalisation is an indicator of the quality of an institution. This question can be subdivided into more specific questions such as whether mobility is a quality indicator.

The general perception of all those working in the field is that the answer is 'yes' to these questions. However, one encounters almost insurmountable difficulties when one tries to quantify these statements. Objective data are the consequence of many different causes and, in general, it is extremely difficult to decouple the effects of each of them.

Highly integrated curricula leading to joint or double degrees

I will deal here with only one example to draw attention to a few considerations that may apply to other cases, namely highly integrated curricula leading to joint or double degrees. Highly integrated international curricula are interesting for many reasons, such as:

- they are very popular and are therefore mushrooming in Europe and beyond;
- they are repeatedly mentioned and promoted in many documents of, or relating to, the Bologna process; and
- they are very often mentioned by many institutions as proof of the quality of their internationalisation activities.

From the beginning, different terms have been mentioned in the declarations and communiqués of the Bologna process and in the discussions triggered by them. Here are some quotations from official documents.

> **Sorbonne (1998)**
> "*Joint programmes* are a significant contribution to the progressive harmonization of the overall framework of our degrees and cycles."
>
> **Bologna (1999)**
> "... Promotion of the necessary European dimension in higher education, particularly with regards to curricular development, inter-institutional cooperation, mobility schemes and *integrated programmes* of study, training and research ... "
>
> **Prague (2001)**
> "... To increase the development of modules, courses and curricula at all levels with 'European' content, orientation or organization. This concerns particularly modules, courses and curricula offered in partnership by institutions from different countries and leading to a recognized *joint degree* ..."
>
> **Berlin (2003)**
> "Development of *integrated study programmes* and *joint degrees* at first, second and third level ..."
> "...Ministers agree to engage at the national level to remove legal obstacles to the establishment and recognition of such degrees and to

actively support the development and adequate quality assurance of integrated curricula leading to joint degrees."

Bergen (2005)
"Ministers express support for the subsidiary texts to the Lisbon Recognition Convention and call upon all national authorities and other stakeholders to recognise *joint degrees* awarded in two or more countries in the EHEA."

As it can be observed, slightly different terms are used in these quotations. At this point, I would like to introduce two definitions that are widely accepted, even if not universally. The term 'double-degree project' is used when each of the two institutions involved in the project awards its own (full) degree to students who meet the prescribed requirements. A 'joint degree', on the other hand, is a single document issued by the institutions involved, whether or not in addition to that of one of the two institutions involved.

Since we are analysing the issue from the perspective of quality, we first have to consider what the 'expected quality' is, as in the case of a product or service. In simpler terms, why would one wish to design and implement a double degree or a joint degree?

Double degrees

The philosophy behind double degrees is that it is desirable to educate graduates who have broader cultural experience and more intense training in their subject areas. There are various ways of achieving these goals. My opinion is that the first objective can be achieved only by a long period abroad and that the second objective requires a greater workload for a student registered for a double degree, compared to a student enrolled for a single degree. In order to quantify these requirements, consideration must be given to the factors that make this experience unique.

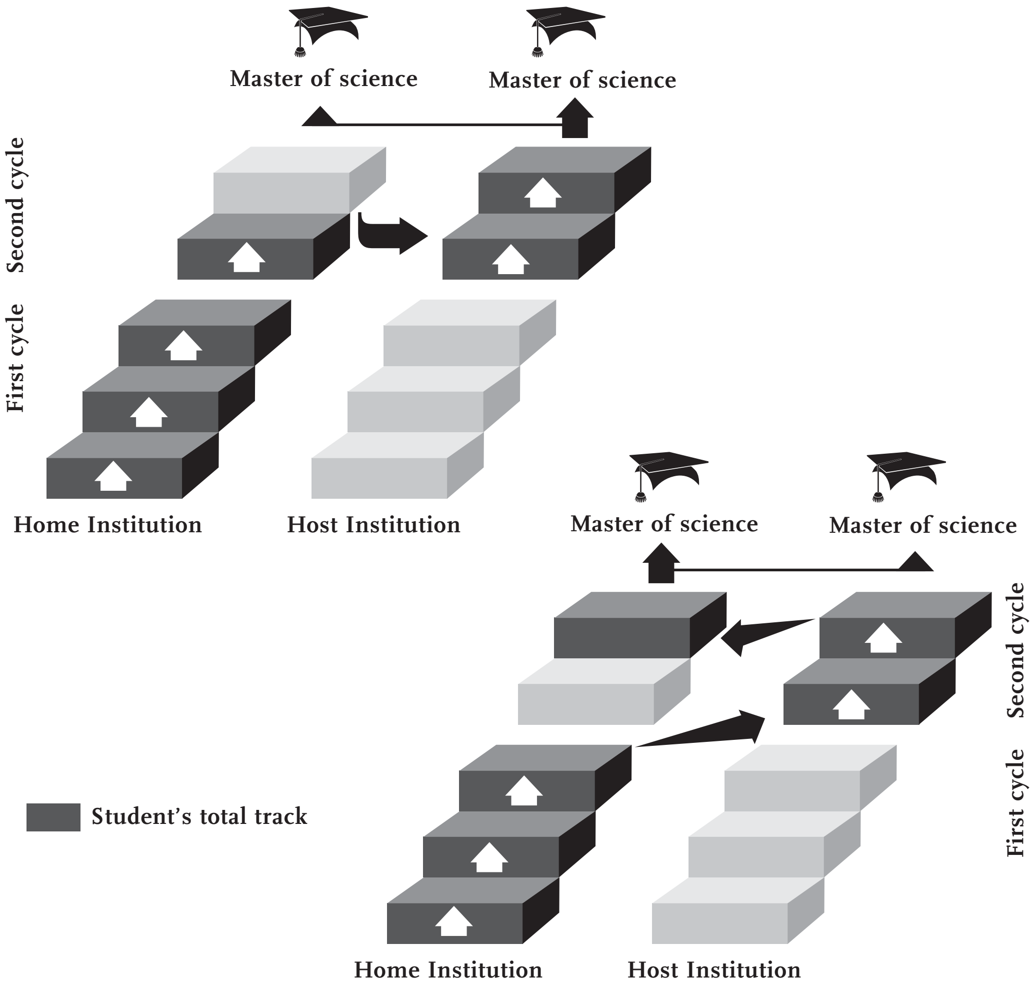
Outstanding learning and skill outcomes are required. It is generally accepted that the learning process is very non-linear, both with regard to the cultures encountered and its duration. In other words, by being exposed to two cultures a person experiences more than merely the sum of the two (*eg* two years abroad provide much more enrichment than two periods of one year).

We require a curriculum that takes advantage of the differences, rather than the similarities, in the educational systems and offers a genuine opportunity to adapt deeply to other countries' cultures.

An obvious corollary of these requirements is that the students enrolled in a double-degree programme such as this should be required to take on an extra workload in terms of credits. The extent of this additional workload is a matter for discussion.
As an example, at my institution, the Academic Senate has issued guidelines for the institution's double degrees at the second-cycle level (Master's level) establishing minimal requirements:

• Minimum workload at the host institution:	120 ECTS credits
• Minimum extra workload (compared to the workload of a student enrolled for only one degree):	60 ECTS credits

This means that, in order to obtain a double degree at MSc level, the minimum total workload required by the two institutions and during the two cycles should correspond to 360 ECTS credits. Therefore, for example, that for European institutions which are already organised in a two-tier (3+2) system, the two main options are as follows:



The main difference between the two schemes is that in the first one work on the final thesis is generally done at the host institution, while in the second scheme it is generally done at the home institution. The difference may be relevant where the home institution fears a brain drain.

These are only examples. Other criteria may also be used. However, from the perspective of a quality assurance system, *these criteria always have to be quantified and made explicit*.

Joint degrees

The Bologna process aims to make joint degrees at Master's level more and more attractive for the following reasons:

- they are well defined and visible products;
- they can be done in a maximum of two years after the first cycle;
- they can easily be offered to students from a third institution; and
- internationalisation can be realised by exchanging students for part of the curriculum and/or by extensive lecturer mobility .

This is why there is an almost incredible burgeoning of initiatives and new cooperative schemes in the area of joint degrees. The joint degree, in my view, is the only highly integrated degree for which it is correct not to impose an additional workload. In this case, it is also reasonable that students should not have to be very proficient in the languages of all the institutions that contribute to the joint curriculum (and employers also expect this to be the case). For example, the courses may be offered in English. What has to be clear in advance is whether the joint award has or does not have any value in legal terms, at least in the countries of the awarding institutions. By 'legal value' I mean that the award should confer the same rights in the respective countries as the official qualifications awarded by a local institution at the respective level (first, second or third cycle). This issue is particularly relevant when regulated professions are involved.

Quality concerns and risks

In the case of double-degree projects, a quality control system is already built into the project. Each institution has to award its own degree and the degree is therefore subject to the quality control system set up for the institution's degrees.
In the case of joint degrees, the demand for quality control and assessment of both the product and the process can be justified on many grounds. There is a considerable supply of such products on the market and the supply is constantly increasing. As a result, customers have a considerable need for guidance. This is why some associations, whose brands are already well known, are setting up their own assessment committees. This enables them to ensure that care is exercised when associating their brands with joint degrees, which must meet well-defined criteria.

In my view, it is important that programmes are properly named to avoid the risk of deceiving our stakeholders, even unintentionally. We must deceive neither our stakeholders on the employment market nor our students. With regard to the employment market, we have to explain what the added value of a double degree is. This is particularly true for those double degrees awarded without the requirement of any additional workload, in terms of credits, in comparison to the workload required of a student who will only be awarded a single degree. Moreover, some doubts may arise in relation to those double degrees awarded without requiring students to be proficient in the languages of both countries.

The fact that many integrated curricula which are designed as joint degrees have been converted into double-degree projects (without changing their structure) is due to legal obstacles which exist in some countries. This may be justified as a transitional measure. However, it is to be hoped that in the near future only double-degree programmes with a consistent additional workload will survive and that the others will be denoted by the correct term, namely 'joint degrees'.

Once transparency of titles has been established, the transparency of the contents of programmes has to be checked with regard to the employability of graduates. I believe employability can only be guaranteed by involving companies. How these integrated degree programmes are attuned to demand on the employment market makes a considerable difference, particularly whether the employment market only has influence on the final product or on the structure of the educational process itself.

Companies can provide us with invaluable inputs for these international projects. It should be emphasised, and should always be borne in mind, that a prerequisite for involving companies in the early stages is that the higher education institution is already strong in the field. What this means is that the institution should not become a mere provider of products but a partner which is knowledgeable and takes responsibility for the full education of the student.

Highly integrated curricula as quality indicators?

What remains is to answer the original question, namely can internationalisation be a quality indicator for institutions? In the present discussion, the focus has been limited to some fairly specific projects which are often presented as the top of the range in the internationalisation of institutions.

Even in this specific case, the answer is far from easy. To quantify it is almost a 'mission impossible'. The obvious temptation is simply to look at the numbers (or percentage) of students enrolled in these projects, both new students and graduates. However, it is far too easy to increase these numbers simply by lowering the admission criteria and/or the workload demanded of students, which comprises the integrated curricula leading the awarding of the degrees. Producing a considerable number of such graduates does not necessarily mean that they will be accepted by the employment market for positions at the right level.

Relying only on the regulatory effect of the employment market is also not always wise. The time required for regulation by the employment market is very often too long for such regulation to have a meaningful effect. Many years pass before the students complete their curricula, are awarded their degrees, begin their careers and check how useful their specific international programme was, before the information spreads and eventually has an impact on enrolment. In the meantime, graduates may be educated but they do not find suitable employment. In addition, numbers which have little meaning in themselves could influence formulas which presume to measure the quality of the institution. This may be particularly dangerous where those formulas are used for various rankings of the institutions, or even for the funding at the national or local level. The risk of such formulas is that the institutions may also focus on achieving only partial results, which have an immediate effect almost independently on the long-term policy of internationalisation.

In my view, the judgement of peer reviewers is much more meaningful. After all, they can take into account many more factors which are almost impossible to quantify and/or render as variables in formulas.

In summary, the issue with regard to measuring the impact of internationalisation is similar to that of measurement in physics, where a comparison is sometimes made with cleaning a dirty table with a dirty cloth. It seems to be a mission impossible, but with great patience, if the table is rubbed continuously with the cloth, the cloth becomes a little cleaner and is therefore able to clean the table a little more, while the table also cleans the cloth a little more. Primitive instruments make rough measurements, which allow us to understand physics. On the basis of this understanding, better instruments are built that make better measurements and so the bootstrap process continues.

In my view, we do not have to be discouraged by the very poor instruments we have to measure the correlation between the internationalisation of an institution and its quality. The exercise itself of trying to measure this correlation is producing a certain increase in the quality of the institution. This in turn will allow the design of new procedures for controlling quality. The most important goal is to trigger a virtuous circle.

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Chapter 6
Measuring success in education abroad: who are we trying to impress?

by Michael Woolf

Introduction: parity of esteem in study abroad

A persistent challenge in the field of education abroad is to convince our colleagues that we are, after all, serious fellows. There is a more or less permanent demand on this field to prove its academic credibility in ways that are not usually demanded of other teaching and learning enterprises. Justly or unjustly, we therefore go into contortions and anguished postures just to prove that we are not running holiday camps or indulging in vacuous pleasantries in climates which are sunny (or otherwise). Some of this dilemma is of our own making. Much of our marketing uses the language of tourism. There are a wearying number of possible examples: "Trek the ancient tropics", "When you tire of techno, have a quiet drink with Taoist monks", "Far away and exotic lands of Africa, South East Asia, Australia and Oceania", "Rainforest adventure", "Outstanding markets, dining and nightlife", "A bustling metropolis where history and culture await".[1] These are examples drawn from current promotional literature. The language of marketing would appear to conflict with the language of academic respectability.

One corrective approach is to promote content rather than location. In other words, come to Australia because it is one of the best places to study Marine Biology (forget the surfing) or come to London because it is a transformed location (not the traditional space too often envisaged) where it makes sense to look at globalisation, study race and ethnicity, and so on.

Another element in this search for academic credibility, respectability and recognition is the desire to demonstrate beneficial and valuable outcomes. The purpose of this article is to examine the rationale and the complexities involved in what might appear to be a relatively simple task. In practice, the question of assessment emerges as a bewildering conundrum. The question of how we measure success (or failure) is complex in itself. If we ask why we want to measure these outcomes, the whole issue threatens to become a tangle of contradictions. The object of what follows is to take this murky topic and render it somewhat gloomier.

A utilitarian age

At every level of the educational enterprise practitioners seek to find concrete and measurable mechanisms (usually) to demonstrate the value of their particular activity. This quantitative imperative drives the field towards a search for the Holy Grail of outcomes assessment as a means of encapsulating experiences that are complex and elusive, and that may resist simplistic measurement.

We have entered into a new utilitarian age where there is a clamour for statistics. This recalls the opening of Charles Dickens's *Hard Times*, the great novel of an earlier utilitarian age. Thomas Gradgrind, a self-made man, talks to the school teacher, Mr Choakumchild, as follows:

> Now what I want is Facts ... Plant nothing else, and root out everything else. You can only form the minds of reasoning animals upon Facts: nothing else will ever be of any service to them. Sticks to Facts, Sir![2]

In the spirit of Gradgrind and as reasoning animals we recognise that it is human nature to want to measure outcomes in one way or another. We know that action has consequences and that what we do must therefore have some form of reaction. This becomes a particular need when we are trying to make a case for an activity that is perceived, in some areas, as of marginal utility and value. It is obvious that the case for international education in the widest sense (as study abroad, curriculum development or recruitment of overseas students) can best be made to colleagues in academia and in the wider world if, to some degree or other, we can measure, enumerate and thus demonstrate success.

The old humanist assertions of the value of international education may still be attractive to those of us in the field and are at the very core of what we believe to be true. However, they will not necessarily convince colleagues in the wider academic context. They will be even less convincing to budget and account holders in the finance departments of universities and Ministries of Education.

Consequently we seek to demonstrate success (and to expose failure) through some kind of measurement. There are many criteria that might be applied and these are broadly related to institutional profile, teaching and learning, and economic outcomes. Of course, not all of these are of equal value in all contexts. In parts of Europe where higher education is free, or nearly free, the question of short-term economic benefit is not as yet relevant. The longer-term value to a given society is, of course, another matter. Other forms of measurement may involve numbers (participants or dollars), the quality of student learning, the development of faculty and research, and so on. My intention is to speculate broadly on the notion of success (and failure) in internationalisation and to try to explore (though not to resolve) the complexities.

There are many variables. A consideration of these will reveal the crucial question of the purpose of the measurement. For whom are preparations being made? What is the purpose of the exercise? Clearly a review of outcomes for an audience of international educators would ask very different questions to a review prepared for university Rectors or Vice-Chancellors. This would be different again if the review were being prepared for government ministries. The crucial questions here are: Who are you trying to impress? Who are the stakeholders? Are you preaching to the converted or just preaching?

Who are you trying to impress?

The issue becomes complicated further when variables are introduced which relate to objectives, because at some level or other success and failure will be measured against objectives. That said, the objectives of international education are by no means singular or simple. Some of these objectives might be categorised as follows:

Diplomacy

One object of international education may well be to improve the image of a country abroad. Until 1978, in the UK, for example, a much-heralded characteristic of UK higher education was that it trained a foreign elite, who would go back to their respective countries with an enhanced respect for Britain and an innate empathy with British interests. That this elite included Idi Amin did not diminish the enthusiasm for the position. With the introduction of a higher level of fees for foreign students in 1978, the British government signalled a shift towards a commercial objective for this form of international education. The import of overseas students became a mechanism for the economic support of higher education in the UK, as it is, indeed, in many parts of the world, most notably in Australia and the USA. The transition was, therefore, from a broad emphasis on diplomatic benefits towards a more obviously commercial motivation.

Commerce

Agencies like IDP in Australia and the British Council are, in essence, fundraisers for the universities in their respective countries. Universities in these countries are, to a degree, dependent upon the fee income from overseas students. The regions and areas in which these universities exist have local economies which depend on the continued healthy existence of the institution which, outside of the main conurbations, is frequently a large, if not the largest, employer. The overseas students themselves are also important consumers of local goods and services. This adds up to an important economic imperative. In this context, success can then be measured, in part, by customer satisfaction and thus by continued and expanding fee income. A market-economy model serves as the means of measurement.

Regional and economic development

The university may also be a means of creating economic strength in a particular country, region or area. The growth of universities in Ghana, for example, has been fuelled at least in part by the need to enhance development and nation building in parts of Africa. As Kofi Ohene has described this:

> They [Ghanaian Universities] were conceived as instruments of national development for the fulfilment of national independence and the solution of immediate problems of poverty, ignorance and disease. Their immediate function of primary importance was, however, the training of middle and higher level manpower for rapid national social and economic development of the country after independence.[3] Success or failure would be measured in relation to the speed and efficiency of that development.

Skills transfer

The argument could be extended to a discussion of the issue of success, or otherwise, in relation to this objective. How, for example, do you measure success in relation to the export of young scholars from the developing to the developed world? Are the interests of the emerging nations best served through scholarships which fund PhD research abroad for numerous promising scholars? Are these interests served when the scholars will win the scholarships in the laboratories of Southern California, although the participants may go on to win Nobel Prizes? The issue of what is usually called the 'brain drain' is a major one when evaluating scholarship programmes aimed at training researchers (and undergraduates) from the developing world. This is certainly the case if the objective is, in fact, to assist in the development of the developing world. If objectives are clearly complex, the question of perspective is a further significant factor in creating murkiness where we would seek light. Who are you trying to impress is a very significant question. Depending on whether this question is approached from a student perspective, a faculty perspective, an institutional perspective (and from which perspective in the institution), a national political perspective or a regional perspective, among myriads of others, you will have to ask different questions to elicit different measurements of success. Students may be interested in opportunities for mobility and employment, governments might share a concern with finance departments about the unit cost of education, faculty might wish to measure success by research engendered and so on and so forth.

