This paper analyzes various strategic management models for international programs from an Australian perspective. It presents the results of a qualitative case study of one Australian university faculty of business in the context of the relevance of chaos and complexity theories to strategic management. The case study is organized around the strategies, structures, systems, organizational learning, and leadership dimensions of this institution's management of international-entrepreneurial activities. The paper argues that the model of "structured chaos" or "bounded stability" and the core concepts associated with this model, such as "competing on the edge," may be of critical importance to a sector characterized by rising levels of national and international competition and institutional forays into these areas. Individual sections discuss: international-entrepreneurial activities in Australian universities; international education in the United States; international convergence; the strategic management of international-entrepreneurial programs; and the management of international entrepreneurial programs at "Australia U." (Contains approximately 100 references.)

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CONTRIBUTED PAPER

TRACK 8: EMERGING ISSUES IN HIGHER EDUCATION

39th ANNUAL AIR FORUM - MAY 30 - JUNE 2, 1999
SEATTLE, WASHINGTON, USA

"THE BUSINESS OF INTERNATIONALISATION: EMERGING ISSUES FOR THE ENTREPRENEURIAL UNIVERSITY"

Presenter:
David Poole
Lecturer in Management
Faculty of Management
University of Western Sydney, Hawkesbury
Locked Bag #1, Richmond NSW 2753 AUSTRALIA
d.poole@uws.edu.au

Co-author:
Associate Professor Graham Pratt
School of Management
University of Technology, Sydney
PO Box 222, Lindfield NSW 2070 AUSTRALIA
graham.pratt@uts.edu.au

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Dolores Vura
Editor
Air Forum Publications
Universities around the globe increasingly depend upon income derived from foreign students and other international activities. Despite differences between universities in Australia and the United States in terms of orientation and motivation towards international programs and strategies, it is argued that such activities are becoming an increasingly significant aspect of university entrepreneurialism in both countries. In viewing internationalisation from this perspective, the paper outlines and discusses a number of strategic management models and theories of relevance to this sphere, and reports the results of a qualitative case study of one entrepreneurial Australian university, In particular, “Australia U” is used as the basis for a discussion about the relevance of chaos and complexity theories for the management of these activities. In addition, the strategies, structures, systems, organisational learning and leadership dimensions of Australia U’s management of international-entrepreneurial activities are analysed. It is concluded that contemporary strategic management theories do speak to universities such as Australia U, and it is further argued that they may also have relevance for other higher education institutions.
"THE BUSINESS OF INTERNATIONALISATION: EMERGING ISSUES FOR THE ENTREPRENEURIAL UNIVERSITY"

Introduction

The internationalisation of universities around the globe has long been a topic of international interest. In Australia, it is argued that the national perspective on institutional international activities has shifted from a focus on ‘aid’ through ‘trade’ to full ‘internationalisation’ incorporating additional attention to the non-commercial aspects of international education (Beazley, 1992). In the United States, international education has historically been placed within the context of the nation’s foreign policy, with a more recent shift towards educating students in ways reflective of the need for the development of international competencies relevant to a global work environment (Holzner and Greenwood, in de Wit ed.), 1995, p.42).

Nonetheless, while the emphasis for internationalisation in both countries may have shifted to some extent in recent years, it is clear that entrepreneurial approaches to international education continue to predominate in Australia. This is also increasingly true for the United States since, as Slaughter and Leslie (1997) note, financial trends across the OECD countries, and particularly those for the United States, indicate declines in government funding for higher education, but overall rises in higher education revenues due to the substitution affects occurring as institutions seek alternative funding from other sources to make up for shortfalls. While funding may be sought via methods such as appeals to alumni and commercialisation of research, university education as a marketable international commodity is becoming increasingly important to universities of all types and in a range of environments.

In the United States, the challenges confronting the international dimension of university activities are increasingly seen in ‘competitive’ terms. Of two major competitive challenges facing American universities, for example, Lenington (1996, p.4.) identifies the threat that large numbers of students may seek to undertake their studies abroad if other national systems of higher education continue to meet or
surpass the perceived standards of local institutions. Further, the traditional goal of ‘cosmopolitanising’ the American campus ‘has been reinforced by the need on many campuses for increases in the number of foreign students to help reach minimal enrolment goals. Hence, pressures to expand the number of foreign students has resulted in more and more aggressive overseas recruitment campaigns’ (Lambert, in Hanson and Meyerson (eds.), 1995, p.21.). More recently, although the United States continues to enrol around 30 percent of all international students, growth of less than one percent during 1997 led the president of the US-based Institute of International Education to express concern that America was ‘at risk of losing out to other countries, which are aggressively competing for these talented applicants’ (Krasno, in Anon., 1997). In Australia, however, the marketing of international education has been viewed in ‘competitive advantage’ terms for some time (Back and Davis, in de Wit (ed), 1995, p.149).

Little is known about the management of university international-entrepreneurial activities. In particular, there has been little research undertaken to date which focuses on this aspect of institutional activity as a distinct dimension of institutional management. Most writers in the field see the revenue-generation dimension as but one aspect of a much broader notion of international education (for instance, see Knight, 1994; Rudzki, 1998; Storer, 1998).

Focusing particularly on the international-entrepreneurial domain, the paper commences with an overview of these activities, especially as they occur in Australia. The US context is then considered, as is the evolutionary move toward international convergence occurring in this field across the world. The next section presents a discussion of the major theoretical models perceived to have relevance for the strategic management of these programs, and questions whether newer models, combining elements of chaos, complexity, and systems theory, may be more applicable to this dynamic sector. The major themes and results arising from an exploratory case study of an entrepreneurial Australian university, “Australia U”, are presented, before being discussed in the context of the more contemporary theories and models of strategic management. It is argued that the model of ‘structured chaos’ or ‘bounded
stability' (Stacey, 1992; Brown and Eisenhardt, 1998) does have relevance for the international-entrepreneurial dimension of institutional strategy, and that the core concepts associated with the model may be of critical importance to a sector characterised by rising levels of national and international competition and by increasing institutional forays into previously uncharted waters.

**International-Entrepreneurial Activities in Australian Universities**

**International Student Numbers**

Although starting from a relatively low base, Australia is now, after the United States and United Kingdom, the world's third largest exporter of education (Maslen, 1999a, p.4). As illustrated in Table 1, over 72,000 students were enrolled in Australian degrees in 1998, with the sector enjoying an average annual growth rate of 14.65 percent over this period (DETYA, 1998a). Although offshore students comprise an increasing proportion of the international student population, the vast majority of foreign students continue to study on-campus at Australian universities. In terms of their disciplinary concentration, over half of all international students study in the business administration and economics areas, compared to just over one fifth of all non-international students, as illustrated in Table 2 (DETYA, 1998a).