In the case of my organisation (The Foundation for International Education), for example, we wished to demonstrate that we had successfully resisted grade inflation, so as to be able to make the case for our credibility as providers of academic education. This is a common issue in study abroad, where a concern to demonstrate the persistence of standards usually exceeds that shown by US institutions. As a consequence, we aggregated the GPAs of student groups on entry and compared them to their exit grades. The predicted and predictable outcome was that there was only a minimal variation. We chose to interpret this as an indication that overall we were probably sustaining standards. It might also be argued that the statistics indicate that we were failing to inspire our students. What we needed as an outcome drove both the questions we asked and the manner in which we chose to interpret the outcomes. This is not by way of a confession. It is simply a reality in the field of outcomes assessment. The significance of these examples is that they further demonstrate that if objectives are complex and numerous, so are outcomes and the means by which those outcomes are evaluated. In the examples offered here, the question of success or failure has to be measured against a number of variables driven essentially by the two key questions, namely what are you trying to do and who are you trying to impress?

The issue becomes even more complex when the main impetus comes from a national political perspective. Of the three key objectives in the Lincoln Commission report, the second is that "... efforts be made to expand the number of American students studying in non-traditional countries." [4] A rationale frequently cited for this impulse is that it is in the USA's political interests to learn more about "... world regions that are critical to US national security" [5] or, as the Lincoln Commission argues, "... study abroad is simply essential to the nation's security." [6] From this perspective, we would measure success by the degree to which international education serves the interests of the USA and improves national security. There is a persuasive counter argument that international education needs to construct itself in terms of the benefits that accrue from exchange and interaction between participants from across the world. It should not be seen as a tool of a single national interest, nor should success or failure be measured against criteria derived from national security.

We should also swiftly dispense with the old humanist argument about the objectives of international education. Broadly put, in whatever shape or form international education is envisaged, somewhere in the mission of this enterprise is the notion that to learn about another culture is to increase tolerance. This leads to the utopian view that such education will reduce the likelihood of conflict between nations and cultures. International education is implicitly a mechanism perceived as a process that will bring world peace in some blessed and dreamt future. One measure of the success of the growth of international education is therefore the degree to which it brings tolerance and respect for other cultures and an appreciation of diversity. As we look back at our recent history, we can only do so with a sense of failure. The twentieth century was marked by holocausts, global conflict and mass destruction. It has been called "the century of the refugee".[7] In this century, as mobility has increased and international education has grown, there has been no cessation or diminution of conflict. Indeed, while we can note the growth of transnational institutions with some optimism, it is also apparent that there is a similar growth of sub-national (tribal) conflicts. These have emerged, for example, in the Sudan, until quite recently in Northern Ireland, the Balkans, the Middle East and so on. This is an age of paradox where global economic and political impulses coexist simultaneously with tribal fragmentations.

Are these the right criteria?

It is futile to become embroiled in trying to define internationalisation. It is sufficient to recognise that before you can measure 'success' or (by implication) 'failure' you need to have an idea of what the terms mean specifically to a given institution or organisation. The following is a list of statements that may or may not apply to any number of institutions, but may probably be widely shared as some measure of internationalisation in education:

1 Our curriculum is not parochial, but reflects the fact that our faculty have a genuine understanding of international contexts.
2 We send increasing numbers of students overseas. Those students return with a better understanding of global realities.
3 We receive an increasing number of international students on our campus.
4 These students are perceived as a benefit to university life.
5 We have an increasing number of international agreements.
6 We generate a successful surplus from our international activities.
7 We train students to be global citizens.

All these statements and others that could be generated to some degree or another suggest measurable outcomes, but they also encapsulate the core problem involved in measurement. They may be deconstructed as follows:

1 Our curriculum is not parochial, but reflects the fact that our faculty have a genuine understanding of international contexts.

It hardly need be said that the idea of internationalisation through the curriculum is both real and, simultaneously, nebulous. It cannot be easily quantified or necessarily defined. The fact that you have a course that teaches international politics (for example) does not mean that it is not taught through narrow or parochial lenses.

2 *We send increasing numbers of students overseas. Those students return with a better understanding of global realities.*

In contrast, this is a concrete and measurable outcome, but there is a core factor missing which relates obviously to what students do overseas. If students are studying at overseas universities, it necessarily follows that the sending university has little or no control over the curriculum. How do you measure learning in this context? Clearly, language students can be pre- and post-tested and some measure of improvement may or may not be measurable. In other curriculum areas, there are instruments, such as the Intercultural Development Inventory, which may or may not really measure meaningful outcomes. In any case, the outcomes it measures may or may not be part of your institutional mission. Peggy Maki has made a cogent summary of this issue. In a collective and shared commitment to assessing student learning, core working groups may well determine that no appropriate standardised instrument exists that aligns with outcomes at the institutional and programme levels.[8]

We also need to assess realistically the possibility of measuring outcomes after the relatively short time spent on an overseas programme. Can we realistically expect students to be transformed through that experience? Can we measure that transformation (if you believe in it) on return? When do we measure this impact? Are we imposing a value system in the selection of what we measure? A brief example may illustrate this latter question. We tend to believe that tolerance is a good quality and we therefore value it. If students learn tolerance, we assume that that is some measure of success. This begs an obvious question, namely is tolerance necessarily an unqualified good? What are the students being taught to tolerate? Furthermore, part of my instinct is to distrust the measurement of moral outcomes. To offer an analogy, we may go into a restaurant and be served food. It is not the job of the restaurant to digest it for us. Our role as educators is to create meaningful experiences, not to tell students what they should think about those experiences.

3 *We receive an increasing number of international students on our campus.*

This part of the statement is verifiable and measurable, but the second part raises a set of other questions.

4 *These students are perceived as a benefit to university life.*

This might be governed by a number of factors, most obviously who is doing the perceiving. There are, for example, locations where the administration will view international students as a very clear benefit, but local students may see them as a drain on available resources. When we consider the capacity of universities in the developing world to host international students, this issue may well be a critical one.

5 *We have an increasing number of international agreements.*

Agreements to do what? I was a consultant to a Japanese university which prided itself on its plethora of international agreements. They were largely untroubled by the fact that these led to very limited mobility indeed. They were nevertheless greatly valued as a symptom of their international breadth, but breadth without depth is superficial.

6 *We generate a successful surplus from our international activities.*

This is perhaps the simplest measure of success and failure because it is clearly countable. Last year we generated a surplus of X. This year we will generate a surplus of X plus 10 % = success. Last year we generated a surplus of Y. This year we have Y minus 10% = failure. The very crudity of the equation exposes its profound limitations because few would argue that this is the sole or primary purpose of international education. The essential difficulty of measurement is exposed, however, by the fact that this is the most concrete and most easily measured criterion.

That said, it may well be of value to make the financial case for study abroad, for example, by measuring the recruitment impact of having strong international opportunities. What percentage of students cited opportunities to study abroad as a motive for applying to the institution in the first place? Is there a measurable impact on retention? Effective out-comes assessment in those areas would have the benefit of countering the recurrent complaint that study abroad costs the institution a disproportionate amount of money. In this context it can be argued that outcomes assessment is either a weapon of defence, or a line of attack.

7 *We train students to be global citizens.*

This is the most elusive concept of all. What does it mean to be a global citizen? The term itself is an oxymoron in so far as to be a citizen is to belong to a definable national structure. To aim for such a challenging and unfocused ambition is, to a degree, to embed failure in education abroad. It would make more sense to argue that we aim to develop more fully-rounded citizens by introducing them to a broader context than their national identity. The notion of the 'global citizen' exists at a level of rhetoric rather than reality.

Conclusion: mission and audience

The desire to measure success or failure is a natural and creditable desire, but it is not a neutral process. Success is not an absolute value. We are in a field where we make many explicit or implicit assumptions. There is really no such thing as objective judgement.

What we choose to measure and how we choose to interpret those outcomes is driven, firstly, by intent (or mission). Then, underlying our efforts is the audience for which this task is undertaken. What we choose to assess or not to assess will largely be driven by these two factors.

It is, as a consequence, certainly possible to argue that success in international education may be measured as long as we recognise that the outcomes are partial and usually driven by an agenda beyond the purely educational. We may adopt Gradgrind's view: "Now what I want is facts. Stick to the facts, Sir." If we do so, let us also be aware that our reality is more complex, thankfully richer, than that revealed by mere fact. We need a more nuanced sense of the world in which we function.

References

1 It would be unfair and unreasonable to cite these sources. I do not intend to offer these as criticisms of any organisation or university, but rather as a symptom of a malaise that is widespread in the field.

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Chapter 7
How to measure the internationality and internationalisation of higher education institutions: indicators and key figures

by Uwe Brandenburg, Harald Ermel, Gero Federkeil, Stephan Fuchs, Martin Groos and Andrea Menn

Introduction

'Internationality' and 'internationalisation' have become the buzz words in higher education over the last decade. Yet it is still unclear what the difference is between the two terms and how one can measure internationality as a *status quo* or internationalisation as a process. This paper provides a definition of both terms and develops a framework within which both phenomena can be analysed and quantified. It also provides a set of general indicators which might be useful in overall comparisons of institutions. This paper is based on a more extensive publication, which includes a list of 186 indicators that can be applied in various contexts to higher education institutions (referred to below as 'HEIs'). The aim of the authors is twofold: firstly to provide both advice to individual institutions on how to measure internationality and internationalisation, in order to substantiate an internationalisation strategy with coherent and relevant data and thus establish a quality assurance system; and secondly to allow overall comparisons of HEIs and their internationality or internationalisation.

Centre for Higher Education Development (CHE)

The CHE is a think tank for higher education. Based on international comparisons, it develops models for the modernisation of higher education systems and institutions. These models are defined in close dialogue with decision-makers from higher education and politics. The CHE undertakes research on higher education and develops political scenarios, but ultimately its activities aim to realise and test new organisational models, as well as models for managing and controlling higher education practice. On the basis of experience gained in this way, the CHE assists in developing these models further by carrying out pilot projects and by critically monitoring reform measures.

Background

International references and international exchange form part of the core thinking of modern higher education institutions. The mobility of students and teachers to and from Germany is continuously increasing, leaving its mark on German HEIs. Internationality has become a buzz word which plays a key role in nearly all HEIs and within the overall context of higher education politics. Examples of these are the German excellence initiative, accreditation processes, intra-institutional assessments, target agreements, *etc*. International research cooperation is becoming increasingly relevant, while the labour market is becoming more and more globalised, leaving graduates with the task of finding their way on the global labour market and presenting themselves properly. In addition, the proliferation of global budgets and the targeted use of resources also raise the need to find ways of making measurements in the international arena.

While this is the case, until now this area has hardly been shown to be measurable using valid and comparable indicators. HEIs and stakeholders are often satisfied with easily attainable or already available process-generated key figures, such as the number of Humboldt scholarship holders or the number of partnership agreements. They consider these figures to be adequate even though the significance of such key figures has never been proved as an indicator of the internationality of HEIs. HEIs prefer very heterogeneous and individualised approaches and try to determine their own degree of internationality. Most of the existing rankings, however, compare HEIs at an international level (*eg* the Shanghai Ranking and the World Ranking of the *Times Higher Education Supplement*). Other stakeholders, such as ministries, address the internationality aspect by setting targets and target agreements, thereby calling for increased transparency and accountability in relation to internationalisation.

The initiative described in this paper was started by the CHE, not least due to its interest in including aspects of internationalisation in its renowned university ranking (www.university-ranking.de), in which the absence of relevant indicators until then had inhibited the assessment of this area. As a result of these findings, at the start of 2006, four German HEIs, represented by the heads of International Offices or similar bodies, came together under the supervision and methodical support of the CHE to create a project with the following main goals:

- To measure internationality and/or internationalisation,[1] a comprehensive set of instruments for measuring possible indicators should be developed, which offers all German HEIs an adequate basis for discussion of these areas in upcoming internal and external debates, irrespective the targets they had set individually.
- To enable any HEI taking part in the working group to obtain an individual and relevant set of indicators that help the institution clarify its own ideas on internationality and internationalisation.
- To develop a set of overall indicators that can also be used as the basis for a nationwide ranking of HEIs.

In order to achieve these goals, taking into account the different situations at the start of the project, we invited a large number of HEIs to take part. The group was sufficiently large to form a heterogeneous group. The Ludwig-Maximilians-Universität München (LMU) represented the large public university sector, the Technische Universität Berlin (TUB) the technical universities, the Fachhochschule Oldenburg/

Ostfriesland/Wilhelmshaven (OOW) the *Fachhochschulen* (universities of applied sciences), including those with more than one campus, and last but not least the Katholische Universität Eichstätt-Ingolstadt (KU) contributed the experience and expectations of a small private university.

Definition of 'internationality' and 'internationalisation'

If the various agreements, in which targets are set, announcements and publications of HEIs and ministries on the topic of internationalisation and internationality are considered, these terms are often confused or used synonymously. 'Internationalisation' is often used in cases where key figures or indicators barely show the current level of 'internationality' (*eg* the number of international students enrolled on a certain date *X*). The project team considered it necessary to distinguish between the two terms in order to evaluate indicators appropriately with regard to the setting of targets and their significance. Moreover, in order to achieve a useful measurement it should be determined clearly in advance what can be assessed as measurable 'internationality' and 'internationalisation' and under what conditions this should take place. Usually, such measurements can only be developed by the institutions themselves in individual cases and within the context of their strategy process. 'Internationality' and 'internationalisation' can be defined as follows:

> '**Internationality**' denotes either an institution's current status or the status observable at the date of data acquisition with regard to international activities.
>
> In contrast, '**internationalisation**' denotes a direction in which an institution is moving, through a more or less managed process, from an actual status of internationality at time *X* towards a modified actual status of increased internationality at time *X+n*. In this instance, if there is proper planning, the actual status is set against an expected target status. The result is then the difference between the actual situation after period *n* has passed and the desired situation after period *n* has passed.

In the latter case, the time period within which this change is observed must be determined.

Difficulty of selecting the right indicators

The development of useful indicators that avoid the generation of 'dead' data requires every individual HEI to have a clear idea of what 'internationality' means in the institution's various areas of performance. In this way, situations where indicators emerge by chance in the decision-making process or merely from existing data can be avoided. Experience has shown that people often start looking for indicators on the basis of the availability of data, which rules out innovative approaches from the outset.
The project discussed below was intended to provide a toolset capable of revealing the performance of HEIs with respect to their internationality within a coherent system of key figures and indicators. It should be noted that the strategic outlook of the HEI should in no way be subordinate to seeking the short-term improvement of individual key figures and indicators.

To simplify the terminology, we will use the term 'indicator' even if we refer to key figures. Indicators and key figures differ with regard to their definition: a 'key figure' represents a value without any reference to other values (eg the number of international doctoral candidates), whereas an indicator describes such a key figure in relation to some other figure (eg the proportion of international doctoral candidates in relation to the total number of doctoral candidates at an HEI).

In terms of higher education practices, it seems wise to split indicators into input indicators and output indicators. The factors contributing to the generation of findings (such as staff structures, curricular issues and the allocation of resources) are subsumed under input indicators, whereas output indicators measure findings at the end of academic processes (eg graduates or research findings). We have refrained from addressing the aspect of outcomes (eg the knowledge acquisition of individual students), as this would need large-scale in-depth surveys of samples, which was beyond the scope of this project.

Formation and selection of indicators: assumptions and specifications

When selecting indicators, one should consider one's own targets and whether or not the indicators can reasonably be acquired within one or more time series. Data in the form of simple 'yes' or 'no' answers (*eg* "Has an internationalisation strategy been implemented?") on which indicators are based are acquired only once and can therefore only ever be indicators of internationality. Indicators that can reasonably be produced within time series and thus document a development (*eg* the number of international students relative to the total number of students) have a twofold use: they represent internationality at the moment of acquisition and, on the other hand, they represent internationalisation within the scope of the time series. These time series state the development of the measured values (*eg* percentage growth, change in absolute figures over a time period, *etc*).

Up until now, the determination of internationality in evaluations and rankings has been based largely on snapshots.[2] This was the case either because 'internationalisation' is a fresh topic on the agenda, which lacks both definition and clarity with regard to its target, or because the focus is on improving one's own competitive position (in terms of rankings and public funds allocated) at a certain point in time, usually combined with a high level of urgency. In contrast, indicators of internationalisation (time series) have a medium and long-term effect and are important, for example, in the context of quality assurance processes. Choosing a time series depends on the underlying strategy. For this reason, our project is also designed to provide HEIs with a set of indicators that can be used over a longer period of time. As far as the time series are concerned, these have to be considered as a whole, as this is the only way to identify long-term developments. Aggregations of a time series incur the risk of minimising variations. The following example illustrates this. Let us assume that in 1990 the proportion of international students at an HEI was 10%. This figure developed as follows: 15% in 1995, 5% in 2000 and 30% in 2005. If one were only to consider the development from 1990 to 2005, on the basis of both the initial and final values, one would record an additional student intake of 20%. The average value over the time series would be 15% (the mean and median are identical) The fall in student numbers in 2000 would not show up at all and would therefore not be included in an analysis or a study of the causes.

Furthermore, the differentiation of indicators into input and output indicators may be very useful. Input indicators make sense, for example, if one wishes to compare the characteristics of one's own organisation with those of other organisations, or if one is aware of weaknesses and can link them to certain organisational characteristics. Output indicators are helpful if one wishes to unveil possible problem areas without these necessarily pointing to input areas which require improvement. The latter assessment, however, should be undertaken as a separate process. Moreover, output indicators may document developments specified in a strategy or an agreement on targets. Often it might be advisable to include both types of indicators in a QA system for internationalisation, which defines expected output results in relation to envisaged inputs. In the evaluation of the process, both indicators may be interrelated, showing the deviation from both expected results and—possibly—from envisaged investment inputs (*eg* an investment of €200,000 was envisaged for study abroad, but due to budget cuts only €150,000 was allocated).

Before using indicators, HEIs must set themselves goals with regard to internationality and draw up a strategy for achieving these goals. This process consists of the following steps:

a) the definition of the targets with regard to internationalisation;
b) the development of a coherent internationalisation strategy;[3]
c) the compilation of a catalogue of short, medium and long-term measures which ensure the implementation and realisation of the internationalisation strategy; and
d) the development of a quality management system which:
    - is implemented effectively on the basis of the measures and results in adjustments to the measures, where necessary;
    - documents and analyses its influence on the strategic targets.

The use of indicators from the set of instruments[4] developed only makes sense if the indicators actually describe internationalisation and internationality. The process of data acquisition, the prior definition of targets and the determination of these targets on the basis of the results should be done jointly with and carried out by all the parties concerned.

Hidden targets, such as the acquisition of indicators to determine options for budget cuts, jeopardise the entire process. Only in the rarest of circumstances does this lead to an open discussion and the departments' willingness to cooperate in the provision of data is therefore low. We hold the view that open communication and the willingness to reach consensus are preconditions for the success of indicator-based internationalisation processes.

The focus of interest is therefore on the internal processes in HEIs that give rise to the internationality or internationalisation indicators. A set of targets was developed for this purpose. In a second step, these were assigned to overall aspects, research or teaching, and studies. Following this, thematic areas were defined, such as service, new recruits or study programmes, to which individual indicators were assigned. These indicators refer to either input parameters or output parameters. Most indicators can also be produced within time series and can therefore be used for measuring internationalisation (or internationalisation processes). For this reason, these indicators are marked with an "*" in the tables below. Due to the constraints on the length of this article, we have not provided the entire indicator set and have only presented the key indicators suggested for use in ranking in Germany.

In drawing up the set of instruments, the question as to whether the data on which the indicators are based can be acquired or not has deliberately not been taken into account. This has been done to achieve a comprehensive set of instruments for different types of HEIs. HEIs have to check for themselves whether or not an indicator makes sense for them and whether the data can be acquired. Our experience with rankings shows that there is a correlation between importance and collectability. If the process of internationalisation, as a comparison of target and actual states, or the determination of the actual state of internationality, is of primary interest to the HEI, it will be possible to acquire data which have so far not been available.

With regard to the third goal, however, the requirement is different, namely the determination of the overall indicators applicable in rankings. As several types of HEIs were represented in our working group, it is highly probable that the indicators suggested are generally suitable for ranking. How these indicators should be used is for the interested party to decide.

Indicators for internationality and internationalisation

The long list of indicators provided in the original paper allows for several interpretations of internationality and internationalisation. For every aspect we drew attention, where necessary, to special characteristics and possible difficulties. The general view of the CHE is that indicators should only be used for comparative rankings if they are assigned to academic disciplines. Indicators stating the internationality or internationalisation of an HEI as a whole should only play a descriptive role in rankings, except in the case of services which are provided to the entire student population. As far as the time series are concerned, we usually recommend observations over a period of 5 to 10 years to receive useful comparable values and set a limit to data acquisition. As a matter of principle, the key figures and indicators suggested refer to actual values, not to target values. In other words, 'scholarship funds' are the funds actually distributed (expended costs) and not the budgeted funds, as rankings can only provide ex post assessments of performance.

We have divided the indicators into three large areas of concern: 'overall aspects', 'research' and 'teaching/learning'.

Overall aspects

A number of indicators of internationality and internationalisation are located at the level of the university as a whole and/or other structural units, such as the faculties. This quite naturally produces areas which overlap with the areas of research and teaching, so that some indicators may be used twice at the input level. The indicators listed in the CHE paper can then be applied to both the university as a whole and to the smaller structural units. A typical area of concern is general management. Management is a decisive factor for the internationality of an HEI or for the process of internationalisation. In this respect, 'management' denotes not only the management staff of an HEI, but also comprises all tasks and structures associated with the management of an HEI. A crucial aspect in the context of higher education management and its importance to internationality and internationalisation are the managers' personalities. It is important to point out that these indicators have their limits (*eg* no indicator can represent or measure the extent to which the personalities of the respective managers encourage internationalisation).

'Other overall aspects' refers to the entire academic body, including international recruitment and young researchers. The latter contribute to a considerable extent to the reputation of the HEI through work-related migration, participation in conferences, publications or simply through their appeal to young students. Which academics are considered to be young researchers depends on the framework of each individual HEI. For the purpose of cross-university comparisons, we define doctoral candidates and post-doctoral researchers as young researchers.

Another important overall factor is the administrative and non-academic staff. The importance of administrative staff to successful internationalisation and therefore the importance of the personal qualities of these university members to the overall level of internationality have tended to be neglected up until now. The more HEIs view internationality from a holistic perspective, the greater will be the role played by the administration. We have included in this category all people who are university employees and cannot be included in the staff categories listed below. Within this category, the staff of the international office should obviously be given special attention when designing indicators.

Finally the aspects of resource allocation and international networking play a role at the level of the institution as a whole. Financial resources, the equipment of the relevant organisational units and the activities play a role in the evaluation of internationality. A distinctive level of internationality cannot realistically be achieved if the HEI is lacking the necessary infrastructure. Networking is a complex matter. Ostensible indicators, which are occasionally used, such as the number of partner universities or ERASMUS agreements, are not significant, in our opinion, as indicators of the quality of the partnerships and their influence on the number of exchanges, or the like. At best, in this regard we can use descriptive indicators which reflect the degree of international networking. As long as university networks, in contrast to professional networks such as the AACSB Group,[5] do not provide clear and measurable admission criteria, they cannot be taken to be distinctive features. Membership of networks, however, may certainly be included in strategic planning within the HEI and used for target-oriented partnership selection (joint study programmes, *etc*).

Research

Traditionally research has been given special significance as an indicator of the quality of an HEI. Academic research also plays an important role in relation to internationality and internationalisation. To date approaches to evaluation and ranking have almost entirely been limited to the specific aspects of findings, such as publications and citations, or to a few indicators in the area of inputs which are generally statistically insignificant, such as the number of scholarship holders from the Alexander von Humboldt Foundation or the number of publications. In our compilation, we try to offer more indicators in order to do justice to the variety of aspects relating to research. Which indicators are ultimately used will depend on the goals of the HEI. At the level of inputs, aspects such as the internationality of the lecturers and professors, their recruitment and international research networking were considered. In connection with international networking, one particularly significant question arises: since academic research is an activity that extends beyond the national context, how can data on academic research in relation to internationalisation and internationality be acquired and presented meaningfully? It may be possible to acquire data in relation to funds obtained externally in an international context or activities that ensure a high degree of international visibility of the HEI in the respective discipline and which go beyond the individual, such as co-editorships of renowned journals. Additionally, international doctoral programmes or graduate schools, active at the intersection of teaching and research, and input and output, may be included.

Resources also have to be considered. A continuous process of internationalisation cannot be achieved without the effective use of budgets by the HEI and the respective departments. In the same way, the corresponding procurement of resources for maintaining the *status quo* of internationality is of major importance, since the costs of maintaining activities are rarely lower than an activity's start-up costs. Accordingly, a comparison of the level of funding at central or decentralised levels within the institution may be used to measure internationality or internationalisation. Finally, on the input side, international research projects were analysed.

On the output side, in all three sectors it was considerably more difficult to identify usable indicators. Evaluating research findings in connection with the internationality or internationalisation of HEIs often proves difficult because it is not always possible to assign a certain level of international significance to specific research performance. This makes it more important not only to use the mere 'citations-per-paper' (CPP) indicators, but also to relate them to a global standard.

One of the questions which arises in relation to the design of the paper was: do young researchers belong to the input or output area? We chose the latter for our study because the international quality and significance of an HEI may often be assessed on the basis of the number of young researchers who originate from it. In this context, it should be taken into account that the actual number of doctoral candidates may differ significantly from the average number in some disciplines at the respective HEI. This may also occur in the case of a regional focus, in the sense of a region in the world such as Europe. This may occur, for instance, in extended cooperation with partners in France, since the doctorate has a different status in France and the number of doctoral candidates is therefore considerably lower. Where necessary, this could be balanced by means of a weighting procedure applied within the respective institution.

Teaching and studies

When measuring the performance of internationality and internationalisation, the areas of teaching and studies are often assigned less importance than the area of research in Germany. If at all measurable, indicators in this area are restricted to values that can easily be obtained, such as the number of international students as a proportion of the total number of students. However, in the overall context, the explanatory value of such indicators is often limited and detached from actual study conditions. One may compile a balanced mix of indicators that takes many aspects into account, such as the quality of teaching and teaching conditions, as well as the composition of the body of students.

On the input side, various categories were analysed. The degree of international orientation of an HEI is associated with the input to a considerable extent. The internationality of lecturers and their commitment to and involvement in the process of internationalisation are of fundamental significance. Without an internationally oriented teaching body, it is difficult for other aspects, such as a very international student body, to make any essential contribution to internationalisation. Participation in visiting lectureships abroad, the acquisition of visiting lectureships for one's own HEI, a lecturer's own international experience (stays abroad, study programmes *etc*) are some of the possible aspects for use in assessing lecturers in relation to internationality and internationalisation. However, students also have to be considered, so we also took into account aspects such as the number of students from other countries, proportions of incoming and outgoing students *etc*.

The service environment is also of major importance, especially in the areas of teaching and studies. However, if this is considered at all when defining key figures for internationalisation, it is often only considered in a very rudimentary fashion. We think that much of the effort made will bear no fruit without an internationally-oriented administration which reflects the international momentum of an HEI and the international attitude of the staff, and which incorporates this into its everyday work. We have examined staff conditions as part of the the 'overall aspects', and our intention here is to focus on aspects specific to the faculty or institution. For measurements within the institution, it seems wise to use more rather than fewer indicators if there is any doubt that the results presented will be reliable.

When discussing research, it is commonly held that international collaboration and networking are *sine quibus non* of research and that all players should take these activities into account in their assessments. However, this is not necessarily the case in relation to teaching. Due to the Bologna process and the globalisation of the education market, teaching networks at the international level are gaining in importance. However, it is still very difficult to find measurable quantitative indicators and unambiguously allocable indicators for this area.

While researchers often have access to external funding, especially in international contexts, such funding is accessible to teaching and studies to a far lesser extent or with enormous administrative effort. Allocations within institutions therefore play an important role, as does the ability of the HEI to procure external funding.
In addition to lecturers, students and resources, study programmes and curricula are of primary importance for the recognition of internationalisation and internationality in teaching. There are several ways for HEIs or faculties to adopt new focuses or raise their existing international profiles. There are numerous indicators that may be useful in relation to this. In this regard, it also seems wise not to restrict oneself to one or two indicators, but to make a list of those indicators that are useful in measuring the internationality of study programmes in the long term.

At the level of output, many indicators may relate to the aspect of graduates, with separate attention being given to bachelor's, master's and doctoral candidates. As far as teaching is concerned, the allocation of funds is often input oriented. Especially in international contexts, it makes sense, however, to factor in the output area. International reputation was also taken into account, because most international rankings give the impression that it is possible to define a 'world-class university' and therefore directly address this aspect. This leads increasingly to political decisions with regard to the allocation of funds based on rankings and therefore to an acceptance of these assumptions as facts. Nevertheless an international reputation is particularly difficult to measure.

Conclusion

General

A total of 186 key figures and indicators could be determined in the project, of which 170 can be illustrated in time series. There are 162 key figures and indicators that emerge from the areas of input and process: 24 could be determined for the output area, 69 indicators refer to 'overall aspects', 45 to 'research' and 72 to 'teaching and studies'. This is a firm foundation for several types of selection and strategy options.

Most of the indicators can be aggregated at various levels, starting at individual institutions and continuing to departments or faculties up to the entire HEI. However, the experience gained from the CHE University Ranking shows that a subject-specific assessment is preferable, at least in the case of the key figures and indicators for research, as well as teaching and studies. An overall assessment of the entire HEI blurs the differences between the individual subjects and, consequently, the profile of the HEI.

We recommend measuring a target or making a measurement using more than one indicator, as indicators generally focus on a certain aspect of performance. However, it is usually difficult to measure a broad target or a complex process by means of an individual indicator. Indicators have to have a sufficiently high mutual correlation, but not so high a correlation that it appears in the end as if they are measuring the same aspect. If the effort required for data acquisition and the regular update of the data stock is taken into account, it is necessary to concentrate on a manageable number of indicators. The selection should be in line with the international strategy of the HEI. Ultimately the question arises as to whether or not data can be acquired. When compiling a set of indicators, one should not start by thinking about their availability. Instead, substantive considerations with regard to the individual objectives of the HEI should take precedence over the question of which aspects of internationality should be measured with which indicators. This may be checked in a second step with the aim of identifying those indicators for which the required key figures and data are already available in the HEI, or ascertaining the effort it would require to acquire these data. Our list contains only those key figures and indicators for which we assume data is generally available within an HEI. Nevertheless this may result in different levels of effort, depending on the quality of the HEI's internal reporting systems. The effort required may be taken into account when selecting alternative key figures and indicators for the same area of performance.

Overall indicators

The aim of collecting the large set of indicators provided in the CHE paper was to offer guidance in the selection of indicators. Of course, this selection is not rigid. HEIs can use these indicators as a modular system in line with their own strategies.
For comparative evaluations and rankings, however, we advise you to select indicators that can be obtained by all universities with reasonable effort. We suggest the following indicators:

Overall aspects as well as teaching and studies:

Number of lecturers appointed from abroad relative to the total number of lecturers	*
Number of international visiting researchers (minimum duration of 1 week) relative to overall number of researchers (indicator) or for itself (key figure)	*
Proportion of international students with non-German education relative to the total number of students	*
Proportion of incoming international exchange students relative to the total number of students	*
Proportion of outgoing exchange students and students with an international internship relative to the total number of students	*
Number of stays abroad as visiting lecturers by lecturers (Teaching Staff (TS) Mobility) in relation to the total number of lecturers (Outgoing=Incoming)[6]	*
Proportion of graduates with joint or double/multiple degrees relative to the total number of graduates	*
Proportion of graduates of foreign nationality (international graduates with a non-German education) relative to the total number of graduates	*

We have extracted some additional (subject-specific) indicators from the student interviews which make up the CHE University Ranking. These indicators reflect aspects of the internationality of teaching and studies from the student point of view, including the international orientation of the course offering, counselling in relation to study programmes or internships abroad, support by lecturers in organising stays abroad and the importance to students of the opportunity of participating in international study programmes.

Research:

Number of lecturers appointed from abroad relative to the total number of students	*
Amount of third-party funding procured from international sponsors in relation to the total sum of third-party funding per annum	*
Amount of third-party funding for international projects with international cooperation partners in relation to the total amount of third-party funding per annum	*

There are other indicators, in addition to those listed above, that would make sense in the examination of overall aspects, but cannot be used in the CHE University Ranking due to methodological considerations, as they cannot be assigned to specific subjects. In this regard, we would suggest:

Overall aspects:

Number of posts (full-time equivalents=FTE) in the international core business (international strategy and basic questions, scientific cooperation, counselling and tutoring of students, alumni and admissions) in relation to the total number of administrative posts	*
Number of posts (full-time equivalents=FTE) in the international areas of counselling and tutoring of students and admission in relation to the total number of students	

Which of the indicators suggested will be applied in which ranking is, of course, the decision of those responsible for the respective rankings.

References and notes

1 The two terms are defined in the following section.

2 Often only using identification numbers, therefore without the references which are typical of indicators.

3 This should not lead to the use of commonplace concepts such as an 'international university' or 'world-class university, but should describe targets, measures and quality assurance systems.

4 See: http://www.che.de/downloads/How_to_measure_internationality_AP_92.pdf.

5 The Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB): http://www.aacsb.edu.

6 We can only measure funding for lecturers travelling abroad. The figure for incoming lecturers to an HEI does not have to be obtained in most cases, but the ratio between the two mobility streams usually balances itself out, so incoming lecturers equals outgoing lecturers.

Chapter 8
Developing a tool for mapping internationalisation: a case study

by Adinda van Gaalen

Introduction

Internationalisation has become an almost regular feature of higher education. However, it is not clear—not even to the higher education institutions (HEIs) themselves—to what extent they have specified their internationalisation objectives and whether or not these objectives have been linked directly to relevant activities. Several institutions publicly question how they are actually performing in the area of internationalisation. The leaders of institutions are clearly looking for a frame of reference or a comparative framework.

To fill this gap, Nuffic[1] decided to develop a tool, in cooperation with the HEIs, which is now in its pilot phase. The tool, Mapping Internationalisation (MINT),[2] aims to support HEIs and provide them with a complete overview of their internationalisation policy, activities and support. This will help individual institutions to set an agenda for improvement, to formulate a clear internationalisation profile and to develop a benchmark for faculties or similar institutions. The tool can also be used to start a discussion at several levels (institutional, national and international) on quality assurance in relation to internationalisation with a focus, for instance, on the coherence between the objectives and activities comprising internationalisation. MINT combines a self-evaluation tool and a benchmarking tool. This was the particular wish of the assessment panel which was involved in the development of the tool.

The section which follows discusses some of the most relevant aspects of the development of MINT. Firstly attention is given to the choices made, including some theories with regard to self-evaluation, benchmarking and ranking tools. This is followed by a description of the actual tool, its contents and form, a discussion of some of the rules which apply to the use of the tool and initial experience of using it. Finally, we will reflect on the development and use of the tool.

Choices made

Theories

In developing this tool, a range of existing tools used to measure or map internationalisation were first considered. In many cases, the purpose of these tools is to help institutions analyse their own particular situations (self-evaluation). Other tools are meant to enable comparisons to be made between parts of an institution or between different institutions (benchmarking). Very few tools are specifically intended to serve as a means by which external parties can rank institutions.

Brief explanations of each of these categories of tools are given below.

1. Self-evaluation

One of the most obvious and frequently used tools for mapping and assessing activities within an organisation is self-evaluation. Self-evaluations are internal exercises and serve internal purposes. Self-evaluations can also serve as input for subsequent external evaluations (*eg* within the framework of a national quality assessment system or for evaluations by accreditation bodies). In general, in a self-evaluation exercise the internal situation is measured against objective indicators, which have been determined by the organisation (*eg* on the basis of the objectives formulated in the institution's policy paper or strategic plan) or against performance targets imposed by external parties (*eg* in government directives or accreditation procedures). A self-evaluation only assesses the performance of an institution in relation to these objectives and targets. As such, the self-evaluation does not say anything about the institution's relative performance.

For this reason, self-evaluations do not serve a public purpose. They either provide the input for an external assessment (by a public authority) or simply serve as an initial phase in the internal quality improvement process. The internal value of a self-evaluation is that it enables an institution to identify shortcomings and possible solutions. Sometimes, however, an internal self-evaluation may have an external component. This may be the case when external peers are involved in the self-evaluation process. This is the case, for instance, in the International Quality Review developed by IMHE and ACA. Self-evaluation in this case is still an internal assessment, but implicit comparisons with other institutions might be made through the use of external peers. If the institution explicitly wishes to know where it stands *vis-à-vis* its competitors, it may use benchmarking as a tool or it may leave it to others to compare the institution's performance with that of other institutions on a league table or ranking.

2. Benchmarking

In past decades, benchmarking has become a popular management tool for HEIs.[3] Both self-evaluation and benchmarking are internal processes intended for internal quality improvement. The process and the targets are developed and determined within the institution. Benchmarking is an ongoing exercise in which an institution's internal processes are measured and compared with those of other institutions.
As a tool, benchmarking adds an external focus to internal activities. While self-evaluation uses internal and absolute targets, those used in benchmarking are external and relative, which explains the importance of identifying external standards. The actual benchmark partner to be selected should be a leading institution, either in general or within a specific area. The identification of the peer depends on the objectives of the benchmarking institution. In many cases, the comparison with a peer institution—the benchmark—is just the first step. Benchmarking is not merely part of a self-evaluation process, but may also include the dimension of improvement by identifying and implementing best practices. The incorporation of such best practices, or learning from them and adapting them to the HEIs particular circumstances, should then bring the institution on a par with the leaders in the field.

Benchmarking can be applied to any issue within any higher education institution. Benchmarking models for internationalisation have been developed, for instance, within the context of the Network of International Business Schools (NIBS) and the European Benchmarking Programme (by ESMU). The NIBS model is a combination of benchmarking and ranking. In the near future, benchmarking will be used to determine whether potential new member institutions can be allowed to join the network. All the above models were used in the development of MINT.

3. Ranking

University league tables or rankings are used to compare the performance of various institutions. In benchmarking, the setting of standards is an internal process, but in the case of rankings the standards are set by parties external to the institutions. Another important difference is that university rankings are not primarily intended as management tools or instruments for quality improvement. Their aim is rather to provide the public with information on the relative quality of institutions.

With the proliferation and spread of rankings, these have also become the target of criticism. This criticism is often directed towards their statistical inaccuracy, the indicators that are used to reflect academic quality[4] or the tendency for rankings to be inherently self-fulfilling prophecies.[5] For international rankings there is the additional criticism that global standards neglect specific national or local circumstances. International rankings generally also suffer from a bias towards research at the expense of education.[6] Some international rankings (such as the *THES-QS* World University Ranking and the *Financial Times* MBA ranking) use the number of international students and staff as an indicator of quality. However, the number of international students and academics that an institution has and the benefits (and risks) associated with them are very specific to a particular context. Rankings or league tables that rank institutions solely on the basis of their level of internationalisation have not yet been developed. Interactive ranking strategies have been developed in response to the criticism of generic global rankings. The best known example is the ranking system of the German Centre for Higher Education (CHE), which allows the public to select and prioritise its own criteria. Moreover, the CHE system does not rank institutions as a whole, but provides separate rankings for specific disciplines or subjects.

Although rankings were initially meant as a means of providing information, they are becoming drivers for change and, as such, are increasingly used as management tools. A recent study of English universities[7] showed that rankings are having a significant influence on actions and decision-making of institutions. The problem that arises is that, as a result, the management no longer bases its decisions on objectives, but rather on externally defined criteria that only correlate moderately, at best, to academic quality.

Delineation of the topic and data collection

MINT is a tool that presupposes the active use of internationalisation by an institution. In other words, the institution should deliberately use internationalisation to achieve specific institutional goals. Elsewhere in this publication, Hudzik and Stohl use the term ‘internal motivation’ to describe this type of internationalisation, in order to distinguish it from internationalisation policies imposed by external forces. Examples of such ‘external motivations’ include mandatory national legislation, such as the bachelor’s-master’s degree structure.