**Table 1** International Students Studying at Australian Universities, 1989-1998

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Internal Students</th>
<th>Growth on Previous Yr. (%)</th>
<th>External Students</th>
<th>Growth on Previous Yr. (%)</th>
<th>Externals as a Prop. of total (%)</th>
<th>Total No's of Int. Students</th>
<th>Growth on Previous Yr. (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1989</td>
<td>19,981</td>
<td>1,034</td>
<td>4.92</td>
<td>21,015</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>23,448</td>
<td>17.35</td>
<td>1,195</td>
<td>4.85</td>
<td>24,643</td>
<td>15.40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>27,955</td>
<td>19.22</td>
<td>1,264</td>
<td>5.77</td>
<td>29,219</td>
<td>18.57</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>31,673</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>2,177</td>
<td>72.23</td>
<td>33,850</td>
<td>15.83</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1993</td>
<td>34,476</td>
<td>8.85</td>
<td>2,334</td>
<td>7.21</td>
<td>36,810</td>
<td>8.74</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>47,402</td>
<td>13.16</td>
<td>5,786</td>
<td>34.59</td>
<td>53,188</td>
<td>15.16</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>56,452</td>
<td>19.09</td>
<td>6,522</td>
<td>12.72</td>
<td>62,974</td>
<td>18.40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>64,764</td>
<td>14.72</td>
<td>7,419</td>
<td>13.75</td>
<td>72,183</td>
<td>14.62</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: DETYA, 1998a, Table 86.

Note: New Zealand citizens studying in Australia counted prior to 1996. Figures also include 118 international students enrolled at either Avondale College, the National Institute of Dramatic Art, or the Australian Defence Force Academy.
Table 2 International and Non-International Students by Broad Field of Study, 1998 (percentages)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Int’l Students</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>50.5</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>13.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Int. Students</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>22.3</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Institutional concentrations of students at Australia’s universities are shown in Table 3 (DETYA, 1998a, 1998b). Of particular significance is that twenty two of Australia’s thirty six public universities (there are also two private universities) maintain international student enrolments of over ten percent of their total cohorts, and seventeen universities generate at least seven percent of their total revenues from this source. In sectoral terms, Australian universities received A$627,342,000 in international student fees during 1998, accounting for 7.6 percent of total revenues. The four major players in this sector each receive over A$50 million per year from international student fees, with international students comprising at least 20 percent of their total student cohorts. It is interesting to note that each of Australia’s three largest universities for international student enrolments accept more students than their counterparts in the United States, namely Boston University, the University of Southern California, and the University of Michigan (Fell, in Osmond, 1998a, p.4).
### Table 3: Ranking of Australian Universities by Number of International Students and by Revenue from International Student Fees, 1998

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

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

It is instructive to look briefly at some of the commentary on “numbers” occurring in recent years. During 1995, the mood was upbeat, with optimistic forecasts presented that 215,000 international students would be studying in Australia by 2010, based on an international student market in which 2.8 million students would be studying outside their home country, over half originating from Asia. Australia was perceived to be capable of capturing around 7.5 percent of this market by 2010 (Newsome, 1995, p.1). A 1996 report commissioned by the Australian Government labelled the education sector as ‘one of the country’s most profitable and fastest growing export industries’, and estimated that overseas
students throughout the sector contributed some A$1.3 billion a year in fees, and spent another A$1.7 billion in living expenses (Garcia, 1997, p.2). Australia was placed seventh amongst the world's largest providers of higher education to foreign students in 1997 (Maslen, 1998a, p.2), and growth in the sector continued through 1998 and 1999 despite predictions that the Asian economic crisis would significantly temper future sectoral growth (AVCC, 1999; Illing, 1998a, p.2; Illing, 1998b, p.36). The continued growth in student numbers has been attributed to the country diversification strategies pursued across the sector, the development of more aggressive marketing programs by some institutions, and the price advantages gained by Australia as a result of the Asian currency crisis (Illing, 1998c, p.37; Jacobsen, 1999, p.17; Maslen, 1999b, p.1). In relation to price, it is estimated that the total cost, including living expenses, of a business degree in Australia fell from US$59,199 to US$49,274 from June 1997 to October 1998, while the equivalent cost in the US public system remained at US$94,000 and in the UK remained at around US$76,000, thus making study in Australia relatively more attractive to international students (Illing, 1998c, p.37). Australian universities thus experienced rises of up to 42 percent in international student enrolments in 1999, despite the dire warnings that growth would level off or decline (Maslen, 1999c, p.3). Another important factor in Australia's success has undoubtedly been the perceived quality of its programs, and this aspect is mentioned by over 40 percent of all students as the major reason attracting them to study in Australia (IDP, 1997, p.3).

It is important to note, however, that some higher education administrators express concern about a potential over-reliance on international student fees, particularly among business faculties, and predict that Australia's competitive advantage in this sphere may only last for a few more years, creating a significant future challenge for Australian universities (Dobson, in Coorey, 1997, p.47; Niland, in Illing, 1997, p.34).
Driving Forces

The most significant, and perhaps singular, driving force for this revolution in Australian higher education has been the need for revenue. This has particularly been the case during recent years, for government expenditure on universities continued to decline in real terms since the mid-1990s. With a six percent cut in operating grants from 1996 (Illing, 1998d, p.27), universities have been further propelled down the entrepreneurial track. An indicator of this trend is that average university income from non-government sources in Australia rose from 24.6 percent to 27 percent in the brief period from 1997 to 1998 (Jacobsen, 1998, p.2). The current national Minister for Education accepts, and perhaps encourages, this trend, calling it a ‘rebalancing between government and private sources’ and argues that total revenues, from all sources, are more important than the government’s share of funding (Maslen, 1998b, p.2). Further steps down this independence from government path are encouraged by senior higher education participants such as the Chancellor of the Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology (Mercer, in Healy and Hodge, 1999, p.37), while international education leaders such as Hans de Wit view the international-entrepreneurial strategies of Australian universities as being driven almost solely by income generation motivations (de Wit, pers.com, 1998).

While broader rhetoric about internationalisation and its benefits does exist in the sector (Kemp, in Juddery, 1997, p.1; Kalantzis and Cope, 1997, p.11), this has to be offset against the level of funding made available for student and staff exchanges, and the comments of leaders from Australia’s major international student source countries. Government support for student exchanges during 1999 totalled just A$1.2 million, with the provision of 266 exchanges (Anon., 1999a, p.4), while leaders in countries such as Malaysia, Australia’s second largest source market, have consistently lamented the lack of encouragement for two-way student flows between Malaysia and Australia (Osmond, 1996, p.1; Healy, 1998a, p.39).
Structures

The major central institution affecting international education in Australia is IDP, an organisation owned by Australia’s public universities, which has the role of marketing the Australian university system, recruiting students from a base of 45 IDP offices in 28 countries, and monitoring the international environment to provide key strategic information to member institutions (Osmond, 1998b, p6; Osmond, 1998c, p.4). New locations for IDP offices opened during 1998 included Dhaka (Bangladesh), Noumea (New Caledonia), Horst (The Netherlands), Hanoi (Vietnam), Budapest (Hungary), Mexico City (Mexico), Shanghai (PRC), Essen (Germany), Madrid (Spain) and Chandigarh (northern India), reflecting the diversification strategies referred to above which have assisted Australian universities to survive the Asian crisis. A recent IDP ‘rebranding’ (Osmond, 1998d, p.1) of Australia as a student destination included messages such as:

- “We taught the future King the Queen’s English” (Prince Charles); and
- “Come and study in the world’s oldest art school” and “Australians have been studying aeronautics for 40,000 years” (Aboriginal rock art and the boomerang, respectively).

Another important structure exists at state level, with state governments and state-wide alliances working to promote their states as attractive international education destinations. The Queensland Government and Queensland universities recently spent A$200,000 to send positive messages to Asia to counter the xenophobic rhetoric of one of the state’s politicians (Illing, 1998e, p.33), while an alliance of schools, local councils, technical and further education institutions, universities and the state government in South Australia is marketing ‘Education Adelaide’ to the growth markets of China and India as well as to existing markets of Indonesia, Hong Kong, Japan, Malaysia, and Singapore as part of a A$7 million campaign (Donaghy, 1998, p.6).
Other significant structures exist at the level of the national government, particularly given its importance as the major funder of Australian universities, and the Australian Vice-Chancellors’ Committee (AVCC), the peak body of Australian university chief executive officers.

Of course, institutions are involved in international education on an individual basis, and this is particularly important for the development of institution to institution linkages, local and offshore course delivery, and targeted international recruitment programs (Back and Davis, in de Wit (ed), 1995, p.122). It is to these institutional activities that this study now turns.

**Institutional Activities and Trends**

A brief overview of the activities of Australian universities reveals a great deal about the context of strategic management in this sphere of institutional operations.

In terms of onshore activities, a number of initiatives are worthy of note. First, there is the public-private spin-off of Melbourne University, Melbourne University Private (MUP), which has circumvented Australian government restrictions on university borrowings to establish a new campus aimed to attract up to 10,000 international students per annum, each paying up to A$25,000 in tuition fees, thus providing potential revenues of some A$250 million per annum. The establishment of MUP is one element of Melbourne’s ambition to become ‘the Harvard of the south’ (Healy, 1997a, p.33; Maslen, 1998c, p.4; Maslen, 1998d, p.4). Second, there is the ongoing development of internationally-relevant courses for students studying onshore, such as the University of Western Australia’s Asian business degree program (de la Harpe, 1997, p.11), and the formation of an Institute of Asian Languages and Societies at the University of Melbourne, also part of that institution’s strategy to position itself as a ‘major international university in East Asia’ (Healy, 1998b, p.40).
A variety of offshore initiatives have also been undertaken in recent years. Monash University, for example, has established a campus in Malaysia, the first overseas institution to be permitted to do so by the Malaysian Government. The campus admitted its first intake of 450 students in mid-1998, enabling students to complete the entire Monash degree at that site. Further campuses were planned for Indonesia and South Africa (Maslen, 1998e, p.3). Western Australia’s Curtin University became the second institution to be permitted to establish a campus in Malaysia, commencing operations in early 1999. It aims to attract students from Brunei, Indonesia, China, and the Philippines, as well as substantial numbers of Malay students enrolling in the various undergraduate business programs currently on offer (Anon., 1999b, p.3). Another major delivery method is via “twinning programs” between local institutions or businesses in conjunction with an Australian provider, and some 13,000 students were estimated to be undertaking such programs in 1995 (Back, Davis and Olsen, 1996, p.25).

One of Australia’s regional universities, Central Queensland University (CQU) has established both onshore and offshore international campuses as part of its global strategy. In addition to opening CBD ‘boutique campuses’ for international students in major Australian cities such as Sydney and Brisbane, both in conjunction with a private provider, CQU has opened an international campus in Fiji to cater for both Fijian students and students from countries such as China who may face visa difficulties in entering Australia. Comparing the operation to the University of Phoenix, Vice-Chancellor Lauchlan Chipman has declared that CQU’s global strategy could eventually encompass 100 ‘outlets’ in some of the biggest cities in the United States and Europe (Illing, 1998f, p.33; Osmond, 1998e, p.1)

Australian universities are also pursuing international alliances as a major vehicle for internationalisation, and these alliances may consist of bilateral or multilateral alliances between universities, or alliances between universities and private sector institutions (Pratt and Poole, 1998, pp.13-14). An example of a bilateral alliance is that which saw the merger of the graduate business schools of the Universities of New South Wales and Sydney, designed to create a ‘mega-business school
able to compete with their increasingly active US and European rivals in the Asia-Pacific region’ (Spencer, 1998, p.33). One notable multilateral alliance is the creation of Universitas 21, a network of 13 international universities, including three from Australia, constructed around commitments to develop internal credit transfer mechanisms, best practice quality systems, and elaborate benchmarking arrangements. It also has the aim of creating a system which is perceived both internationally and by its member institutions to be more important than the national systems which house each of its individual members (Healy, 1997b, p.33; Maslen, 1997b, p.4; Healy, 1996, p.34). Alliances within Universitas 21 are increasing being formed at faculty level, for this is perceived to be ‘where the work really occurs’.

Further, a recent Universitas 21 meeting of commerce deans viewed strategic alliances of that nature to be increasingly important and, in some ways, to be parallelling the use of multinational corporations as a key vehicle for international management in the corporate sector (Layton, in Spencer and Espiner, 1999, p.48). The aim is to make Universitas 21 ‘a brand name for world-class education’ (Yiu-chung, in Bacani, 1998). Australian institutions such as Monash and CQU are also increasingly looking to international alliances such as the Global Alliance for Transnational Education as a key mechanism for developing international quality assurance processes and quality accreditation (Illing, 1999, p.39).

The development of such alliances points indicates that the forces for international competition are indeed global, and universities in other nations may be facing similar pressures to those confronting Australian universities.

**International Education in the United States**

As long ago as 1995, attention was called to the notion that international higher education was a ‘major export industry’, and one in which the United States was potentially losing its competitive edge (Altbach and de Wit, 1995). A US professor visiting Australia in 1996 also raised this possibility (Spear, in Juddery, 1996, p.6),
We see Australia as a threat to our recruitment...partly because Australia is providing good inducement to students to come here and partly because in the US our present political situation is somewhat antithetical (to recruitment)...Our politicians haven't yet understood that international students are an economic benefit.