Within the framework of internal motivation, MINT focuses on internationalisation policy and activities within this. It also helps to map the facilities needed to support these activities. These topics can largely be accommodated within the framework discussed by Hudzik and Stohl. Their point of departure is a division into three categories: inputs, outputs and outcomes. The inputs category covers two components of the MINT tool, namely policies and facilities (the latter include funds and human resources). The outputs category comprises the activities covered by MINT. Finally the outcomes category is not covered by MINT.

The indicators selected for this tool cover internationalisation in its widest possible sense. It is, however, important to strike a good balance between nuance and limitation. On the one hand, enough indicators should be used to ensure a sufficient degree of sophistication. On the other hand, the tool would not be practical in its application if too many indicators were included. The choice between the use of quantitative or qualitative data is equally difficult. Quantitative data is not readily available in the field of internationalisation and while qualitative data is available it is harder to use, certainly with regard to benchmarking. With this tool, in some cases the quantification of data has provided a solution to this problem.

Assessment panel

An assessment panel was used in the development of MINT. The members of the group determined the focus of the tool, in terms of whether it should be an instrument for self-evaluation, benchmarking or ranking, or possibly a combination of all three. In addition, the group provided feedback on the tool's structure, the subjects covered and the indicators. Moreover, the group played a valuable role in defining the terms to be used.

The number of institutions involved in developing MINT was restricted in order to enable its rapid deployment. The assessment panel consisted exclusively of institutions, as the tool is primarily intended for use in support of institutional frameworks.
The assessment panel comprised a variety of institutions selected on the basis of the following characteristics:

- a broad prospectus and monosectoral focus;
- bachelor's and master's degree programmes and a summer school;
- location in a capital and major provincial cities;
- established institutions and institutions which have only just begun to internationalise; and
- programmes with an research or applied orientation.

The assessment panel consisted of the following institutions:

- The Hague University of Applied Sciences
- Fontys University of Applied Sciences
- Hanze University Groningen
- HAS Den Bosch University
- Leiden University of Applied Sciences
- Amsterdam University of Applied Sciences—HES School of Economics and Business
- Van Hall Larenstein University of Applied Sciences
- Royal Academy of Art (KABK)
- NHTV Breda University of Applied Sciences

- University of Groningen
- Saxion Universities of Applied Sciences
- Delft University of Technology
- Leiden University
- VU University Amsterdam

The MINT tool

Goal

MINT combines self-evaluation and benchmarking. Its main focus, however, is on self-evaluation. The use of this tool provides institutions with a clear overview of the current state of their internationalisation policy, activities and support structures. The quality of this overview can be increased further by mirroring the self-evaluation (*ie* benchmarking it). This may be done by a comparison over time: what was the state of the art one year or five years ago? A comparison with other parts of the organisation or with other organisations may also offer interesting insights. The combination of self-evaluation and benchmarking aspects within a single tool is not new. As indicated before, the CHE has produced a self-evaluation tool which will also be used as a ranking tool in the future. NIBS has developed a benchmarking tool which can also be used for ranking. The tool will enable institutions to:

- obtain a complete overview of their internationalisation policy, activities and support;
- stimulate a more conscious matching of internationalisation activities and objectives;
- develop an internationalisation policy and activities supported by this checklist;
- set an agenda for improvement;
- set a clear internationalisation profile;
- make objectives more tangible; and
- prepare for reviews/accreditation.

In addition to offering benefits to the institutions themselves, MINT can be used as a means of initiating national or international debate on strategic choices with regard to the objectives and indicators of internationalisation, and the consistency of internationalisation objectives and activities. In addition, MINT will provide input into discussions on quality assurance in relation to internationalisation and the standards by which the success of internationalisation policies can be measured. A discussion and awareness phase is an important step in the further professionalisation of internationalisation.

Nuffic has access to the data used by the institutions as input for MINT (even though these data remain the property of the institutions) and may use this information to improve the tool. In addition, this offers Nuffic the opportunity to access a rich source of (blind) data on how institutions in The Netherlands are doing in the field of internationalisation and to examine their activities, their policy objectives and the way they ensure consistency between their policies and their activities. This will enable Nuffic to improve its services and products in support of the institutions.

Web tool

It was decided that the tool should be made available in digital form. After all, the staff of an institution should experience the tool as a support, not as an (additional) burden. A web tool promotes:

1. dissemination;
2. joint completion by several people;
3. storing of data;
4. reporting; and
5. comparison.

The tool can be completed at various levels. This feature is necessary because many institutions are differentiated internally. The questions posed in the tool are therefore divided into questions suitable for the levels of the institution and the unit. The term 'unit' is used to refer to all types of non-central organisational units, such as an educational programme, school, faculty, institution and so on. The web tool contains sets of questions about various groups of activities, as well as a set of questions which generates general data relating to the institution.

A structure based on optional parts (building blocks) was chosen. These parts can be filled in as needed. Answers are only mandatory with regard to a few general questions, as they serve as the basis for a report. All the other questions are optional and make it possible to customise the tool for the policy direction chosen by the institution. This approach also makes it possible for institutions to highlight the international elements that are important to them.

Structure of the questionnaire

The questionnaire was developed on the basis of existing tools and with three assumptions in mind. Firstly MINT only relates to the active implementation of internationalisation, as explained in the section above entitled 'Delineation of the topic and data collection'. This means that it only includes indicators of internationalisation which were actually determined by the institution instead of those which were imposed on it by external factors. Secondly the tool will only map the internationalisation of education, not of research. Thirdly MINT focuses exclusively on the objectives of internationalisation at the institutional level. Some of the national objectives have not been included in the tool because of their lack of relevance at this level. However, mapping the relationship between the national and institutional levels may be an interesting future exercise. This may reveal, for instance, the extent to which aspects of EU policy aimed at the creation of a European Higher Education Area (Lisbon) are included in institutional policies. Last but not least, MINT is based on the following definition of internationalisation by Jane Knight: "The process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of postsecondary education".[8]

The possibility of linking the tool to the general accreditation framework in The Netherlands was considered. Doing so proved very difficult, since internationalisation is not an independent rubric in the Dutch accreditation framework. Many indicators would be grouped under one of the framework's constituent parts, though not all of the indicators would be appropriate to that part. It was therefore decided that a self-evaluation

tool for internationalisation should be developed which could be put to good use in preparing for accreditation, of which self-evaluation is a fixed component, but which would not itself be a fixed component of the accreditation framework as such.
On the basis of the above, a framework was developed in which a relationship was established between internationalisation policy and internationalisation activities. The constituent parts of the tool are therefore:

1. internationalisation objectives;
2. internationalisation activities;
3. facilities; and
4. integration in the organisation.

The questionnaire is a combination of qualitative and quantitative questions. The expectation is therefore that the answers given will both indicate individual particulars and make benchmarking possible. With regard to the latter, a number of questions relate to key figures that may serve as an institution's profile. Moreover, the questionnaire provides scope for including the definitions that will be necessary for benchmarking.

Various indicators of internationalisation drawn from the literature on the subject were used to develop the questionnaire. The questionnaire ascertains whether certain activities were carried out and whether specific facilities were available. The following are examples of questions that may be asked: Does the unit offer programmes entirely in English? Is there more than one official language for communication within the institution? In addition, some quantitative data are requested. The following is an example of a question that may be asked: How many international regular students are enrolled in the programmes? Once an inventory of the current state of affairs has been obtained, a question on the objectives of internationalisation, which are pursued through the respective activities, follows at the end of each theme. In this way, the unit acquires insight into which objectives are pursued through which activities, as well as insight into the importance assigned to each objective.

Uniting the need for sufficient nuance and the need for conciseness within a single tool was a challenge. In this regard, the developers of the tool opted for a compromise, namely a relatively comprehensive questionnaire that could be configured by the institution in full or in part according to its own needs and priorities.
Through periodic use, the instrument may reveal developments which take place over time. The subjects to which the questions relate per group of activities were therefore chosen on the basis of their current and future relevance.

Establishing a set of objectives and activities

To evaluate internationalisation within an institution, it is essential to establish the objectives associated with any such processes. Confusion often arises in this regard between objectives and activities, and even results. Institutions regularly identify objectives such as the following: "In 2010, 15% of our students will have acquired experience abroad." Foreign experience is, of course, not an objective *per se* of an educational institution. The importance of foreign experience is that it may, for example, improve linguistic skills and intercultural competencies. This means that the institution's objective may be formulated as follows: "In 2010, 15% of our graduates will have acquired the intercultural competencies required to fulfil the requirements of a future job."

Although this objective may perhaps be formulated more concretely (specific intercultural competencies, at a particular level), at least it is formulated as a clear objective, rather than as an activity.

Some of the objectives of internationalisation mentioned in the literature are: international branding and profile; income generation; student and staff development; strategic alliances; and knowledge production. These may all sound very obvious. However, the question that has to be asked is whether all of these rationales are truly objectives of internationalisation or merely prerequisites. It may be argued, for instance, that strategic alliances are not an end in themselves, but rather a means for institutions to improve their profiles and increase their knowledge production.
In consultation with the assessment panel, the following objectives of internationalisation were ultimately chosen:

1. the development of the international and intercultural competencies of students;
2. the development of general competencies, such as independence and flexibility, and international competencies, such as knowledge of international aspects of the field of study (this aspect also refers to intercultural competencies, like language acquisition and intercultural communication);
3. the improvement of the quality of education (improving the quality of education, both in terms of content and organisation, as a result of international activities and contacts);
4. continuity;
5. maintaining an educational programme or acquiring funds;
6. public service (both local and international, including capacity building); and
7 .reputation building (an institution or educational programme may acquire greater prestige in the eyes of both potential students and staff, and more generally in society through international activities and international partners).

The groups of activity were also defined in consultation with the assessment panel and related to the following internationalisation activities:

1. programmes taught in other languages (usually English but theoretically any language other than the institution's normal language(s) of communication);
2. student mobility (any form of credit mobility, rather than degree mobility, including exchanges, placements or assignments with a minimum duration of 3 months);
3. the recruitment of international students (students who are enrolled as regular students, as opposed to exchange students, and who usually pay fees, unless they are studying on a scholarship, and study towards a degree rather than for a semester);
4. internationalisation of the curriculum (any type of activity aimed at internationalising the content and form of the curriculum, which could include foreign language courses, foreign literature, double or joint degrees, international project assignment, *etc*);
5. the internationalisation of staff (including both activities at home, such as training in intercultural awareness or teaching in English, and activities abroad such as staff exchanges, international projects, participation in international conferences, *etc*; and

6. international knowledge sharing (both not-for-profit, for example development aid, and commercial activities, such as consultancy, which includes publications and the organisation of international conferences).

The objectives of internationalisation may be achieved through a wide variety of activities, some of which serve several objectives. For example, offering programmes taught in other languages may both attract more international students (serving the objective of 'continuity') and facilitate student exchanges (serving the objective of 'development of the international and intercultural competencies of students'). This example also shows that some activities are, in fact, also prerequisites for other activities. They may, in fact, be seen as support structures for internationalisation.

Another example is international knowledge sharing. This activity could include the improvement by students of their intercultural skills, although this is usually set up as a public service, while institutions hope it will also improve their reputation.

To prevent confusion about which objective is being pursued through which activity, the questionnaire is structured on the basis of the activities. For each group of activities, questions are asked about the objectives being pursued.

Conversely, one objective may be served by several activities. In fact, this usually means that the activities reinforce each other in such a way that the objective can be achieved more easily. If, for instance, an institution aims to improve the quality of education, several internationalisation activities may be undertaken, such as the internationalisation of the curriculum and staff, international knowledge sharing and the recruitment of international students. The latter will increase the options for internationalising the curriculum, as will the internationalisation of staff. At the same time an international student body requires a more international staff, which then, in turn, becomes a prerequisite for the international recruitment activity.

Other prerequisites, such as providing housing and arranging visas, which are not core activities in their own right, are also included in the tool. They are considered to be essential supporting activities for the internationalisation of an institution.

Pilot

MINT has been available as a pilot web tool since April 2008. At the time of writing, the pilot phase was fully underway. Fifteen institutions, totalling 61 units (faculties or educational programmes) are participating in the pilot. Data from the self-evaluations will only be accessible to the institutions involved and to Nuffic.

The pilot's purpose is:

- to test the web tool from a technical point of view;
- to test the web tool in terms of user friendliness;
- to test the questionnaire in terms of the ease with which it can be filled in;
- to test the results obtained in terms of their usability;
- to collect data about possible interrelationships; and
- to collect input for an improved version of the questionnaire.

The principal question that has to be answered in this regard is whether the tool meets the institutions' expectations. For instance, it is necessary to ascertain whether the tool is experienced as supportive rather than as an additional burden. The extent to which the tool can actually be deployed in the policy cycle must also be established. The outcomes of the pilot can be used to improve the web tool and reporting formats.

The institutions that have registered to participate in the pilot wish to use the tool:

- to obtain a baseline measurement;
- to obtain input for the formation of policy;
- to obtain an internal benchmark; and
- to obtain an external benchmark.

The pilot will be evaluated in three phases:

- feedback on the tool;
- the sharing of experiences among participants; and
- evaluation of the pilot by its developers.

Nuffic will then decide whether the tool will be converted into a regular product. The tool could then be used periodically.

Experience with using the prototype

The experience of Windesheim University of Applied Sciences is discussed in this section. First an explanation is given of some of the 'rules' which have to be adhered to when using the tool.

Rules of the game

In order to make optimal use of the tool, it is important to follow a number of basic 'rules'. The way in which the questionnaire is used, the choice of benchmark partners and the drawing of conclusions are discussed below. All of these methods will be tested in the pilot.

Standards may be set for the self-evaluation in the following ways:

- The most direct method of setting standards is to base the self-evaluation on the relational strategy chain from policy objectives and resources to (the results of) activities. This relational chain will also be taken into account in the reporting formats which are being developed.
- A further supplementary method of setting standards is to conduct comparisons within a single institution between different units that are carrying out the self-evaluation and/or to compare the results of successive measurements.
- A third possible method is to conduct comparisons between different institutions or their constituent units.

The self-evaluation is primarily intended to generate discussion within the institution about internationalisation objectives and activities. It is therefore advisable:

- to take enough time to fill in the evaluation form;
- to fill in the evaluation form with a number of the parties involved so that discussion can take place immediately;
- to organise the evaluation on a subject-by-subject basis so that the project remains manageable; and
- to skip questions that are of little or no relevance to the specific situation in question.

It is always possible that respondents may give answers to the questions in the current tool which are politically correct. The quality of the results of a self-evaluation tool is by definition dependent on the input provided. The institution must ensure that it carries out the self-evaluation in a manner which is as serious and realistic as possible.

If institutions or faculties wish to use MINT for benchmarking purposes, they will have to find comparable partners in terms of, for instance, the objectives of internationalisation, student numbers, programme content or region. Doing so increases the validity of the comparisons between institutions or faculties and therefore adds to their value. Mutual agreements must subsequently be reached about the organisational units to be compared, the confidentiality of the data and the unit and time of measurement. In this regard, use may be made of the standard procedures formulated in the Benchmark Code of Conduct.[9]

In the first instance, the unit or institution itself must draw conclusions from the self-evaluation or benchmark comparison. It is up to the users to determine the approach taken in analysing the results. It is certainly not the purpose of this tool to prompt every institution to start developing all the activities referred to in the questionnaire. On the contrary, this tool makes it possible for an institution's own profile to emerge and for choices to be made between various objectives and activities. The objectives and activities of a teacher-training college for primary education (PABO) in eaastricht are probably very different to those of an Economics programme in Amsterdam. Various questions must be answered in this regard. For example, are we setting long-term objectives for internationalisation or are we opting for flexibility? Are we focusing on activities at home or abroad? Are we cooperating with a broadly based network of foreign partners or with a select group of specialised institutions?

Experience of Windesheim University of Applied Sciences

The tool triggered a discussion about the objectives of internationalisation and how to achieve these even before it was completed. One of the institutions involved in this discussion was Windesheim University of Applied Sciences, which was also the first institution to use the self-evaluation form, even though its definitive version had not yet been finalised at the time. Below Wim Bovendeert of Windesheim University of Applied Sciences describes their experience with using the self-evaluation form in their policy-making process.

Windesheim University of Applied Sciences tested a draft version of the MINT questionnaire at two schools as part of a policy cycle for its 2009-2012 internationalisation plan.

Policy cycle for the 2009-2012 internationalisation plan

A format for a policy plan was drawn up based on the MINT questionnaire. The first step in this regard was the formulation of draft policy plans/basic principles by the ten schools that form part of Windesheim University of Applied Sciences. As the different schools used the same format, it was easy to list and harmonise the objectives, activities and resources at the level of the institution as a whole. The formulation of a plan at the level of the institution, which was subsequently elaborated into a draft plan applicable to the University as a whole, was initiated during a working conference based on the draft plans of the schools and services.

Use of the MINT questionnaire

The MINT questionnaire has since been used to map the current situation at the School of Business and Economics and the School of Management and Law in terms of what these schools are presently doing and not yet doing in the area of internationalisation activities. A discussion of the objectives and priorities for the period 2009-2012 was held on the basis of the current internationalisation objectives indicated in the MINT questionnaire. The MINT questionnaire was also used to identify activities for the period 2009-2012 as well as the facilities and resources that would be required in this regard.

Initial experiences with the MINT questionnaire

The MINT questionnaire is most suitable for use as a checklist in terms of what is already being done and what is not yet being done, and also fosters awareness of what else could be done. The use of a uniform list and format promotes harmonisation between schools, as well as a bottom-up approach to the formulation of a plan at the level of the institution. A questionnaire completed in advance may also serve as excellent input for a meeting at which new policy is discussed. The questionnaire is comprehensive, a factor that can be both advantageous and occasionally disadvantageous, depending on the specific aims in question.

The aim is to deploy the MINT tool in the institution-wide monitoring of that policy.

Reflection

The Windesheim example demonstrates that the tool may indeed make a valuable contribution to the development of a plan at the level of the institution while also generating internal discussion. However, there are also other topics to discuss.

Weighting of indicators

Some of the institutions feel that when using an instrument like MINT it is important to recognise the different values each of the activities have for the various institutions, faculties or programmes. It would therefore be an improvement if the tool were to allow a specific weight to be attached to each of the indicators. MINT does, in fact, offer the possibility of rating the importance of each objective of internationalisation for the institution concerned. However, it would be equally useful if institutions were able to indicate the importance of certain internationalisation activities. For instance, a Law Faculty that aims to increase the quality of its programme in Dutch Law would probably not decide to offer that programme in English in order to attract the brightest international students and staff. For a programme on European Law, however, this might be a very smart move indeed. The Dutch Law programme might focus on sending students and staff abroad, especially to countries with close ties to The Netherlands.

In other words, a Law Faculty and a Faculty of Business Economics would not attach the same importance to programmes taught in foreign languages or, for example, the number of foreign lecturers. The question then is whether the tool should allow institutions or even smaller units to assign a value to each of the indicators comprising the tool. If this option is offered, would this mean that they would be able to set a minimum score for themselves, which is derived from their own internationalisation objectives? With regard to the self-evaluation, this is an interesting proposition. Benchmarking would require consensus on the minimum scores. These could only be set if the members of the group show sufficient similarities in terms of their objectives and profiles.

Ambitions

Some institutions would like to use the self-evaluation to compare their current performance with their ambitions. MINT does not offer this type of comparison as a standard feature. The lack of this option may potentially distort the results, especially if new objectives have been set, while the old activities are still taking place. In this case, the tool might point to a mismatch between the activities and the objectives, while in fact no such problem exists. Some people argue, moreover, that ambitions tend to be hollow phrases, at least more often than we care to admit. Both of these problems might be avoided by filling in the tool twice, first for the current situation and then for the preferred situation.

Comparison

The tool does not provide any definitions of the terms used and it is therefore possible for these terms to be interpreted differently. Some institutions wish to use the self-evaluation to make comparisons with other institutions possible. For this reason, a discussion will have to be held in the future to determine a standard list of definitions for this tool. Moreover, a large number of data will have to be mapped to enable sound comparisons to be made.

At present, there are not enough systems and human resources in place to retrieve all the data available with regard to internationalisation. The boards of institutions must devote more attention to this aspect if they wish to improve the quality of the management information received.