At the level of individual institutions, recognition of this reality does seem to be progressively occurring, at least in some quarters. Like Australia, US recruitment efforts in non-traditional markets such as Latin America, Africa, India and the Middle East seem to have borne fruit in terms of the relatively muted effect of the Asian financial crisis on US enrolments (Fraser, 1997, pp.A58-A59; Desruisseaux, 1998a, p.A55), as have efforts at subsiding Asian students to enable them to complete their studies (Anon, 1998, p.38). The development of new programs such as the joint MBA offered in Hong Kong from 1998 by the Hong Kong University of Science and Technology and Northwestern Kellogg Graduate School of Management provide further indicators that US institutions are moving more rapidly down the international-entrepreneurial track (DeKrey, Pers.Comm., 1998). Some recognition of the importance of international revenues is also highlighted by estimations that US higher education is now the country's fifth-largest service sector export (Desruisseaux, 1998b, p.A66).

There is also a growing recognition, however, that the US may be continuing to lose ground in this sector. The maintenance of student numbers has occurred in the context of a growing market, so that the US share of the higher education international student market is estimated to have declined from 40 percent in the 1980s to 32 percent in 1997, and again fallen to 30 percent in 1998, with Australia, Britain and Canada perceived to be the major contributors to this fall (Desruisseaux, 1998c, p.A55; Richardson, 1998, p.36; Marcus, 1999, p.38). While the US Information Agency intends to identify barriers to international education exchange and develop a strategy to maintain US leadership in attracting foreign students (Richardson, 1998, p.36), the lack of financial resources and coherent strategies among
individual institutions remains a cause for lament amongst some commentators (Peterson and Altbach, in Goodman, 1999, p.A56). Still, given recent moves by traditional institutions in the US to increasingly retaliate against and emulate the best practices of “upstarts” within their own sector like the University of Phoenix, the growing awareness of similar factors in the international education environment may be enough to promote the kind of retaliation of which the US system is potentially more than capable.

**International Convergence**

Economics as a driving force is not limited to the Australian context. Universities around the world are responding to declining levels of government support, and the pursuit of income from non-traditional sources is proceeding apace (Desruisseaux, 1999, pp.A41-A42; Marshall, 1998, p.14). As Slaughter (in Currie and Newson, 1998, p.47) found in an analysis of the rise of ‘academic capitalism’,

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

For ‘market and market-like activity’, read “entrepreneurialism”. Many universities have over a long period exhibited some degree of entrepreneurialism, such as in the development of courses in response to perceived vocational needs, however it is the extent and depth of entrepreneurialism which makes this era qualitatively and quantitatively different to times past. Universities in the United Kingdom have followed a similar path to that of Australia’s institutions, face similar challenges to them, and in recent times have even been so bold as to wage a marketing campaign to attract Australian students to their campuses, basing the campaign on the shorter times required to complete some degrees in the UK (Coorey, 1996, p.30; Osmond, 1999, p.1; Bremner, 1998, p.9). Similarly, Canada appears to have shifted
to a more coordinated international marketing strategy in response to reduced government financial

The exhortations to become more strategically-focused and business-like also appear to be increasingly
common across the globe. The two major thrusts of this exhortation relate to the need for universities
to develop partnerships, and the need to pursue excellence in defined institutional areas. In relation to
the first, Dearing (1998, p.34) argues that,

*the prizes will go to those institutions that, having seen the opportunity, move quickly, decisively
and with a disposition to welcome partnership with industry and that have formed, or can
readily form, a network of collaborating universities whose geographical spread can match that
of the global corporation.*

Once again, parallels with the international or global business are drawn, and are seen to be critical as
a model for future institutional development. Similarly, Michael Porter’s message (in Brownless, 1996,
p.6) to Australian university leaders is a similar call for alignment with corporate values,

*You’ve got to find for the university a few areas where you set out to be the best in Australia, the
best in Asia and then, also, the best in the world...Those are probably not going to be broad
areas like physics but more focused areas relating to your local customers and your local needs.*

Some additional discussion of strategic management models and theories may be useful to provide a
theoretical context to the case study.
The Strategic Management of International-Entrepreneurial Programs

The nature of international-entrepreneurial programs and activities make them a peculiar beast as far as strategic management theory is concerned, since international-entrepreneurialism can trace its theoretical roots to many of the theories and concepts arising in the fields of higher education strategy, international education strategy, and business or corporate strategy. Each will be discussed in turn for its relevance to university international-entrepreneurialism.

Higher Education Strategy

The three primary methods of "strategising" are encapsulated in Chaffee's (1985) analysis of strategy-making in universities and business. The closed-system, means-ends approach of linear strategy is at one end of the spectrum, and this model consists of strategies developed by top management with the aim of formulating a tightly integrated set of decisions, actions and plans for the achievement of organisational goals (Chaffee, 1985, p.140). Chaffee notes that this model has never been totally predominant in the higher education literature, but that its themes of control and orderliness do pervade writings in this area. Amongst its weaknesses are its blind faith in managerial control and its ignorance of the internal and external organisational environments.

A less integrated but still top-down approach is provided by the adaptive model, a model which focuses more on the goal of alignment of an organisation with its environment than the blind pursuit of organisational goals (Chaffee, 1985, p.142). One influential higher education variant of the adaptive model was provided by Keller (1983) with his academic strategy model incorporating elements of institutional traditions, values and aspirations. Whilst arguably an improvement on linear approaches, the adaptive model is criticised for its inability to respond to the degree of environmental change and turbulence facing universities (Peterson, in Peterson et al, 1997, p.136), and for its inability to deal with
the cognitive dimension of complexity (Chaffee, 1985, p.143).

A third approach is represented by the interpretive model, which has the managerial aim of motivating others via the use of symbols and norms to believe in and act in ways which produce favourable results for the organisation (Chaffee, 1985, p.145). For Maassen and van Vught (in Clarke and Neave (eds), 1992, p.1493), this kind of approach has great potential, since

*The planning concepts which pay attention to uncertain knowledge and incomplete control of the planning object are by far the most interesting for institutional planning in higher education.*

The model has been recently modified by Peterson (in Peterson et al, 1997) to purportedly match the new environment of the 1990s. Beginning with the assumption that the changing environment and industry can be proactively influenced by individual organisations, the model relies in particular on the cultural or interpretive dimensions of opinions, expectations and beliefs, as originally annunciated by Cope (1985) in an earlier model. Themes and visions serve as motivational mechanisms, control is exerted through organisational members having a sense of direction, involvement and ownership, and member behaviour occurs via empowerment processes. Institutional strategies revolve around cross-industry cooperation, coalitions or competition, and the planning process centres on the redefinition of the institution’s role, its mission and external relationships (Peterson, in Peterson et al, 1997, pp.134-135). The Peterson framework is presented in Figure 1, with its core elements located in the “contextual planning” box.
Taken together, the three models offer a useful strategic starting point. The critical point arising from them is that as environmental and organisational complexities become more significant, simple strategy models provide little for managers other than simplistic exhortations and an unfounded belief that everything will turn out all right in the end. Adaptive strategy's emphasis on the environment and interpretive strategy’s emphasis on the cognitive and the complex are arguably the most significant contributions provided by these models.
International Education Strategy

Early models of international education strategy simply grafted international elements onto existing higher education models, such as Davies' (in Blok (ed), 1995) extension of the Keller model to this sphere. This period also saw frameworks developed describing possible transitions by institutions from one method of internationalisation to another, generally based on criteria such as the level of organisational commitment to internationalisation, the institution’s degree of support for internationalisation, and the place of international education within the university structure (Davies, in Blok (ed), 1995; van Dijk, in Blok (ed), 1995).

Two other approaches have also been influential. Knight’s (1994) normative ‘internationalisation cycle’ provides one means by which universities can translate its commitment to internationalisation into a strategy for institutionalising this dimension into university systems and values. The model is illustrated in Figure 2.

Figure 2 The Internationalisation Cycle

= supportive culture to integrate internationalisation
Source: Knight, 1994, p.122.
A 'fractal process model of internationalisation' has also been developed to provide a contextual, flexible model which incorporates institutional differences and which offers various strategic choices which may be pursued following the monitoring and evaluation of existing activities (Rudzki, 1998). This model is illustrated in Figure 3.

Figure 3  The Fractal Process Model of Internationalisation

CONTEXT

APPROACH

RATIONALE

ACTIONS/DIMENSIONS/ACTIVITIES

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

MONITORING AND PERIODIC REVIEW

CHANGE/REPOSITIONING/REALIGNMENT/REARRANGEMENT  REAPPRAISAL/REAJUSTMENT/RECONCEPTUALISATION

A number of international education writers have offered prescriptions for effective strategic management in international education. These are summarised in Table 4.

**Table 4  Suggested Characteristics for an Effective Internationalisation Process**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author/s</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Green &amp; Gerber</td>
<td>Develop global vision, then goals, then objectives using the strategic planning method. If collaborating, seek to find a partner with similar goals and objectives and academic structures. Do your homework, seek a relationship based on trust, and start small.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doyle</td>
<td>International activities may be best strategised via incorporation into the normal institutional strategic planning process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>van Overbeek</td>
<td>Clearly formulated and operational goals are required. Policies for internationalisation can be evaluated on the basis of standard policy evaluation measures, ie. policy should be explicitly formulated, relevant, include goals and objectives, and indicate the kinds of data to be collected.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kouijzer</td>
<td>To encourage international activities, institutions should use financial incentives, such as the provision of small amounts of funding for innovative or developmental programs; incentives in personnel policies which reward involvement in internationalisation; and the use of information and persuasion, such as translating external developments into terms than can be readily understood within the university.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kameoka</td>
<td>Successful internationalisation requires a strong leader, adequate resources, staff development, and commitment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aigner et al.</td>
<td>Success depends on the concepts of service, in which administrators first gain credibility with other stakeholders before seeking to internationalise; cooperation, including the need to network with faculties; coordination; and small scale change.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knight</td>
<td>The elements of collaboration (working together for mutual benefit), customization (each institution requires a customised strategy), coordination (need for a centralised support system), and innovation (entrepreneurial and creative approaches to internationalisation) should be guiding principles.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Back, Davis &amp; Olsen</td>
<td>Good practice elements involve institutions having a series of organisational and program strategies; integration of these strategies, and dynamism between them; a flow of funds from the international student programs to other internationalisation activities; and a centralised institutional</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There is a need for congruence between what internationalisation activists would like to do and what senior managers would like; consent at all levels; and consensus reached via iteration, negotiation and mutual accommodation. Policies should be real and regulated rather than rhetorical; plans should be realistic, resourced, and related across levels, practice should be relevant to client needs, related to practice elsewhere in the mission, and rigorous rather than simply providing “academic tourism”.

International office directors in the UK considered the most critical factors in successful internationalisation to be: 1. Favourable staff attitudes = 2. having the active support of senior management = 2. having staff with a specific international brief (the latter two being equal in criticality).

International office directors (senior managers) in Australia considered the most critical factors in successful internationalisation to be: 1. having the active support of senior management 2. favourable staff attitudes 3. Having staff with a specific international brief. In Sweden, the most critical factors were: 1. favourable staff attitudes 2. Having the active support of senior management 3. having staff who are fluent in foreign languages.

A review of this table reveals three relatively common themes. First, there appears to be a preference for managerialist models in the planning and administration of internationalisation. Although Rudzki (1998, p.192) suggests that there may be other relevant models, these are notably absent from the literature. Second, there is a distinct preference for incremental rather than revolutionary change in the implementation of international activities, together with an emphasis on inter-organisational collaboration rather than competition, and coordination in preference to fragmentation. Third, empirical research across a number of countries points toward the need for senior management support and favourable staff attitudes as being particularly critical in achieving successful internationalisation.

There are two deficiencies in this literature and research, however. The first is that the international-entrepreneurial dimension is subsumed under the umbrella of the range of other international activities in which institutions may be engaged, such as international research linkages and technical assistance.
In sum, there is no focussed literature on managing the “international businesses” within universities which is what this work has indeed become for many institutions across the world. A business perspective is arguably needed, particularly as it derives from the international business sphere. Second, the incrementalist approach, as argued above, may not be appropriate for the dynamic environment of international business in which universities now manage these programs, thus approaches which countenance the need for “frame-breaking” change may be required. This requirement demands an overview of the business literature as it potentially applies to international-entrepreneurial activities in universities.

Corporate Strategy and its Relevance for University International-Entrepreneurial Activities

The literature contains increasing references to business models, deriving both from the international business and general management spheres. For instance, Pratt and Poole (1998) call for greater use of market selection models and more extensive quality assurance processes as aspects of business internationalisation models which may be of potential relevance to managers and strategy-makers in higher education. Evans and Kemp (1997) draw attention to the product life cycle concept as applying to many source markets in international education, with strategies for such markets being dependent upon the position of the market in the introduction-growth-maturity-decline stages of the life cycle model.

Several significant works in the field are also moving further down the adaptive-interpretive strategy path than has previously been the case. For instance, Thompson and Strickland’s (1998) strategic management text derives as much from “Mintzbergian” concepts of emergent strategy and “Senge-ian” concepts of learning organisations as it does from the more traditional adaptive approaches.