Indicators

Student recruitment is placed on the same level as the internationalisation of the curriculum. However, student recruitment is a rather one-dimensional issue, as it only comprises a few activities, whereas internationalisation of the curriculum involves a wide variety of activities at an academic level. We should therefore use the results of the pilot to answer the following question: were the indicators used appropriate to the level of the organisation which was studied?

Furthermore, it may be argued that some activities are, in fact, supporting activities for others. Examples of such activities include the internationalisation of staff and the provision of programmes taught in other languages. These activities are especially useful as supports for the internationalisation of the curriculum and student mobility. In this sense, it is possible to create a virtuous circle: offering programmes in English will make it easier to organise staff exchanges, which will stimulate the internationalisation of the curriculum.

Finally, the addition of indicators to map the impact of internationalisation would be a logical next step. After all, when all is said and done internationalisation is about the results it delivers, not in terms of foreign student numbers, but in terms of their impact on budgets and the quality of education.

Conclusion

The reasons for developing the MINT tool were firstly to support HEIs and secondly to stimulate a discussion on strategic choices in relation to the objectives and activities of internationalisation. MINT has already elicited considerable interest from HEIs. This was reflected not only in the number of participants at the MINT workshop, but also in the pilot. After the pilot it will become clear to what extent this enthusiasm is justified.

The discussion on the objectives and activities internationalisation has also started, both within institutions and at the national level. We hope that the discussion generated by the pilot will continue and expand, also in international settings. In fact, this topic is already being discussed in several international conferences. This tool has been and will be shared and discussed with partner institutions. Different perspectives on this topic and on MINT will hopefully lead to an improved version of the tool.

MINT will become a dynamic tool that will be adapted regularly on the basis of new developments and insights. At the same time, MINT will make it possible to ensure that the results remain comparable for periods spanning many years.

References and notes

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Chapter 9
Outcomes and impacts of international education on students

by Alan Olsen

Introduction

Australia's international student programme has produced significant outcomes for its students. As international graduates contribute to the global workforce, establish global diasporic networks and join the global brain circulation, it is apparent that Australia's international student programme is a key driver of Australia's connectedness with Asia and beyond. The impacts are global.

With an emphasis on these outcomes and impacts, IDP Education Pty Ltd undertook a series of research studies in 2008 for presentation at the Australian International Education Conference (AIEC) and for publication as five papers in a book entitled *Outcomes and Impacts of International Education: From International Student to Australian Graduate, the Journey of a Lifetime,* edited by Melissa Banks and Alan Olsen. The book's structure reflects the journey—from student, to graduate, to alumnus—which an international student might take when he or she decides to study in Australia.

Through a very detailed survey of nearly 2,000 alumni of the Australian Technology Network of Universities, Chapters 2 and 3 of the IDP publication explore what Australia's international students do after they graduate—where they live, what jobs they have, what they aspire to and what they think about their education. What emerges is a picture of graduates who are part of the global workforce, who establish global networks and who become part of Australia's connectedness with Asian countries and beyond. The ongoing impacts alumni have on Australia are identified as generating benefits that sustain, grow and proliferate organically, extending into induced trade and tourism, global networks and knowledge circulation, and an enduring predilection for Australia.

International education also has an impact on Australia, the scale of which is only now starting to be appreciated. Two sections of the book, Chapters 4 and 5, examine this—one looking at the impact on Australian education providers and the other at the impact on the Australian community as a whole.

An important new piece of research illuminates the journey. There is yet more confirmation that the academic performance of international students is virtually identical to that of Australian students. This result emerges from an analysis of the performance of nearly 200,000 students in the Group of 8 (Go8) universities in 2007. The results of this study are provided in the paper below and constitute Chapter 1 'Impacts and Outcomes for Students' of the IDP publication.

The author wishes to acknowledge the contribution of data from the Group of 8 universities. The whole study can be obtained from IDP Education Pty Ltd (www.idp.com).

Background

A study of the comparative academic performance in 2007 of the following three cohorts of students of Go8 universities in Australia was undertaken in 2008:

- Australian students on campus in Australia;
- international students on campus in Australia; and
- international students offshore, resident outside Australia, but studying at a Go8 university, including those at offshore campuses and those international students studying by distance or online.

All Go8 universities participated, namely The Australian National University, Monash University, The University of Adelaide, The University of Melbourne, The University of New South Wales, The University of Queensland, The University of Sydney and The University of Western Australia.

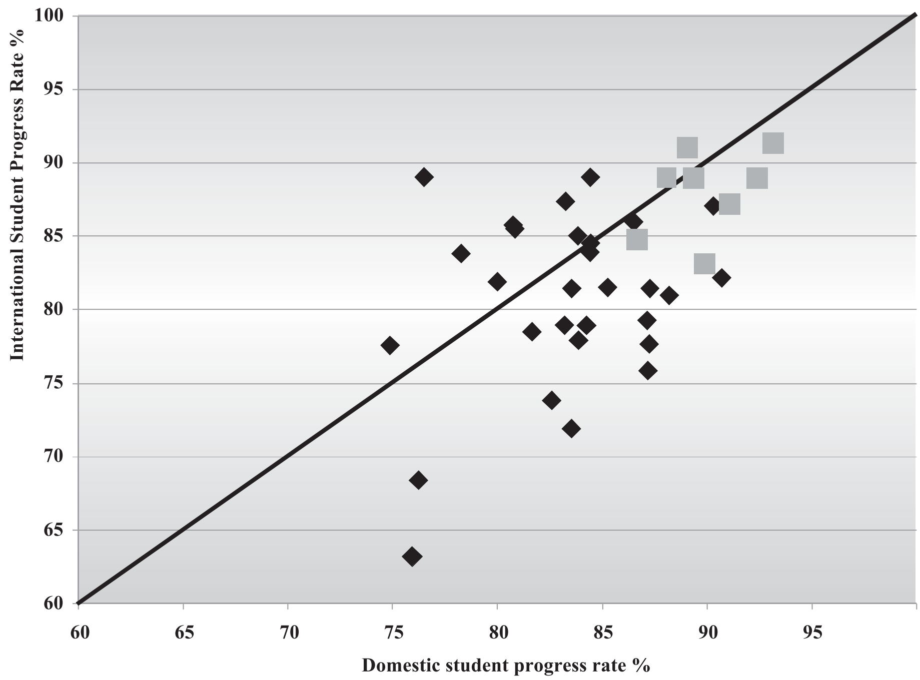
The study used student progress rates to measure and compare academic performance. Student progress rates are generated when students complete subjects successfully. The student progress rate is the ratio of successfully completed student load to total assessed student load or simply the ratio of subjects passed to subjects attempted. The study calculated mean student progress rates for groups of students and compared these means across groups, allowing for a comparison of the relative performance of groups of students.

The definitive Australian study in this area is the Dobson, Sharma and Calderon 1998 paper entitled 'The Comparative Performance of Overseas and Australian Undergraduates',[1] which provided extensive background on the use of the student progress rate methodology. In that study, international bachelor's degree students passed 84.3% of what they attempted in 1996 and outperformed Australian bachelor's degree students, who passed 79.3% of what they attempted.

In 2006, Olsen, Burgess and Sharma published 'The Comparative Academic Performance of International Students',[2] again using the student progress rate methodology. In this study of 338,445 full-time students at all levels in 22 Australian universities, which was carried out in 2003, international students performed as well as Australian students. The 73,929 international students passed 88.8% of what they attempted; the 264,516 Australian students passed 89.4% of what they attempted.

In 2007, the then Australian Department of Education, Science and Training (DEST) published 'Appendix 4. Attrition Progress and Retention Rates for Commencing Bachelor Students As Part of Students 2006 [full year]: Selected Higher Education Statistics'.[3] For the first time, this put into the public domain information for each university on the comparative academic performance of international and Australian students, but specifically the population of commencing bachelor's degree students. The DEST data enabled the comparison of student progress rates for international and Australian students who commenced their bachelor's degrees in 2006 for each university, with the Go8 universities shown as squares in Figure 9.1 'Student progress rates by universities 2006'.

Figure 9.1
Student progress rates by universities 2006



Like the 1998 and 2006 studies, this study uses the student progress rate methodology. It involves two enhancements in that it excludes postgraduate research students and adds a third cohort, namely offshore students.

The study includes international and Australian full-time students in undergraduate and postgraduate coursework programmes, who were enrolled in 2007. Specifically it includes study abroad and exchange students.

The study excludes part-time students, because there are no international part-time students with which to compare Australian part-time students, and the study excludes postgraduate research students on the grounds that the units used to measure student progress in the case of research students are just about meaningless.

The study compares student progress rates in 2007 for a total population of 195,694 students in all Go8 universities.

Overall student progress rate

In 2007, 195,694 students passed 91.8% of what they attempted in Go8 universities in Australia. Their student progress rate was 91.8%.

Across the eight Go8 universities, student progress rates ranged from 89.6% to 94.4%. The average was 91.8%, the median 91.8%. Overall, international students on campus in Australia passed 91.6% of what they attempted, international students offshore 89.2% and Australian students 92.0%.

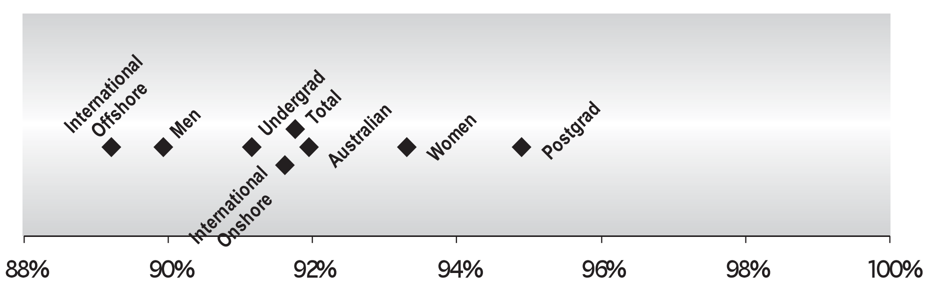
Specifically, in 2007 the 46,812 international students on campus in Australia passed 91.6% of what they attempted and did just as well as the 140,903 Australian students, who passed 92.0%. This is consistent with the 2006 study where, across 22 universities, the 73,929 international students on campus in Australia in 2003 passed 88.8% of what they attempted, and did just as well as the 264,516 Australian students, who passed 89.4%.

In this study, in terms of student progress rates:

- women did better than men;
- postgraduate coursework students did better than undergraduates; and
- international students on campus in Australia did as well as Australian students and did better than international students offshore.

Figure 9.2 'Student Progress Rates by Groups' compares the student progress rates for these seven groups with the total population.

Figure 9.2
Student progress rates by group



Gender

The population included 105,987 female students and 89,707 male students, as stated in Table 9.1 'Gender: population'.

Table 9.1
Gender: population

	Female	Male	Total
International onshore	25,082	21,770	46,852
International offshore	4,318	3,621	7,939
Australian	76,587	64,316	149,903
Total	105,987	89,707	195,694

In total, 54% of students were women, which is consistent with the fact that 55% of students in Australian universities in 2007 were women.

International female students onshore passed 93.1% of what they attempted and did better than international male students onshore (89.9%). International female students offshore passed 90.9% of what they attempted and did better than international male students offshore (87.2%). Australian female students passed 93.5% of what they attempted and did better than Australian male students (90.1%).

Overall, female students passed 93.3% of what they attempted and did better than male students (89.9%), as Table 9.2 'Gender: Student Progress Rates' shows.

Table 9.2
Gender: student progress rates

	Female	Male	Total
International onshore	93.1%	89.9%	91.6%
International offshore	90.9%	87.2%	89.2%
Australian	93.5%	90.1%	92.0%
Total	93.3%	89.9%	91.8%

This gender difference was consistent with the 2006 study, where female students passed 91.6% of what they attempted and male students 86.5%.

Level of study

The population in the study included 164,214 undergraduate students and 31,480 postgraduate coursework students, as stated in Table 9.3 'Level of study: population'.

Table 9.3
Level of study: population

	Undergraduate	Postgraduate coursework	Total
International Onshore	31,133	15,719	46,852
International Offshore	6,711	1,228	7,939
Australian	126,370	14,533	140,903
Total	164,214	31,480	195,694

Of all international students onshore, 34% were postgraduate coursework students, while this figure was 15% for international students offshore and 10% for Australian students. In total, 16% of students in the study were postgraduate coursework students.

International postgraduate coursework students onshore passed 95.0% of what they attempted and did better than international undergraduate students onshore (89.9%). International postgraduate coursework students offshore passed 95.3% of what they attempted and did better than international undergraduate students offshore (88.1%). Australian postgraduate coursework students passed 94.8% of what they attempted and did better than Australian undergraduate students (91.6%).

Overall, postgraduate coursework students passed 94.9% of what they attempted and did better than undergraduate students (91.2%), as in Table 9.4 'Level of study: student progress rates'.

Table 9.4
Level of study: student progress rates

	Undergraduate	Postgraduate coursework	Total
International Onshore	89.9%	95.0%	91.6%
International Offshore	88.1%	95.3%	89.2%
Australian	91.6%	94.8%	92.0%
Total	91.2%	94.9%	91.8%

International and Australian students

Overall, international students on campus in Australia (91.6%) did as well as Australian students (92.0%) and did better than international students offshore (89.2%), as Table 9.5 'International and Australian students: student progress rates' shows.

Table 9.5
International and Australian students: student progress rates

	Population	Student progress rate
International Onshore	46,852	91.6%
International Offshore	7,939	89.2%
Australian	140,903	92.0%
Total	195,694	91.8%

Broad field of education

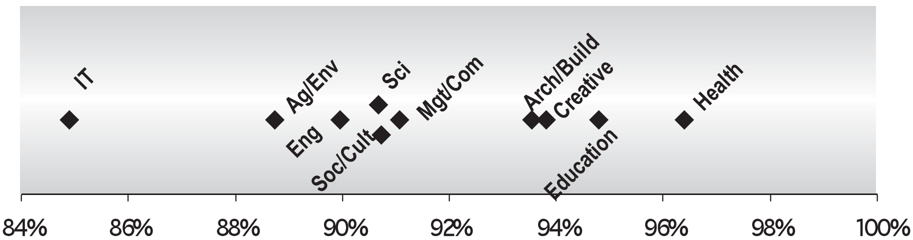
Student progress rates were compared for students in Natural and Physical Sciences, Information Technology, Engineering and Related Technologies, Architecture and Building, Agriculture, Environmental and Related Studies, Health, Education, Management and Commerce, Society and Culture and Creative Arts.[4]

Student progress rates varied across these ten broad fields of education, as Table 9.6 and Figure 9.3 'Broad field of education: student progress rates' show.

Table 9.6
Broad field of education: student progress rates

Field	Population	Student progress rate
Management/Commerce	44,365	91.1%
Society/Culture	43,627	90.7%
Health	28,006	96.4%
Science	21,998	90.7%
Engineering	21,349	90.0%
Creative Arts	11,160	93.8%
Education	7,779	94.8%
Architecture/Build	6,158	93.5%
IT	5,035	84.9%
Agriculture/Env	3,557	88.7%

Figure 9.3
Broad field of education: student progress rates



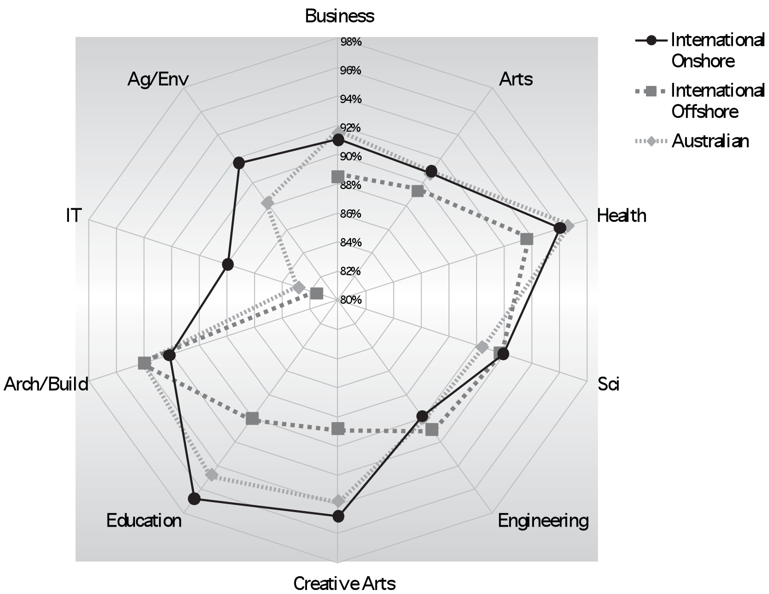
Overall, across tall fields of education, Go8 students passed 91.8% of what they attempted. Students in Health, Education, Creative Arts and Architecture/Building did better than this, and did better than students in Management/Commerce, Society/Culture, Science, Engineering, Agriculture/Environment and IT.

Across these ten broad fields of education, student progress rates were compared between international students onshore, international students offshore and Australian students, as Table 9.7 and Figure 9.4 'Broad fields of education: international and Australian students' show. The performance of one international offshore student in Agriculture/ Environment was not included in the table or the figure.

Table 9.7
Broad fields of education: international and Australian students

	Population			*Student progress rate*		
Field	**Int. Onshore**	**Int. Offshore**	**Australian**	**Int. Onshore**	**Int. Offshore**	**Australian**
Mgt/Com	19,090	3,039	22,236	91.0%	88.5%	91.5%
Soc/Culture	5,876	805	36,946	90.9%	89.3%	90.7%
Health	4,455	825	22,726	96.1%	93.6%	96.6%
Science	3,318	1,130	17,550	91.9%	91.7%	90.4%
Engineering	5,456	912	14,981	89.8%	91.0%	90.0%
Creative	1,782	282	9,096	94.8%	88.8%	93.8%
Education	857	358	6,564	96.8%	90.0%	94.8%
Arch/Build	1,473	51	4,634	92.2%	94.0%	94.0%
IT	2,125	426	2,484	88.0%	81.6%	82.9%
Ag/Env	512		3,044	91.6%		88.3%

Figure 9.4
Broad fields of education: international and Australian students



Home countries

The Go8 universities reported international country codes for 46,438 international students on campus in Australia. The students came from 179 countries, with fewer than 10 students originating from each of 90 countries.

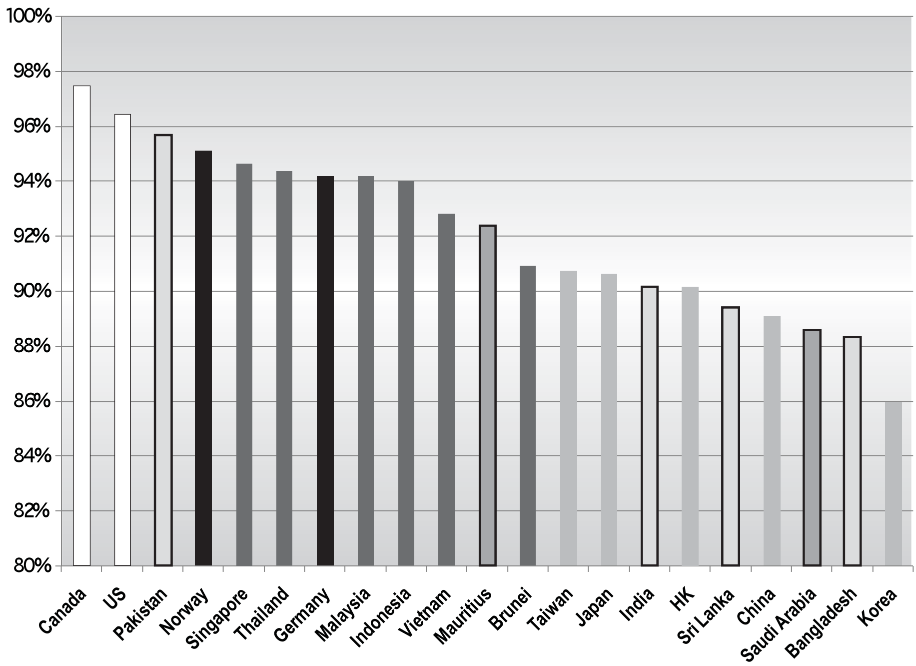
There were 21 home countries with 200 students or more in Go8 universities, and these 21 countries made up 91% of the international student population, on campus in Australia, as Table 9.8 'Home country of international students onshore: student progress rates' shows.