A potentially valuable contemporary approach to strategic management builds on theories such as chaos and complexity theory to offer a new model for managing in turbulent, rapidly changing environments.
As noted above, such environments arguably do confront universities in the international-entrepreneurial strategy sphere. These theories suggest ways in which organisations can move away from operating in an environment of steady-state equilibrium at one extreme, and total anarchy or chaos on the other, and thus operate in an intermediate zone where creativity and innovation can more easily occur. Rather than having to choose between having a rigid, formalised structure or no structure, too much communication or too little, an over-reliance on strategic planning or an under-reliance, organisations should instead seek the position between these extremes which best places them in this zone of 'bounded instability' (Stacey, 1992, xii). The aim is to achieve a ‘both/and’ outcome rather than an ‘either/or’ outcome in resolving the contradictions between these choices (Stacey, 1992, p.39). The theory is based on propositions (Stacey, 1992, pp.13-17) such as,

- the long-term future of an organisation is unknowable: it cannot be predicted to any useful extent

- it follows that a single, organisation-wide “shared vision” of a future state must be impossible to formulate, unless we believe in mystic insight. Any such vision that managers put forward is then bound to be either a dangerous illusion or an interpretation of what has happened made with hindsight

- instead of visions and plans, effective managers focus on ever-changing agendas of strategic issues, challenges and aspirations. These arise out of poorly structured and conflicting changes that occur in the present but have long-term widespread consequences

- a unified, strongly shared culture blocks an organisation’s ability to develop and handle changing strategic agendas
cohesive teams of managers - working in the hierarchy of bureaucracy - operating in consensus are required for day-to-day problem-solving management. However, learning groups of managers - working in spontaneously self-organising networks - that encourage open conflict, engage in dialogue, and publicly test assertions are vital to the handling of strategic issues.

In sum, this approach encourages the fragmentation of organisational culture and the development of political interaction and real-time learning in order to keep the organisation in bounded instability. Control occurs via the self-policing nature of political interaction, as well as the existence of hierarchy and unequal power among organisational members. Organisational decision-making is exploratory and experimental, based on intuition and the development of analogical reasoning skills. On the downside, the approach's focus on politics, its allowance of unlimited time for teams to somehow form winning ideas, and its emphasis on hierarchy are issues at odds with many contemporary organisational trends (Thomas, 1993), however the underlying concept of 'bounded instability' appears to have merit, and recent extensions of the concept by writers like Brown and Eisenhardt (1998) offer greater potential for transfer to university managers as they seek to effectively manage their international-entrepreneurial activities.

**Competing on the Edge - Strategy as Structured Chaos**

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

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

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

The major building blocks for competing on the edge are illustrated in Figure 4.

Figure 4 The Building Blocks for ‘Competing on the Edge’


The foundation level is to compete ‘at the edge of chaos’. According to Brown and Eisenhardt (1998, pp.11-12),
...too much chaos makes it difficult to coordinate change...too much structure makes it hard for a firm to move...the edge of chaos lies in an intermediate zone where organisations never quite settle into an equilibrium, but never quite fall apart, either. The power of a few simple structures is at the heart of the edge of chaos. The critical management issue is to figure out what to structure, and as essential, what not to structure.

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

The second major element of edge of chaos management is coadaptation, the achievement of both collaborative synergies and individual successes within multiple-business organisations. Key management practices for coadaptation include locating decision making about collaboration across businesses where long-term strategies and short-term tactics meet, primarily in cross-business management groups, targeting collaborative activities to a small number of high payoff areas, and creating roles for each business which does not subsume their individuality into one collective egalitarian mass (Brown and Eisenhardt, 1998, pp.80-88). While universities are not multiple businesses, it could be argued that there are indeed multiple international businesses within each institution, since faculties in some institutions tend to retain a high degree of autonomy for the management of their own international-entrepreneurial programs.
Competing at the edge of time (the second level in Figure 4) requires ‘thinking simultaneously about multiple time horizons’ in order to gain the benefits of past experience while still keeping an eye on the future, competing vigorously in today’s markets, and knowing that there will be a significant overlap in how each affects the other (Brown and Eisenhardt, 1998, p.13). Gaining advantage from the past involves the concept of regeneration, in which managers seek to use new activities to refresh the old, thus blending the old and the new, having a critical mass of experienced people assisting in new endeavours, using tactics such as rearchitecture and recombination to accelerate adjustment to change and temper risk, and relying on modularity (segmentation) in strategies, customers, and products to enable adjustment to different rates of change in these areas (Brown and Eisenhardt, 1998, p.120). A second important concept to leverage time is that of experimentation, the willingness to undertake small, fast, cheap probes into markets in order to both make a commitment to the future and retain flexibility for the future (Brown and Eisenhardt, 1998, p.129). Managers effectively using this concept tend to have a simple and clearly defined vision for the future, generally use a variety of low-cost probes to experiment, and tend to give ‘constant but thin’ attention to the future (Brown and Eisenhardt, 1998, pp.148-149).

At the final level of competing on the edge strategic management, the concept of time pacing concerns (Brown and Eisenhardt, 1998, p.164),

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

Time pacing provides a stimulus for organisation to continue to innovate and act creatively. It acts to force managers to ‘look up from their businesses on a regular basis, survey the situation, adapt if necessary, and then get back to work’ (Brown and Eisenhardt, 1998, p.167).
In sum, concepts like bounded instability and competing on the edge are potentially significant to universities for several reasons. One is that the international-entrepreneurial education market now requires constant attention to innovation, to adaptation, and to change if institutions are to maintain their competitive advantages. Another reason, closer to home, is that the concept was mentioned during the case study by the Dean of the Faculty of Business, a senior academic manager with the most significant responsibility in the Faculty for its international entrepreneurial programs. He described the bounded instability philosophy as one which heavily influences his work, and this raises two important questions. First, does the Faculty and institution reflect the key dimensions of this model to any degree? Second, is the model a useful one for university managers generally as they struggle with managing an international business within a non-business context?

**The Management of International Entrepreneurial Programs at “Australia U”**

**Case Context**

“Australia U” (a pseudonym) is a multi-campus university located in one of Australia’s largest cities. Current enrolment exceeds 25,000 students, of whom around 40 percent are part-time students. More than 160 undergraduate and 400 postgraduate courses are conducted by Australia U’s nine faculties, with most of the faculties being “applied” in nature.

Australia U has experienced significant growth in international student numbers in recent years, particularly in onshore (Australia-based) programs. International student enrolments in 1998 totalled some 2,200 students, with around 90 percent of these being on-campus in Australia. The Faculty of Business (FoB) is home to 73 percent of total international student enrolments, making it by far the biggest “player” in international-entrepreneurial education at Australia U. The FoB is also the largest
faculty for overall enrolments at Australia U, accounting for over 30 percent of all students. About 35 percent of FoB students are enrolled in postgraduate programs, of which the largest is its MBA program.