Table 9.8
Home country of international students onshore: student progress rates

	Population	Student progress rate
China	14,291	89.1%
Malaysia	5,724	94.2%
Singapore	4,231	94.7%
HK	3,515	90.1%
Indonesia	2,953	94.0%
US	2,211	96.4%
India	1,738	90.2%
Korea	1,427	85.9%
Vietnam	895	92.8%
Thailand	858	94.4%
Japan	739	90.6%
Taiwan	699	90.7%
Canada	637	97.5%
Germany	464	94.2%
Sri Lanka	395	89.4%
Brunei	284	90.9%
Pakistan	268	95.7%
Mauritius	258	92.4%
Norway	237	95.1%
Saudi Arabia	214	88.6%
Bangladesh	200	88.3%

Figure 9.5 'Home country of international students onshore: student progress rates' displays the student progress rates for these 21 countries, with some colour coding into regions.

Figure 9.5
Home country of international students onshore: student progress rates



Staying the course

Eesearch on attrition and retention in Australian universities[5] also enables some comparisons between academic outcomes of international and Australian students.

The nouns "retention" and "attrition" are not translated readily into active verbs. In the forthcoming report, students who are counted in retention figures are said to "stay the course", while students who are counted in attrition figures are said to "drop out". The expression "staying the course", used in the title, is taken from the UK National Audit Office 2007 report *Staying the Course: The Retention of Students in Higher Education*.[6] The House of Commons Committee of Public Accounts kept this expression in its 2008 report, *Staying the Course: The Retention of Students on Higher Education Courses*.[7]

The concepts of "attrition" and "retention" need some clarification. In the mentioned study, retention is simply the inverse of attrition, with 2006 as the base year, as follows:

Attrition	$(T\text{-}C\text{-}G)/T$ (the proportion of students in year 2006 who neither completed nor returned in year 2007)
Retention (Inverse of Attrition)	$(C+G)/T$ (the proportion of students in year 2006 who either completed or returned in year 2007)

Where:
T is the total number of students enrolled in 2006;
C is the number of students in population T who continued in 2007; and
G is the number of students in population T who completed in 2006.

Example:
If out of 100 students in 2006, 30 graduated in 2006 and 60 continued in 2007
Attrition = (100-60-30)/100 = 10%
Retention = Inverse of Attrition = (60+30)/100 = 90%.

In this study of 485,983 students in 32 Australian universities in 2006, the retention figure was 89.5%; the attrition figure was 10.5%. In 2006, 89.5% of students stayed the course, while 10.5% dropped out.

This study of retention and attrition of Australian and international students was carried out with the cooperation of the Australian Universities International Directors' Forum (AUIDF), the forum of the International Directors in the 38 universities that are members of Universities Australia. A total of 32 universities chose to participate in the study.

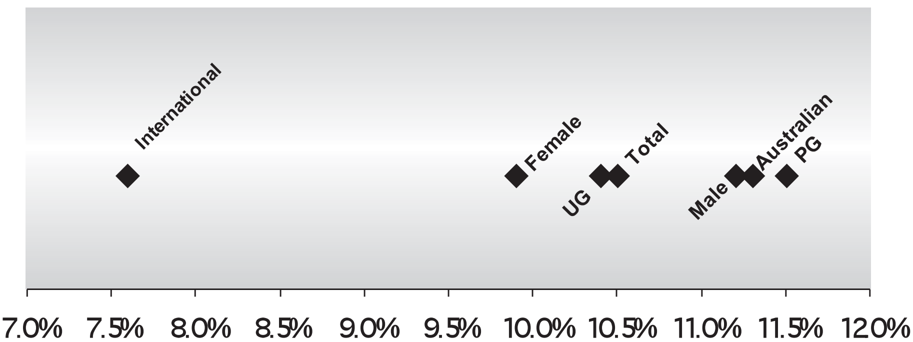
The base student population included both international and Australian students, who were enrolled in an award course in at least one reporting period in 2006 and were studying full-time on campus in Australia, and excluded postgraduate research students. The study excluded offshore students, external students, part-time students, postgraduate research students and non-award students. Specifically, study abroad and exchange students were excluded as non-award students.

In 2007 the then DEST published 'Appendix 4. Attrition Progress and Retention Rates for Commencing Bachelor Students' as part of *Students 2006 [Full Year]: Selected Higher Education Statistics*.[8] This put into the public domain for the first time information for each university on the comparative attrition rates of international and Australian students, but more specifically the population consisted of commencing bachelor's degree students. The DEST data enabled the comparison of attrition rates for international and Australian commencing bachelor's degree students in 2005 for each university.

In the 2008 study of 485,983 students in 32 Australian universities in 2006 women stayed the course better than men, undergraduates did better than postgraduate coursework students and international students stayed the course better than Australian students.

Figure 9.6 'Attrition rates by groups' compares the attrition rates for these six groups with the total population.

Figure 9.6
Attrition rates by groups



Overall, 7.6% of the 102,686 international students dropped out, but stayed the course better than the 383,297 Australian students, while 11.3% dropped out, as Table 9.9 'International and Australian students: attrition' shows.

Table 9.9
International and Australian students: attrition

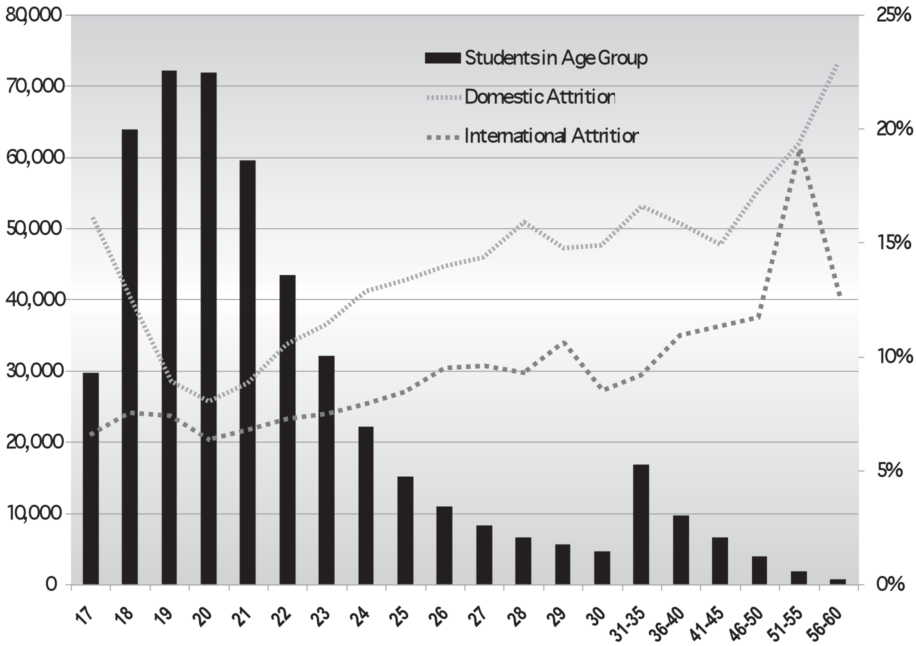
	Population	Attrition
International	102,686	7.6%
Australian	383,297	11.3%
Total	485,983	10.5%

Of the entire population, 99.8% of students were aged between 17 and 60. Overall, 10.5% of students dropped out.

In terms of staying the course, students aged 19 to 23, representing 57.5% of the overall student population, did better than this. Of 17 year olds (6.1% of the student population), 15.8 % and of 18 year olds (13.1% of the student population) 12.1% dropped out, suggesting that slightly older students stay the course better, perhaps benefiting from experiences such as gap years. However, this study did not distinguish between freshers and sophomores. From 23 years old onwards, attrition rates increase with age.

Attrition rates across age groups were compared between international and Australian students, as in Figure 9.7 'Age: international and Australian students' shows. At every age, international students stayed the course better than Australian students.

Figure 9.7
Age: international and Australian students



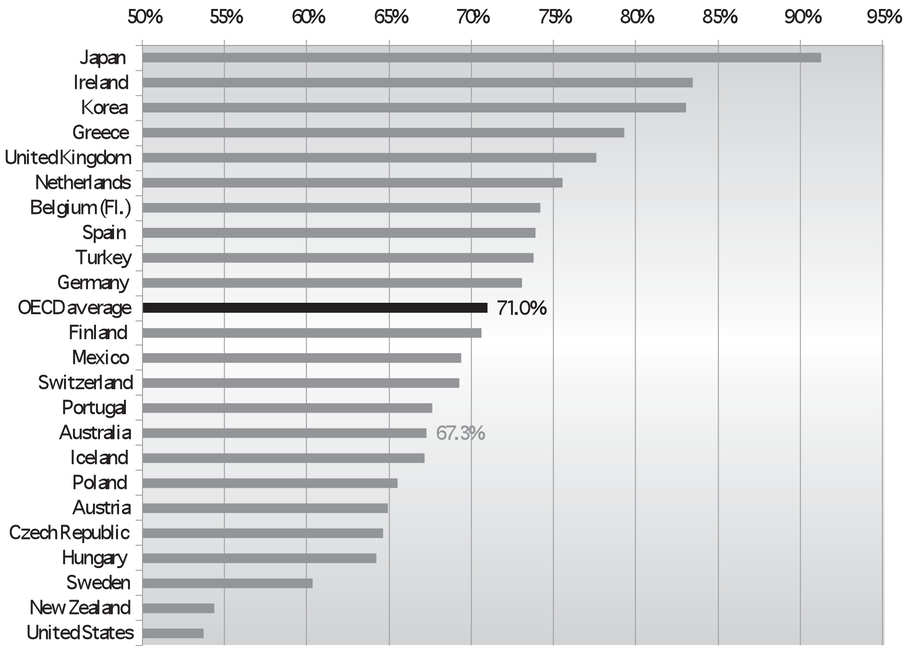
For the 32 universities, attrition rates for international students were compared with attrition rates for Australian students. In 27 universities, international students stayed the course better than Australian students and in five universities Australian students stayed the course better than international students.

International comparisons

International comparisons are more readily available for retention than for student progress. The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) defines survival rates for university undergraduate students as representing the proportion of those who enter such a programme and who go on to graduate from such a programme.

OECD in *Education at a Glance 2007: OECD Indicators*[9] compared survival rates in 2004. Against an OECD average of 71.0%, the figure for Australia was 67.3%, as in Figure 9.8 'OECD survival rates'.

Figure 9.8
OECD survival rates



The OECD survival rate for US in 2004 was 53.7%. In the Summer 2008 issue of *International Higher Education*, Arthur M Hauptman[10] commented on participation and persistence in the US.

Another traditional means of comparing OECD countries is persistence rates—the proportion of students entering who complete their programmes. Periodic longitudinal surveys of students entering universities in the United States suggest that about half of them receive a degree within six years. For community college students, the degree completion rate in the United States is much lower—certainly less than 20 percent and perhaps less than 10 percent—as many of the students who enrol do not intend to receive a degree. The view is that the United States has tended to be below the average of many other countries in terms of persistence, in part because as one of the first of the mass or universal systems in the world, the United States has adhered to the policy of letting more and more people try higher education, without worrying as much about how many complete their programmes.

The OECD survival rate for the UK in 2004 was 77.7%. The UK National Audit Office[11] in 2007 reported on two measures of retention:

- the completion rate, the proportion of starters in a year who continue their studies until they obtain their qualification, with no more than one consecutive year out of higher education (as higher education courses take years to complete, an expected completion rate is calculated by the Higher Education Statistics Agency. Data to check whether the expected rates are close to the actual completion rates has only recently become available.); and

- the continuation rate, the more immediate measure of retention, the proportion of an institution's intake which is enrolled in higher education in the year following their first entry into higher education.

The National Audit Office concluded:

> From the published performance indicators, of the 256,000 full-time, first-degree students starting higher education in 2004-05, 91.6 per cent continued into their second year. Also, the projected outcomes table shows that 78.1 per cent are expected to qualify with a first degree, with a further 2.2 per cent expected to obtain a lower qualification, and 5.8 per cent expected to transfer to another institution to continue their studies.

The OECD survival rate for New Zealand in 2004 was 54.4%. In the March 2005 issue of the *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, David Scott[12] reported research on completion rates for domestic undergraduates in New Zealand. Of domestic students commencing bachelor's degrees with public providers in 1998, 46% had completed successfully five years later, by 2002, and 7% were still studying.

Gender agenda

A comment on the extent to which 'girls do better than boys' and on the importance of taking gender into account in research on outcomes of higher education may be appropriate.

In the Go8 in 2007, female students passed 93.3% of what they attempted and did better than male students (89.9%). This gender difference was consistent with the 2006 study of 22 universities in 2003, where female students passed 91.6% of what they attempted; the figure for male students was 86.5%.

In 32 universities in Australia in 2006, 9.9% of female students dropped out, staying the course better than male students, of whom 11.2% dropped out.

From the 2005 study in New Zealand:[13]

> Women are more likely to complete a tertiary qualification successfully than men. For degree-level qualifications and below, the rate at which men complete is 6% to 9% lower than the rate for women.

In terms of outgoing international student mobility, a study of 37 universities in Australia in 2007[14] found that women dominated all types of international study experiences. The 37 universities reported that 57.5% of students with international study experience in 2007 were women. This is similar to the gender gap in US, where 65.5% of all study-abroad students in 2005/06 were women.

'Girls do better than boys' to the extent that, in any research on outcomes of higher education, it may be the case that a cohort dominated by women will do better than a cohort dominated by men. For this reason, gender needs to be on the agenda in any research on academic outcomes.

Outcomes

The Go8 is a coalition of leading Australian universities, intensive in research and comprehensive in general and professional education. In this elite group of Australian universities, in 2007 195,694 students passed 91.8% of what they attempted.

Specifically, in 2007 the 46,812 international students on campus in Australia passed 91.6% of what they attempted and did just as well as the 140,903 Australian students, who passed 92.0%. This is consistent with the 2006 study where, across 22 universities, the 73,929 international students on campus in Australia in 2003 passed 88.8% of what they attempted and did just as well as the 264,516 Australian students, who passed 89.4%.

In 2007, 7,939 international students offshore, resident outside Australia but studying at a Go8 university, including those at offshore campuses and those international students studying by distance or online, passed 89.2% of what they attempted.

Go8 universities are attracting talented international students to Australia, are setting entry standards at about the right levels and are achieving successful outcomes in educating these international students. In Go8 universities, international students in Australia do just as well as Australian students in key fields such as Management and Commerce, Society and Culture, Health and Engineering, and do slightly better in Science.

International students in Australia also have successful outcomes in terms of staying the course. Of 102,686 international students in 32 Australian universities in 2006, 92.4% completed or continued, staying the course better than the 88.7% of 383,279 Australian students who completed or continued.

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Chapter 10
The impact of quality review on the internationalisation of Malaspina University-College, Canada: a case study

by Bronwyn Jenkins-Deas

Introduction

Institutions of higher education around the world are increasingly demonstrating a commitment to the internationalisation process and have assumed a wide variety of activities and organisational strategies to achieve internationalisation. It would now be unusual, for example, to see an institution anywhere in the developed world without an international office or without opportunities for students to study abroad. In the past 10 years, the scope of internationalisation has expanded from what for many countries was essentially limited to the mobility of students and scholars to a more comprehensive and inclusive strategy, including an intentional transformation of the curriculum and Internationalisation at Home (IaH), recognising the importance of providing international learning opportunities to a majority of students who will never have an opportunity to study abroad. Many institutions have also expanded their scope to include the internationalisation of their local communities with training programmes, cultural activities and opportunities for business studies abroad. Also common to institutions around the world has been decreasing reliance on funding from the government and increasing pressure to augment budgets with revenue-generating activities. As a result, a growing feature of internationalisation has been the recruitment of international students and the establishment of off-shore programmes. The financial incentive to bring international students to our campuses and to deliver domestic programmes abroad is compelling. Along with that, however, there is an increasing pressure for accountability from the international and domestic students we serve, from our faculty and academic leaders and from various levels of government, to ensure the provision of quality programmes, partnerships and processes. The issue of quality has risen to the forefront and has come to occupy a central place in our continued internationalisation efforts.

There are essentially three central questions in relation to quality assurance in internationalisation. How can we continue to improve the quality of our international activities and organisational strategies, how can our internationalisation efforts improve the overall quality of education at our institutions and how do we measure our success in addressing the first two questions?

Defining quality

The issue of quality is increasingly important in higher education. What, however, does 'quality' mean? According to The Canadian Oxford Dictionary,[1] quality refers to "general excellence" and is associated with ideas of outstanding performance. As long as quality is defined in such a nebulous way, it is likely that measurement of it will be equally as vague. Regarding quality and internationalisation, Woodhouse[2] suggests that 'quality' is commonly accepted to mean "fitness of purpose", which means that quality is what each institution determines it to be. Accordingly, quality will depend upon the ability of each institution to define its purpose and articulate clear and measurable goals and objectives for internationalisation. Furthermore quality will be demonstrated in the achievement of these goals and objectives.

When organisational change, such as internationalisation, is underway, quality review or evaluation becomes extremely important and necessary to ensure that the stated objectives are being met in an efficient and effective manner, and that the quality of the activity or service meets the standards and expectations.[3] Internationalisation also requires effective evaluation strategies aimed at continuous quality improvement.[4] Institutions should consider the assessment process as an important and effective way of improving the quality of international education and as part of an overall institutional quality assurance process.

Defining our purpose

As indicated earlier, most post-secondary institutions have demonstrated a strategic commitment to the internationalisation process. Internationalisation has become part of the missions of institutions and is included in their financial and educational planning. Most institutions have an international office. However, how many institutions have defined internationalisation in a way that allows for formal comprehensive reviews? What is it we are trying to achieve and why? These are questions fundamental to the internationalisation process that many institutions have neglected to address fully before striding off into the 'minefield' of internationalisation. I have used a simile as dramatic as a 'minefield' because those institutions which have not genuinely addressed what it is they intend to do and why, inevitably expend needless amounts of energy feeling their way through an explosive array of international opportunities and risks. They perhaps take on partners with which they do not share common values and projects and which do not match the academic strengths of the institution. They react, rather than being proactive, and potentially cause their institutions considerable expense, both in terms of money and reputation. Quality assurance begins with the conscious definition of the objectives of international education, which are endorsed throughout campus. In order to evaluate internationalisation successfully, we require knowledge of exactly what is being evaluated.

Defining process

Many institutions have embraced Knight's definition of internationalisation,[5] which suggests a "process" and "integration" of activities and strategies. However, what exactly are the defining characteristics of a "process"? In lay terms, internationalisation as a process can be likened to the building of a house. The first stage of house building involves drawing up the architectural plans for the house. One cannot commission the building of a house without a clear vision of what that house will look like. A well-built house will have a solid foundation with a certain order of construction—the walls before the roof, for example—it will also have to adhere to certain construction standard, depending on the region in which it is built. Whereas the construction of the house has standard elements, each house is decorated uniquely, according to the particular taste of the owner. Like the internationalisation process, a house is also never fully finished. The structure of a well-built house will remain over time, but additions may be made and it may be repainted or even completely redecorated according to who lives in the house over time.

The key to the internationalisation "process", then, is to articulate clearly what it is we intend to build before we start building it and to ensure a solid foundation for the development of that vision. These two elements are fundamental to the process of successfully internationalising an institution. What is also fundamental to this process, and equally fundamental to the construction of the house, is regular checks—to ensure we are meeting the objectives we established for ourselves. As a house inspector's role is to determine that the builder has met the standard building requirements along the way, before the next stage commences, so too the internationalisation process should include regular inspections to ensure the quality of the activities and organisational structures and to ensure that internationalisation will enhance the quality of the institution as a whole.

The 'what' and the 'why' of internationalisation

The process of evaluating anything requires knowledge of what it is exactly that is being evaluated. However, for meaningful comparisons to be made over time or between subjects more is required. This knowledge must include a definitive description of both the starting point and the current point of investigation. To the extent that either point is unclear, the benefit of evaluation, in terms of generating meaningful and practical results, is undermined. Regarding internationalisation, much discussion has focused on the definition of the subject, but rather than admitting honestly that there are inherent problems with the process of definition, participants in the exercise frequently seem preoccupied with the outcome. Recognition of this is not new. Arum and Van der Water[6] were among the first to recognise this fact when they said,

> "to fail to provide a definition is to encourage misunderstanding, confusion and a lack of clarity to the process of change involved in the transition to educating for an interdependent world"[7]

This point was echoed by Knight[8] and de Wit[9] who suggested that it is detrimental to internationalisation to encompass anything and everything international, and that internationalisation must have established parameters if it is to be evaluated effectively.

What internationalisation is and why it is done are integral to each other and are of equal importance. For example, if the justification for internationalisation is primarily economic, then internationalisation should be defined in economic terms. The rationale the institution identifies for internationalisation guides the establishment of its goals and objectives, which in turn will shape the strategies used to achieve these goals. For the purposes of evaluation, institutions need to make their rationale and their definition of internationalisation clear and explicit. Also, institutions need to ensure that their goals, objectives and strategies for internationalisation are consistent with the rationale for and definition of internationalisation.

Evaluating the international dimension

Most sources on internationalisation of post-secondary institutions agree that successful internationalisation begins with a phase of strategic planning, which includes a comprehensive analysis and assessment of the institution's needs, followed by the development of measurable goals and objectives. When an institution states its objectives, according to what it has defined as its rationales for internationalisation, it is explicitly stating what it intends to do. Quality assurance allows an institution to measure the extent to which it is achieving its own objectives.

However, let us not get ahead of ourselves. Before an institution can formulate goals and objectives, and develop a strategic plan, it must assess the degree to which it is already internationalised. Such assessment should include determining the level of support, resources, programmes and activities that promote internationalisation. The assessment of programmes, linkages, services and activities is necessary before developing an action plan.[10] The subsequent assessment of quality and performance in international education requires that clearly defined objectives be articulated from the outset. Furthermore, to determine whether the results of international activities have been beneficial and consistent with the goals established for these activities, a clear quality assurance model for international cooperation must be created and endorsed.[11]

Evaluation is an appropriate undertaking for an institution which has pursued a systematic approach to internationalisation and is in a position to measure outcomes against previously defined goals and objectives. Although evaluation is an integral component of the internationalisation process and most models recognise its significance, the development of instruments for evaluation specific to the internationalisation process is relatively new. While the quality and internationalisation of higher education are integrally linked, limited progress has been made in developing instruments that assess the international dimension. Those that do exist resemble adapted domestic measurements, are generally national in scope and cannot normally be transferred between countries because of cultural differences and varying national rationales for evaluation.[12]

Knight has made a substantial contribution to the quality of evaluation literature, beginning with *Elements and Checkpoints*[13] for the Canadian Bureau of Education (CBIE). She later collaborated with de Wit on *A Comparative Study of Australia, Canada, Europe and the United States of America*,[14] and on *Internationalisation of Higher Education in Asia Pacific Countries*[15] for the European Association of International Education (EAIE). These works established the foundation for and stimulated the development of the Internationalisation Quality Review Process (IQRP). Designed by Knight and de Wit,[16] the IQRP focuses on individual institutions of higher education, allows them to assess and enhance the quality of their internationalisation efforts, according to the stated aims and objectives of each individual institution. It also involves a self-assessment exercise, as well as external peer review.

Knight and de Wit[17] intend the IQRP to be international in nature and not limited to a particular national context. Additionally, it is intended for use in a variety of institutions with different educational orientations or purposes, such as technical institutes, specialised colleges, comprehensive universities, undergraduate colleges and polytechnic institutes. It could even be utilised successfully within an institution at the departmental level. The IQRP is designed to address the breadth and depth of institutional activity and may include transnational offerings. While there are several other generic quality review instruments that are being applied to the international dimension of higher education, Van der Wende[18] suggested that that IQRP is "the first international level project combining the perspectives of quality assurance of internationalisation and internationalisation of quality assurance".[19]

Malaspina University-College and the IQRP

In the year 2000, I had the great fortune and honour to be appointed Dean of International Education at Malaspina University-College in British Columbia, Canada. Established in 1969, Malaspina College was the first regional community college on Vancouver Island, British Columbia. Later, in 1995, Malaspina University-College received independent degree-granting status and currently serves over 10,000 full-time and part-time students in more than 70 programmes. Malaspina was heralded as a leader in International Education in British Columbia and I was familiar anecdotally with many of its international successes, including significant numbers of international students and numbers of domestic students studying abroad. While making the transition to my new employment, I sought to discover how Malaspina described and showcased its international efforts to its stakeholders—to its students and the academic community, to the Board of Governors and to the local community. My quest for this information produced surprising results as I could find very little to support the tremendous international efforts I knew were taking place at this institution. Neither the mission statement, nor the institutional strategic plan held clues to suggest its commitment to international education. There were no institutional policies, goals or strategies concerning international education. None of its marketing materials, save those specifically directed to international students, held any hint of the great things this institution was doing. International education was Malaspina's best kept secret!

Being new to the institution and committed to internationalisation as a process, I had the perfect opportunity to engage the Malaspina community, to give me a better understanding of what exactly was happening at this institution and to create greater awareness amongst the various stakeholders of what internationalisation is and the important contributions it could make towards the education of students and the enhancement of the institution as a whole. With a unique centralised model for international education, where all international activity and revenue, including students, training and curriculum development, flowed through a Centre for International Education, I knew instinctively that with the right strategy, Malaspina could he heralded as one of the best internationalised (primarily) undergraduate universities in Canada. The strategy I employed was Knight's model for internationalisation,[20] which describes a cyclical process for internationalisation and advocates six stages, including "awareness, commitment, planning, implementation, review and reward/reinforcement".[21]

Creating awareness

The awareness stage of the internationalisation cycle is an important opportunity to cultivate understanding of the importance of internationalisation and stimulate campus-wide discussion. It is an opportunity to determine the level of support and resources dedicated to internationalisation. For me, this first stage was crucial, not only for my own understanding of what Malaspina was doing, but in creating an opportunity for the community to determine collectively what internationalisation meant to the institution and what activities it would engage in and why. Whereas Malaspina was engaging in a range of international activities and had many of the necessary organisational structures in place to support its international activity, like many institutions it had neglected to define internationalisation adequately in a way that would allow formal comprehensive reviews to ensure that strategic objectives of the process were being achieved.

The approach that was taken to stimulate this awareness phase was comprehensive, was undertaken over one year and involved taking Malaspina through the International Quality Review Process (IQRP). The IQRP[22] is a process “whereby individual institutions assess and enhance the quality of their internationalization efforts according to their own stated aims and objectives”.[23]

The IQRP is comprised of two parts. A self-assessment exercise provides an opportunity for critical self-evaluation of the international dimension of the institution including assessment of programmes, linkages, services and activities. It is an opportunity to conduct and analyse the extent and quality of internationalisation initiatives. The self-assessment is not merely a description of the various internationalisation initiatives. Although a qualitative and quantitative inventory of international activities forms an important basis for the assessment, the emphasis of the self-assessment is on the evaluation of the performance and achievements of the institution and the contributions internationalisation makes to the primary functions of the institution.

The self-assessment exercise includes working through a detailed self-assessment outline which covers the following major categories: context, internationalisation policies and strategies; organisational and support structures; students and academic programmes; research and scholarly collaboration; human resource management; contracts and services; and conclusions and recommendations. Each category necessitates an analysis of institutional strengths, weakness, opportunities and threats (SWOT), and contains a list of relevant questions on effectiveness and possibilities for improvement.

The self-assessment exercise is facilitated by a self-assessment team (SAT), whose members normally represent the internal organisation and goals of the institution. Upon completion of the self-assessment exercise, the SAT is expected to prepare a self-assessment report, which summarises its findings and makes recommendations regarding the continued internationalisation of the institution.
While completion of the self-assessment exercise at Malaspina was time-consuming and required leadership, direction and understanding of the issues, the self-assessment questions encouraged the institution to reveal the multi-faceted profile of the institution, disclosing its particular directions, priorities and effectiveness. The self-assessment tool became an invaluable tool for me as the new Dean and provided a detailed inventory of the international activities taking place at Malaspina. Moreover, the self-assessment report analysed the strengths and weaknesses of the institution, suggesting potential avenues for change and improvement.

The second stage of the IQRP is an external peer review, the purpose of which is to provide feedback and a complementary analysis to the self-assessment by the institution from a different, external and international perspective. The peer review includes a site visit where the Peer Review Team (PRT) meets with selected administrative staff, faculty and students. The mandate of the PRT is to examine whether the goals the institution has set for internationalisation are clearly articulated and how these goals are interpreted within the institution's teaching, research and service functions. In addition, the role of the PRT is to examine whether the institution is providing the necessary support and infrastructure for successful internationalisation and how the institution monitors its internationalisation efforts. Finally, the PRT considers the sufficiency of the institution's own proposals for change and improvement, and its capacity to improve its internationalisation strategies.

The PRT report on Malaspina provided valuable feedback on the self-assessment report and identified areas of achievement, as well as areas where further work could be done to strengthen those achievements, and areas where new initiatives or a stronger emphasis were merited. It particular, it suggested that while the success of the international efforts at Malaspina seemed to be based on an informal but strong commitment by the president and senior leaders to internationalisation, that commitment needed to be translated into a more strategic and formal planning process, including the development of appropriate policies and evaluation mechanisms, in order to ensure that the international dimension is integrated across the institution in a sustainable manner. The PRT report also suggested a clarification of the balance between academic and economic rationales and activities, and recommended an examination of the International Education Department's broader institutional role in the planning of internationalisation activities.

The peer-review process and the report provided an important opportunity for Malaspina to engage faculty, staff and students (both the supporters and the 'nay' sayers), to examine institutional efforts in international education and to articulate strategies for the internationalisation of the institution. Undertaking the IQRP was a constructive way to increase awareness, involvement and commitment to the internationalisation of the institution. The self-assessment report, together with the peer review, created the impetus for change and for the systematic planning of internationalisation at the institution.

Building commitment for internationalisation

Continuing to utilise Knight's strategy for internationalisation and having created new and greater awareness for internationalisation with the completion of the IQRP, I set about trying to expand strategically and build greater awareness and commitment to the internationalisation process. Knight[24] suggests that an institution needs to build a broad base of faculty, staff and students and a commitment from senior administration to convert commitment into strategies. Education (with regard to internationalisation) was a major factor in building greater commitment, so I focused my efforts on the Governing Board, the President and Executive members, the Deans, the Department Chairs and on the Student Union. The deliberate building of that commitment took place over my second year and, with input from a variety of stakeholders, included the initial framework of a strategic plan for internationalisation for the institution.

Strategic planning for internationalisation

Regarding the planning stage, Knight[25] reminds us that clarification of purpose is the crucial first step. It is important to ensure a clear definition of internationalisation, determine what parameters one particular institution contemplates for internationalisation from its unique perspective and the reasons it intends to engage in international activity. The development of a strategy for internationalisation at Malaspina was a comprehensive and inclusive exercise involving many stakeholders, including the Board of Governors, the Executive, faculty, staff, students and community groups. What the exercise allowed the institution to do was to determine priorities for international education at Malaspina and to outline the range of activities it would engage in (and fund) over a five-year period. It allowed the institution to focus its efforts collectively on the activities in which it had developed a particular strength or had potential, like international students and study abroad, and build on those strengths by developing specific goals and objectives for each area. Conversely, focusing on priorities for international education in particular areas freed the institution from other activities that were neither of interest for the time being nor within the realm of expertise (for example, transnational education and distance education). In the end, Malaspina developed a strategic plan for international education that focused on eight priority areas for the five-year period 2003-2008 and developed specific goals for each area, whose progress would be evaluated in a report at the end of each academic year which would be disseminated to the various stakeholders. The eight priority areas included: International Students, Domestic Study Abroad, Internationalising the Curriculum, Faculty and Staff Mobility, International Contract Training, Institutional Agreements, Foreign Languages and Community Linkages. The plan was formally endorsed by the Board of Governors, the Executive (which consisted of the President and Vice-Presidents), the Management Committee (consisting of academic Deans and service management representatives) and the Education Council (a representative group from faculty, administration and support staff).

Implementing and reviewing the plan

The operationalisation of the strategic plan for international education at Malaspina reflects the institutional definition of, and rationale for, internationalisation. It focuses on the activities the institution prioritised, on the one hand, and on the organisational factors that support them, on the other. The integration of the activities and organisational strategies are key to ensuring that internationalisation is sustainable at Malaspina. For example, if one of our strategic goals is to increase the number of Canadian students involved in student exchange abroad, then this will affect plans for faculty development and hiring processes.

Agner[26] suggests that success (of internationalisation) will depend on organisation, communication and small-scale change, and that internationalisation is a cumulative effort over time. In the five years since the Malaspina plan was developed there have been significant efforts made to meet the goals identified for each priority area and positive changes have taken place within the institution. In the area of international students, for example, the institution has established a scholarship programme for students which recognises both academic and community involvement. It has also created jobs specifically for international students and strategically developed opportunities for the interaction between international and domestic students. In the area of curriculum development, Malaspina has developed a five-day faculty development programme that takes individual faculty across disciplines through the process of internationalising their curriculum. It has also developed a series of professional development workshops for faculty and staff on cross-cultural communication, and teaching and learning in the multicultural classroom. It has secured a fund for faculty who are interested in integrating an international element into their teaching and the position of 'Internationalising the Curriculum Scholar' within the Teaching and Learning Centre cadre of specialty scholars.

All of these small-scale changes are identified as part of the yearly evaluation process, which results in an annual report describing how each of the priorities has been met relative to the original goals and setting out plans for the following year with input from the various stakeholders. This allows the institution to allocate funds to these activities to support the overall plan.

Recognising and rewarding the contributors

Knight[27] suggests that in order for commitment to the process to be sustained, a key phase in the strategy is recognition and reward. Reward creates a renewed commitment to the process, which creates more awareness, leads to more planning, *etc*. In the Malaspina context, rewards and incentives have become an important part of the internationalisation strategy and have created growing awareness and buy-in for the process. For example, in the area of faculty and staff development, a fund has now been established that allows faculty, administrators and support staff to travel or study abroad. The 'Internationalising the Curriculum Fund' provides incentives for faculty to integrate an international element into their curriculum. Every domestic student who wishes to study abroad can apply for a stipend to support their international travel. A programme to recognise achievements in the community has been established for international students. Professional development funds have been set up for many departments that allow them to be supported in their international work. Many other incentives and rewards have also been implemented to ensure buy-in from as many of the stakeholders as possible.

Lessons learned

The first five-year cycle for Malaspina's strategic internationalisation plan was completed in 2008. What lessons have been learned in this process? I think one of the key features of this process was that it was created and owned by many, not just those involved in international education as their primary responsibility. It encouraged participation from a variety of stakeholders, including students, staff, faculty, governing groups and the community at large. As a result, the stakeholders actively participated and contributed to its success. The strategic plan itself became a living document that allowed the institution to focus and build on its strengths. It allowed the institution to identify the projects it engaged in, according to the framework and the priorities it had defined for itself, and similarly refuse projects that were outside that framework.

Key to the success of the last five years has been establishing both formal and informal communication structures to support the plan. Governing bodies and committees within the institution have expanded to include formal 'international' representation. Similarly, many policies and processes within the institution have been scrutinised and updated to ensure they are 'internationalised'. This change will go a long way to ensuring the legitimacy and sustainability of internationalisation at Malaspina. Regular review, culminating in an annual report, has been an integral component of the success of the plan. It has allowed the institution to identify and celebrate its accomplishments. It has allowed continued participation in identifying ways to enhance each priority area in the subsequent year and it has allowed the institution to identify areas for improvement. Most importantly, it has outlined its funding priorities according to the goals and objectives identified.

Finally, success in internationalisation at Malaspina would not have been possible without the tremendous ongoing support and trust of its President and Vice-Presidential team.

Internationalisation does not appear magically overnight. It is a gradual systematic process that takes place over time. The house that Malaspina is building started with a clear, shared vision of what the house would look like and in the past five years has developed a solid structure to which it can add the key components. With a renewed commitment to and understanding of that vision in its next strategic planning phase, and continued leadership from a new Executive team and from a new Dean of International Education, Malaspina has the potential to become an excellent example of a truly internationalised institution.

Conclusion

As international education begins to cost more, both in monetary and human terms, more attention has to be paid to quality-related requirements. If internationalisation is to command substantial budgetary resources and there is to be a greater 'buy-in' from faculty, staff and the community, it must demonstrate its impact on quality in academic terms. The providers and managers of international education will be called upon to demonstrate effectiveness and accountability in the conduct of their operations. There must be quality assurance of the process and a demonstration of cost effectiveness.

The time is upon us that institutions will need to develop real strategies to internationalise centrally, as well as at the departmental level, and create ways of measuring whether or not these strategies have been realised and are effective. Institutions must set clear objectives to ensure quality for international education. It is equally important that institutions develop evaluation strategies to determine the extent to which institutions and departments involved in international activity have achieved the objectives of the process, not only from the point of view of the institution, but also from that of the various stakeholders.

The definition of internationalisation and the reasons for doing it remain critical issues in this writer's mind. In order for an institution to begin an evaluation of its internationalisation efforts, it must define clearly what internationalisation means. Furthermore, an institution that undertakes a review process must articulate the reasons why it is internationalising. If either the definition or the rationale is unclear, the benefits of evaluation in terms of providing meaningful results are likely to be limited.

The lack of a clear definition is due largely to the fact that institutions are engaged in international activities and processes for a variety of reasons. While some institutions have articulated their rationales or initiated programmes for internationalisation, many of these employ a 'reverse justification' method, which uses current activities and policies to define internationalisation, instead of using a definition of internationalisation to rationalise the activities. As a result, institutions that succumb to this theoretical pitfall frequently fail to approach internationalisation as a process that should be integrative in character and the potential for linking rationales to activities in a reasonable and meaningful way is obscured or lost. In effect, such institutions are putting the cart before the horse by using the means to justify the end instead of the other way around.

Evaluation is an integral component of any project and especially of one such as the internationalisation of an institution, which is a process intended to integrate the fundamental elements of the institution's operation and growth. The importance of internationalisation ought to be articulated through an institution's strategic plan and should be supported, in principle, by its administration. Since international activities are taking place at the institution in a variety of ways, it is critical that mechanisms are put in place to evaluate the successes and failures of these efforts on a routine basis.[28] One of the critical issues is measurement. In other words, by what operational terms will successful internationalisation be defined, by whom and for what purposes? If faculty and staff are expected to buy in to the notion of internationalisation, then it is necessary to demonstrate quantifiable outcomes and achievements through evaluative measures which articulate its benefits to the institution, to students and to the international community as a whole, using objective data. If internationalisation efforts are expected to justify financial support, then these efforts must prove their worth through ongoing evaluation. Only with objective information on the outcomes of internationalisation can wise decisions be made on funding allocation and budget planning.

Internationalisation remains an important and growing priority for post-secondary institutions around the world. Educational institutions are moving towards a more organised and planned approach to internationalisation, including the development of both organisational and programme components. Knight and de Wit[29] suggest that successful internationalisation will include a strategy that infuses every aspect of the campus and is integrative rather than particular, a dynamic incorporation of the programme strategies with the institution's core activities of teaching and learning, research and service, and the development of appropriate policies and administrative systems. The extent to which these factors are integrated with strategic policy will demonstrate and reflect the degree to which the institution is internationalised.

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Chapter 11
Benchmarking the Internationalisation Strategies of European and Latin American Institutions of Higher Education[1]

by Hans de Wit

Introduction

The dynamics of the world around us are not without their impact on the organisation of higher education institutions. The political, economic, social and cultural world has an enormous impact on the higher education sector, which cannot and should not be relegated to the margins of changes occurring in society. The internationalisation of higher education, in itself an answer to and agent of the globalisation of our society, has an enormous influence on the development of institutions of higher education, as it opens these institutions to experiences from elsewhere in the world and to the global knowledge society. The internationalisation of higher education is a theme that is becoming increasingly important in regional, national and institutional strategies in higher education. At the same time, this international dimension of higher education is becoming more and more diverse and complex.