Figure 5 illustrates the significant growth achieved in international student enrolments at Australia U over recent years. With an average annual growth rate of over 40 percent since 1993, Australia U has become the third largest international student institution in its state. Although commencing from a low base, Australia U’s growth seems impressive, particularly when compared to the national average growth rate of 13.5 percent over this period (DETYA, 1998a).

Figure 5 Fee-paying International Students Enrolled at Australia U, 1993-1998

Australia U’s flagship international programs are an undergraduate Bachelor of Business and the postgraduate MBA. Innovative versions of these programs include an MBA in Mandarin, taught wholly in Australia, and an MBA designed for overseas students with limited work experience. Offshore programs include a twinning program offering undergraduate business programs in partnership with a
private provider in Malaysia, and postgraduate business programs offered in conjunction with an agent in Singapore.

**Methodology**

This study focuses on the Faculty of Business (FoB) since, as noted above, this is the location for the greatest concentration of international students and activities, both for Australia U and among all other Australian universities. The research commenced with a document analysis of Australia U Annual Reports and institutional newsletters, as well as an archival search of higher education publications such as Campus Review and The Australian Higher Education Supplement for mentions of Australia U and its international activities. A copy of the “Australia U Corporate Plan 1998-2000” was also obtained. Eleven semi-structured interviews were conducted with Australia U staff, with sampling occurring in a combined purposive and informant-driven manner. Key academic managers were purposively selected, such as the Pro Vice-Chancellor (PVC) (External Affairs), Dean of the Faculty of Business, a Head of Department within the FoB, the Director, International Programs, and the FoB International Marketing Manager. In addition, academics and administrators were selected on the basis of their significant involvement in international activities, as indicated by colleagues in the FoB. In sum, interviewees can be divided into three categories, namely “Senior Academic Managers”, which includes the PVC, Dean, Head of School and Director of the Asian Studies Institute, “Administrators” which includes the Director, International Programs Office, the FoB International Marketing Manager, and lower-level administrators from the Graduate School of Business and Student Liaison Unit, and “Academics” including a full professor, associate professor, and lecturers from schools within the FoB. A semi-structured questionnaire was developed from the strategic management literature (for instance Thompson and Strickland, 1998, p.4) which focused on key general elements of strategic management, such as program emergence, structures, information and communications systems, rewards, quality and review, and organisational learning, in addition to incorporating two “reflective” questions based on contrasting
views of the degree of effectiveness of Australian universities in their strategic management of these activities (Pokarier and Ridings, 1998, p.9; Back, Davis and Olsen, 1996, p.109). The interviews were audiotaped and subsequently transcribed, with analysis occurring via margin notes and coding undertaken through the use of NUDIST data qualitative analysis software. Patterns and themes emerged inductively from this analysis, and decision rules activated such as the decision to in general report only those views held by a significant majority of the interviewees (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Reliability was pursued through triangulation of the findings against the other sources of data utilised, as well as the use of core questions in all interviews. Outliers and exceptions were also sought in the data to improve the validity of the findings.

Case Study Findings

Internationalisation at Australia U occurs in the context of an agreed set of corporate objectives. These are as follows:

1. Establish international activities and linkages which are appropriately focussed according to type of activity and discipline.
2. Provide opportunity and encouragement for Australia U students to develop an understanding of other cultures and appropriate language skills.
3. Increase staff involvement in international research projects and other scholarly activities.
4. Channel Australia U expertise to developing countries or countries undergoing major political and social change.
5. Increase the number of fee-paying international students, both on-shore and off-shore.
6. Foster social and environmental responsibility internationally.

To these objectives taken from the internationalisation theme of the corporate plan should be added
another key strategy from the “new income sources” dimension of the plan, namely to

Pursue opportunities to secure income from the key developments of flexible learning and work-based learning through promotion and marketing nationally and internationally, and by establishing strategic alliances with industry partners and other universities and private providers.

The finding are thus bounded to some degree by these corporate objectives. In relation to the findings, six key elements are worthy of discussion, namely strategies, structures, systems, learning, and leadership.

Strategies

The international strategies in the Australia U FoB are a combination of the deliberate and the emergent, the proactive and the reactive. The existing program in Malaysia developed in response to an external approach to the FoB, as did a recently ended relationship with a UK institution which involved student exchange between the UK and Australia. A more deliberative and proactive approach is represented by the current targeting of universities in the UK and Italy by the FoB.

Strategies have been very much marketing-focussed, as in the decision to diversify source country target markets in order to reduce exposure and risk, and in the decision to establish an Asian Studies Institute providing cross-faculty combined degrees in international studies. Similarly, the recruitment of world-leading professors across a range of business disciplines reflects the faculty’s goal, according to the International Marketing Manager of becoming known as ‘the most internationally oriented and successful business school in Australia’.
Several of the FoB interviewees referred to the Dean's vision of making the faculty the "Australian INSEAD", a reference to the prestigious Paris-based business school which specialises in international business and which provides management education at premium prices to over 5,000 executives in France and from bases throughout Asia. Its four-week 'Asia Course in International Management', for instance, is run from Singapore with fees of US$14,000 per participant. INSEAD's aim is to become 'the world's first global business school' (INSEAD, 1999), and it is currently building a campus in Singapore in pursuit of this end. According to Australia U's Dean of Business, INSEAD is attractive because of its emphasis on multi-lingual competencies among its faculty, its focussed postgraduate course offerings, and in terms of its strong linkages with the government and corporate sectors across Asia and throughout the world. This new model of international education is particularly attractive given the possibility according to several interviewees that current international student streams may diminish during the next ten to fifteen years. The focus is thus particularly geared to the development of INSEAD-like corporate partnerships, as the Dean clearly emphasises,

*Corporate partnerships will be what drive us. I would much rather have the corporations putting money into us than have students from families that are already on the poverty line in Indonesia trying to figure out how to send their kids here. I'd rather have corporations saying we will fund our staff to go to that place because that's the place where they're really going to get a handle on international trade and international relations.*

Alongside this vision, there is also an acceptance that it is difficult to be anything other than incrementalist in moving towards the goal. A theme arising in discussions of strategy was that this is very much a "muddling through" approach, reacting to some things if opportunities arise, trying to be proactive elsewhere and, as noted by a professor in the FoB,

*I guess the culture of this place is that we tend to probably give things a go. If you get it wrong,*
you get it wrong, rather than not give things a go...so it's haphazard in the sense that it's that kind of muddling through stuff where you say we'll give it a go and hope it works and if we don't well what are we exposed for?

There is also a recognition in some quarters that the success or otherwise of offshore programs relates more to other factors than whether they make a profit. While several interviewees admitted that offshore operations made little, if any profit, the argument was put that such programs bring broader benefits to the faculty, such as exposure and an enhanced reputation abroad. The International Marketing Manager in fact attributed a 'sixfold increase' in Singaporean students coming to Australia U as deriving directly from the promotional campaign undertaken by Australia U in that centre to lift student numbers for the Singapore campus.