This implies that higher education institutions are being forced to respond to the changes they are confronted with, which requires them to undergo a process of reflection on the role and traditional functions they have played in the past and the new role they will have to play in the future. In this process of reflection, planning plays an important role in helping the institutions to prepare for the reformulation of their objectives, strategies, policies and targets. Benchmarking is one of the instruments which can be used for this purpose, as it provides a tool for self-assessment and peer review in combination with a comparison with other practices, without giving rise to a ranking or judgement of what is 'good' or 'bad'.

This chapter discusses a benchmarking exercise involving the internationalisation strategies of twelve universities: four from Latin America and eight from Europe. It is based on two related benchmarking exercises: the PIHE Network—EULA Partnerships for Internationalisation of Higher Education under the Alfa Scheme of the European Commission, which includes four universities from Latin America and three from Europe,[2] and an earlier project by ESMU involving five universities in Europe.[3] The instrument is founded on the Internationalisation Quality Review Process of IMHE/OECD. The study confirms the increasing importance but also the diversity and complexity of internationalisation strategies within the two regions and in comparison with each other. It also confirms their complexity and diversity in the context of the regional process of Europeanisation of higher education through the Bologna Process and the Lisbon Initiative. This is further confirmed in the cross-regional attempt to strengthen relations between institutions of higher education in Latin America, the Caribbean and Europe, which is illustrated by an overview of the common and different approaches to several aspects of internationalisation.

At an institutional level, the internationalisation of higher education is defined as the process of integrating an international dimension into the research, teaching and services functions of an institution of higher education.[4] Internationalisation is perceived and conceptualised in different ways, related to the diversity in national higher education systems and institutions, educational ideologies and philosophies, social-economic and political contexts, and to the stage and nature of the internationalisation process of a particular higher education institution.

These differences are expressed firstly in the rationales for internationalisation, which in turn influence the aims and objectives of internationalisation as set by the institution. The following rationales, which are not mutually exclusive and may change over time and place within the institution, are usually distinguished:

- **Academic rationales**: the objectives refer to the integration of an international dimension into teaching and research, and quality improvement.
- **Social/cultural rationales**: the objectives include the development of the individual, the role of foreign languages and cross-cultural understanding.
- **Economic rationales**: the objectives relate to direct or long-term economic benefits, *eg* the income of the institution, developing an internationally qualified labour force, trade relations, international supply and demand for education.
- **Political rationales**: the objectives refer to issues such as security, stability and peace, and ideological influence.[5]

This benchmarking exercise in relation to internationalisation focuses on internationalisation as a strategically important area of higher education management. The relationship between quality and internationalisation is relevant because:

- the more important the internationalisation of higher education becomes, the more important it is to address the issue of quality assessment and quality assurance in relation to the international dimension of higher education; and
- the more important it becomes to include the international dimension as a key component in the general academic and institutional quality review systems.

Quality assurance may take various forms, such as accreditation, assessment, audit, benchmarking, best practices, certification, evaluation, indicators, recognition, ranking and standards. Each of these has different objectives and methodologies. This paper provides a case study of the use of one of these forms, namely benchmarking. Benchmarking is a self-improvement tool for organisations. It allows them to compare themselves with others, identify their comparative strengths and weaknesses, and learn how to improve. Benchmarking is also a way of finding and adopting good practices which go beyond the mere comparison of data, since it focuses on processes by which results are achieved. PIHE benchmarking, in accordance with the ESMU programme, is based on process benchmarking, which is distinguished from statistical benchmarking. Process benchmarking goes beyond the comparison of data-based scores and conventional performance indicators (such as unit costs and completion rates) and focuses on the processes by which results are achieved. Process benchmarking examines activities comprising tasks or steps, which cross the boundaries between the conventional functions (*eg* finance or personnel) found in all organisations. By identifying processes which are generic and relevant and by using a consistent approach, benchmarking can be carried out across the boundaries of geography, nationality, sector, size or industry. This is not always possible with statistical benchmarking, which often founders on differences in definitions and cost levels between countries. Process benchmarking allows comparisons to be made, for example between large research universities and smaller more specialised universities. Process benchmarking provides a framework for assessing continuing performance, the effectiveness of any new initiatives and relative aspects of improvements in performance. (ESMU Benchmarking, www.esmu.be).[6]

The ESMU benchmarking exercise was founded on the Internationalisation Quality Review (IQR) Process as developed by IMHE/OECD.[7] The guidelines used in IQR, were adapted for the use of a questionnaire in the ESMU benchmarking exercise. The ESMU questionnaire was used again as the basis for the PIHE benchmarking exercise (for the guidelines used, see Annex 1). The PIHE Benchmarking report includes comparisons of the five European institutions of higher education involved in the ESMU Benchmarking exercise. This allows for broader input from Europe and, by using a bigger sample, adds to the validity of the comparisons.[8] On the Latin American side, the information about the four PIHE institutions is placed in perspective by a 2005 World Bank study on the internationalisation of higher education in Latin America,[9] which therefore also broadens the comparative scope of the exercise.[10]

The approach adopted in this benchmarking exercise has been to evaluate internationalisation at each university in relation to its own internal and external context, and to provide a comparative analysis of the seven (plus five) universities. The aim of doing so was to identify similarities and differences between the seven (plus five), the background for those similarities and differences, and good practices.

The following methodology was used in the PIHE exercise:

- A questionnaire was developed by the assessor in cooperation with the members of the network, based on the ESMU questionnaire.
- Each university representative in the PIHE network was sent the questionnaire, together with some guidance notes, and had a period of about three months in which to prepare the university's response.
- The assessor reviewed the responses and compiled a report from a comparative perspective.
- The role of the assessor ensured consistency of approach and reporting.
- It was assumed that the universities had circulated the report within their internal structures and services and had used the information to make changes.

The approach in this benchmarking exercise was to evaluate internationalisation at each university in relation to its own internal and external context. In the assessors report, we provide some comparative analysis of the five universities, so as to identify similarities and differences between the five and to provide the background to these.

Comparative profile of the twelve universities

A comparative profile of the eight European and four Latin American universities on the basis of ESMU and PIHE benchmarking in relation to internationalisation reveals the following:

- What is striking is that all seven PIHE institutions but one claim that they have a leading role in relation to internationalisation in their country and even on their continent. Such claims to be leaders were less manifest among the five European institutions in the ESMU benchmarking exercise and also in the World Bank study, both of 2005. This might be viewed as an expression of a maturing process with regard to internationalisation in recent years: universities on both continents have become more confident in and proud of their international dimension.
- The fact that only one European university has moved from “improving the quality of its internationalisation strategy” to “the contribution of internationalisation to the quality of its education and research” is an indication of the position of its internationalisation strategy in the overall plan of the institution, which is focused on providing “top quality of education and research”. It is also an indication of its view of itself as an international player, namely “becoming ranked at a higher position in the renowned global rankings”. The other six universities included in the benchmarking exercise are not (yet) at that stage of development, in general, and in relation to their internationalisation strategies, in particular. They are still focused on “improving the quality of [their] internationalisation strategy”.
- There is a strong focus on Europe in all of these universities and a strong focus on Latin America among the Latin American universities, together with an emerging interest in the latter region amongst European universities. Three European universities and one Latin American university also have a strong global perspective.
- There is an emphasis on student mobility in all twelve institutions, primarily on an exchange basis. One institution focuses mainly on recruitment-based mobility and two combine student exchange and recruitment.
- Research cooperation, faculty mobility and increasingly the development of joint and double degrees are other elements of the international strategy.
- There is a divide between a cooperative and a competitive approach to internationalisation. The Southern European and Latin American universities tend to be more cooperative, while the Northern European universities are moving in the direction of a more competitive approach.
- The picture with regard to international students corresponds to the divide between a cooperative versus a competitive approach between Northern European universities, on the one hand, and Southern European and Latin American universities, on the other. However, at the same time it shows that the latter group of institutions are quite entrepreneurial as far as their extracurricular activities (language training, in particular) are concerned.
- From the reports on both exercises one can observe a trend away from many small bilateral agreements to more substantive and qualitative multilateral networks and, in the case of Europe, towards strategic alliances, both bilateral and multilateral, including those alliances focused on joint and double degrees.

In the case of Latin America, it can be said, as the World Bank study of 2005[11] observes, that networking has become an important programme strategy for Latin American universities. However, there appears to be a lack of clear focus with regard to the meaning and contents of networks. Networks are viewed as important instruments for international cooperation and exchange. The emphasis is still on contacts rather than on activities. These networks are, however, of great benefit to the institutions in the region. They are a mixture of horizontal and vertical international cooperation, but most are still based on reactive responses to the programmes of international donors and national governments, rather than on proactive initiatives by the institutions. As far as participation in regional associations is concerned, there is a great diversity of regional higher education networks, but also a lack of coherence and an emphasis on political statements rather than concrete action. However, one can observe a gradual move away from reactive to proactive participation in networks directed towards concrete international activities.

- Four European universities see themselves nationally and internationally as prominent universities and wish to be key global players. Two European universities and the four Latin American ones have a slightly more modest focus and see themselves as national players with an international dimension. The Latin American universities—in particular, two of them—wish to enhance their position as key players in their own region.
- With regard to the position which internationalisation occupies in the overall mission and strategic plan of the universities, all twelve but one assigned a central role to internationalisation in their missions and strategic plans.
- The Bologna Process is an important factor in the strategic development of the eight European universities. They are also actively implementing the Bologna objectives. The Latin American universities are lacking such a regional plan and related programmes for international cooperation and exchange.
- With regard to the mainstreaming of internationalisation, "internationalisation as a transversal activity, involving all administrative services and academic units", as one university puts it, is still marginal. Only one European university has achieved this and some other European institutions are moving in this direction, but the Latin American universities are not yet doing so.
- The comparison of Europe and Latin America shows that in Europe responsibility for internationalisation has moved to the level of the Vice-Chancellor, but this is not yet the case in Latin America. The observation made in the World Bank study of 2005, namely that "the position of Vice-Chancellor or Vice-Provost for International Relations, for example, which some European and American universities have created, is rare in Latin America"[12] is still the case.
- It might come as a surprise that two Latin American universities seem to have reached a more advanced stage in planning the internationalisation of their curricula and their teaching and learning processes—an issue that was given rather little attention in the World Bank's study of 2005—than the European universities. European universities, however, are paying attention to this implicitly in the context of the internationalisation of their study programmes. More explicit and concrete strategies should be developed, however, on both continents.
- All the universities present a mix of centralised and decentralised strategies and

policies. They try to create a balance between the strategy of the institution and the recognition of approaches and activities specific to departments and disciplines.

- The support structures are well developed in each of the universities. The International Office, as a marginal island, is disappearing in Europe. In Latin America, however, support structures are still evolving. The situation with regard to support structures appears to have improved in at least two institutions.
- Only one university makes explicit and active reference to transnational educational opportunities. None of the universities are really active in moving programmes abroad through branch campuses, franchise operations and twinning programmes. Joint and double degrees are emerging, but more on a horizontal than a vertical basis.
- As far as future challenges are concerned, the increasingly more competitive higher education environment is seen as a challenge. In Europe the survival of small languages in an international environment (an issue which affects four of the eight universities) is also seen as a challenge, as is the lack of awareness and relevance of internationalisation amongst some of their faculty. The Latin American universities also mention the lack of regional and national policies and programmes, and the lack of funding as very important challenges. The development of strategic alliances, the development of a corporate image, providing better quality of education and research, the development of a diversified funding base and the improvement of facilities and human resources are mentioned by all respondents as the way to deal with these challenges. Financial obstacles are seen as the most important obstacles to meeting these challenges.
- The following are typical of the opportunities which the five universities perceive in the international domain: education is growing in importance in the knowledge society; increasing demand for education and research to solve increasingly complex global problems; new and deeper forms of international cooperation, new dimensions and perspectives gained through entering the global educational market place; and optimising the use of ICT. For Latin America the following opportunities could be added: participation in European and other international programmes, and increasing interest in Latin American languages and cultures.
- The IAU survey of 2005 showed that for the Latin American universities, international agreements between institutions are considered to be the most important growth area, followed by international research collaboration and opportunities for outgoing mobility for students. For Europe outgoing mobility opportunities for faculty/staff is the most important growth area, followed by outgoing mobility opportunities for students and international agreements between institutions.[13] This appears to be confirmed in the benchmarking exercise.

Concluding remarks: lessons learned from benchmarking

The benchmarking exercise of European and Latin American universities shows that differences and similarities in their strategies emerge from a comparison of the strategies of institutions across regional and national borders. Differences and similarities in relation to regional and national contexts have their impact on the internationalisation strategy of each university, since internationalisation strategies are filtered and contextualised by the specific internal context of the university and the way they are embedded in their national context.[14]

What can institutions learn from participation in a benchmarking exercise as undertaken in the ESMU and PIHE projects? In the first place, they obtain a clearer picture of the current position of their own strategy in comparison to institutions of higher education in their own regions and in another part of the world. Secondly, they can observe trends and issues in internationalisation strategies that emerge from the comparative analysis. Thirdly, they can learn from the best practices of other institutions. Fourthly, in the case of a comparison with institutions from other regions, they can learn about the opportunities and challenges of cooperation with institutions in that region. It is important, however, when benchmarking institutions that they do not differ so much that lessons cannot be learned from each other. If this is the case, the comparison may seem to be one between apples and oranges.

Annex 1

External Environment and Institutional Strategy

1. Give a summary of the history of internationalisation efforts in your institution.
2. Describe your institution's profile regarding the internationalisation dimension.
3. Provide key relevant data on the financial and human resources input (both at the central and decentralised level) with respect to the international dimension of your institution, with a distinction between external funding and institutional funding for these.
4. How would you position your institution as an international player in the world of higher education?
5. Indicate what your institution perceives to be the principal current and future external challenges, opportunities and threats in the international domain?

Strategic Development of Internationalisation and the Institution's Capacity for Change

1. What is the institution's policy and strategy for internationalisation, including statements of current aims and objections, and expected outcomes of internationalisation?
2. What are the motivations and motives (rationales) underlying your international policy: philosophical underpinnings? How does your international policy relate to the overall mission and strategic plan of the University?
3. What is the scope of your international activities: geographic foci; range of institutional domains involved; market standpoint; competitive/co-operative model; networking policy, participation in national, regional and international programmes?
4. Identify the main priorities in development of international capability of the institution.
5. What are (is) the most current international approaches and practices in policy areas such as:
   - education
   - research
   - extension
   - quality assurance
   - personnel
   - finance
   - ICT

   in relation to the main priorities listed above?

6. What is the role of the governing body with respect to the internationalisation strategy of the institution?
7. Are there different strategies for each faculty and how do each of these strategies interact with the overall institutional strategy for internationalisation?

For the next two relevant areas indicated below:
Describe the nature of present provision,
Evaluate the effectiveness and efficiency of present provision,
Assess the relevance of the present situation in relation to future trends, challenges, *etc*.

International Activities and Programmes

1. The regional internationalisation of the curriculum and the teaching and learning process, including:
   - teaching policy for an international classroom
   - the international dimension in the curriculum
   - area studies
   - language studies
   - language policy (teaching in another language than the national language)
   - graduate centres in international topics
   - partnerships and joint courses and degrees
   - use of Internet/IT, offshore programmes; distance education; twinning and franchise operations
2. Students : flows of in- and outgoing exchange students, and the balance; foreign degree students; full-fee paying students; faculty distribution; integration; performance; overseas distance education students; participation of part-time and adult students in international activities. Describe policies and rationales with respect to the increase of student and faculty mobility, incoming (exchange, degree and scholarship based) and outgoing (exchange, degree and scholarship based), and by discipline.
3. The range of bilateral and multilateral agreements, their objectives and their effectiveness.
4. Quality assurance mechanisms and procedures in place to evaluate international and overseas programmes and activities.
5. Research students: to what extent do graduate students participate in international research projects and international networks? How are students being informed and advised about international work/study/research opportunities?
6. Research collaboration: fund acquisition; research consortia; international conferences; international research standing and research-teaching links.
7. Involvement in development assistance: scope; motivation; synergy with mainstream developments; training and consultancy; quality control and sustainability.
8. Identify the challenges your institution faces with respect to reach out to other parts of the world: newly accessed countries in the EU, rest of Europe, Northern America, Australia/New Zealand, Asia, Latin America and Africa.

Support Mechanisms for Internationalisation

1. The nature of the dedicated organisation for international activities in relation to the institution as a whole; the reporting and decision making structure and liaison and communication system (both formally and informally) between the various offices/units/persons involved in internationalisation; extent of decentralisation to

faculties, identification of responsibilities, mechanisms for conflict resolutions. Provide an organogram, if possible.

2. Internal and external financial sources of support exist for internationalisation: range, reliability, durability of various sources; adequacy of search mechanisms; sustainability and resource incentives for international operations.
3. Specific services and infrastructure which exist to support and develop international activities: PR and marketing; student academic and social support (integrating international with national students, housing for international students, other extra-curricular activities) and adequacy and relevance of mainstream services for international efforts.
4. Information system comprising external information; monitoring returns in place, such as student and staff evaluations, regular reports on the international programs and strategy, relation with overall reporting mechanisms, surveys, communication channels, dispute procedures, *etc*.
5. Human Resource policies, including an international dimension in overall policies for recruitment of staff (relevance of international experience and language requirements as part of recruitment, reward incentives for international activities and specific training opportunities to stimulate international dimension), as well as for specific international officers (specific positions central and decentral, career perspectives, *etc*).

References and notes

1 This paper is a shortened and revised version of de Wit, H. (2007) Planificacion estrategica y mecanismos de aseguramiento de la calidad para la internationalizacion and Practicas y Tendencias para la internacionalizacion y la cooperacion entre universidades de America Latina y Union Europea, Alicante, Spain: EU-LA PIHE, Partnerships for Internationalisation of Higher Education. pp. 355–398.

2 Ibid.

3 De Wit, H. (Assessor) (2005) Report on Internationalisation (E21). European Benchmarking Programme on University Management 2005. European Centre for Strategic Management of Universities, ESMU, Brussels. Amsterdam, Unpublished.

4 Knight, J. and de Wit, H. (1995) Strategies for Internationalisation of Higher Education, Amsterdam: EAIE.

5 See, among others, de Wit, H. (2002) Internationalisation of Higher Education in the United States of America and Europe: A Historical, Comparative and Conceptual Analysis. Connecticut: Greenwood Press.

6 For an overview of benchmarking and its use in higher education, see, in particular, the document of the European Benchmarking Initiative (EBI) in Higher Education: Background, Definitions and Approaches of Benchmarking. EBI Symposium, Brussels, 8 November 2007 at http://www.esmu.be/fileadmin/documents/DEAN_members/documents/Background_paper_EBI_Symposium.pdf.

7 Guidelines for the Internationalisation Quality Review (IQR) of IMHE/OECD. See Knight, J. and de Wit, H. (1999) Quality and Internationalisation in Higher Education, Paris, OECD.

8 These five universities represent different countries and regions (two Southern European and three Northern European universities, of which two are Scandinavian universities and one an English-speaking university) different sizes and collections of disciplines as well as different approaches and strategies to internationalisation.

9 De Wit, H., Jaramillo, I.C., Gacel Avila,J. and Knight, J. (eds) (2005) Higher Education in Latin America: the International Dimension, Washington D.C: Directions in Development, World Bank, Spanish edition: Educacion Superior en America Latina, la Dimension Internacional. Bogota, Colombia: Banco Mundial en cooperacion con Mayol Ediciones.

10 Ibid.

11 Ibid. pp. 345–346.

12 Ibid. p. 352.

13 Knight, J. (2006) Internationalization of higher education: new directions, new challenges. 2005 IAU Global Survey Report. IAU, Paris, p. 82.

14 See Huisman, J. and van der Wende, M.C. (eds) (2004) On Cooperation and Competition: National and European Policies for the Internationalisation of Higher Education, ACA Papers on International Cooperation in Education, Bonn: Lemmens and, for the European context, Frolich and Veiga (2005) Competition, Cooperation, Consequences and Choices in Selected European Countries in Kehm, B. and de Wit, H. (eds) (2005) Internationalisation in Higher Education: European Responses to the Global Perspective, Amsterdam: European Association for International Education (EAIE) and the European Higher Education Society (EAIR), pp. 154–172.

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