In sum, while the overall strategy may be defined, as one senior academic manager did so, as 'high quality, high price, niche markets', the more significant developments are occurring in response to the Dean's vision for Australia U, and his faculty in particular, as 'Australia's INSEAD'. This vision is obviously permeating into the faculty, for four of the eleven interviewees mentioned INSEAD during the interviews, on an unaided basis, as the driving strategy or vision for the FoB. It should also be mentioned that several interviewees thought that this would not be an easy goal to reach, particularly given the constraints wrought by the need to keep people convinced of the merits of the model, and because of restrictions on such decisions as the salary levels for professorial and other appointments. Nonetheless, there was also an acceptance that such a target was better than none at all, and that the FoB had indeed taken active steps towards becoming more like an INSEAD-style institution.

A related issue is program emergence. The general feeling is that the FoB had moved away from a reactive approach to new programs to one which was far more proactive. While 'opportunities still have to be grabbed as they arise, for that is the way the world works', according to one senior academic
manager, the experiences and lessons learnt from past activities, as well as the appointment of a commercially-oriented International Marketing Manager, were seen to contribute to a more proactive approach. The previous approach was described variously as ‘ad hoc’ and ‘purely reactive’ by some interviewees. While department-based initiatives are still being encouraged, the mechanisms established under the Dean’s Unit, such as in the addition of the International Marketing Manager’s position and the establishment of a cross-faculty Dean’s Advisory Committee were generally perceived to be more appropriate than the historically ad hoc approach. Past problems of forming relationships with unsuitable institutions are viewed as less likely to occur in the future with the introduction of a ‘mixed scanning’ approach to possible activities, an approach which focusing on the academic and financial integrity of new proposals, and as a result of the collective experience and learning which has occurred as initiatives have been developed, implemented, reviewed and retrenched. The FoB is now generally perceived to lead other institutions in the development of new programs, and it is broadly accepted that these may derive from a number of sources, including individuals within departments, from external approaches, or from the Dean’s unit.

As for the driving forces pushing these kinds of activities, almost all participants identified government funding cutbacks as being the primary driver of internationalisation at Australia U. Many continued to see this driver in powerful terms, even where it was accepted that the FoB and university may genuinely be pursuing a broader, more holistic notion of internationalisation through its encouragement of student exchanges and language studies. As one academic noted,

*I think universities as much as anyone are aware that the world is shrinking and it’s of benefit to our students to be part of a wider world rather than a narrow one. But of course, there’s other ways to skin a cat apart from setting up campuses in Malaysia... I still think that basically we respond to the pressures of economics that are put upon us.*
A plethora of possible reasons for Australia U's success in the international-entrepreneurial domain were offered by interviewees. The university's location near a major business and transport hub was a factor mentioned by four participants, while Australia U's reputation and quality of programs were also perceived to be important factors (four responses). Leadership was seen to be a critical factor by three respondents, with some interviewees giving multiple reasons for Australia U's success. Whether much weight can be given to these answers is arguable, since several participants also made comments to the effect that "we must be doing something right", thus providing somewhat of a circular argument.

Perhaps, as one senior academic manager remarked, factors such as these have some bearing, but they must be placed alongside the high level of market demand for higher education, particularly from Asia, which makes Australia as a location particularly attractive,

*The rude answer is that we have an unbeatable location. There is an insatiable demand in the primary markets that are coming to us - South East Asia, North East Asia, South Asia. They would almost have to be a complete total mug not to have numbers coming to you. So anybody who tells you that they sat there and did some grand scheme and the flow of numbers has arisen from the grand scheme is telling you porkies. Because it isn't like that. It's about what I call natural advantages in the market. There are some who have capitalised on their natural advantages. We've capitalised on our location, and so we've done pretty well. We came off a low base a few years ago and started pushing. Our two advantages I suppose are location and the fact that we offer courses that are reputed to be, and I think are, applications oriented.*

**Structures**

Within Australia U, the faculties are highly decentralised. As noted above, ideas and new programs tend to emerge from within the faculty, and the FoB has responsibility for delivery and program quality, albeit subject to oversight from the central management body.
At the central level, Australia U has a Pro Vice-Chancellor (External Affairs), one of the institution’s most senior managers, with overall responsibility for international activities. The Pro Vice-Chancellor has established a university-wide International Affairs Focus Group with the goal of encouraging cross-faculty learning and the sharing of international experience across the institution.

At the level of the FoB, the Dean has overall leadership responsibilities for the faculty. In addition, the FoB International Marketing Manager reports to the Dean, a Dean’s Consultative Committee (DCC) was formed to provide the Dean with advice in relation to all matters dealing with resource allocations. International activities commonly come before the DCC for consideration. Although its members do not vote and the Dean has the power to override the views of the DCC the Dean can use his power and political skills to directly influence the committee. Nonetheless, as one administrator noted, ‘he won’t as a policy do much that the DCC disagrees with’.

Other important elements within the structure include the International Programs Office, which has responsibility for the coordination of international marketing and student recruitment processes, and the Institute for Asian Studies (IAS), an autonomous division established in 1993, now offering almost 30 undergraduate combined degree programs with 23 Asian regional majors. The majority of the 700 students currently enrolled in IAS programs are undertaking business degrees in conjunction with their Asian Studies program.

Although the structure is ‘highly complex and political’, as one senior academic manager noted, and there is a recognition that coordination and control are important, entrepreneurial activities in universities, as elsewhere, are arguably best managed “close to the action”, and this was recognised by the study participants. As one academic noted,

*Whether you centralise it or decentralise it, that’s just a chicken and egg question that every new*
organisation goes through. Can you bureaucratise entrepreneurialism? I don’t know. I’m not sure you can. The other thing is that having your entrepreneurial ideas close to the action, so its really going to be deliberate is probably going to be more effective than having it decentralised.

The structuring of the international activities at Australia U appears reasonably appropriate, according to interviewees. One senior academic manager noted how his division seemed to be situated ‘alongside and with’ the FoB, making cooperation much easier than he had seen at other institutions, while an administrator with responsibility for a key support division noted that the level of significance given to her division within the structure provided greater access to colleagues ‘from the Vice Chancellor down’ than had been expected, and this also was viewed as an improvement on other institutions in which she had worked.

Among the few problems identified in this area, one administrator noted that the entrepreneurial FoB was often frustrated in its pursuit of initiatives by a risk-averse and conservative central university management structure. He noted that this could potentially make a ‘mockery’ of the university’s internationalisation strategy, since entrepreneurialism by its nature required funds, the pursuit of calculated risks, and threats to the status quo. The reason for this conservatism, according to one senior academic manager, related to the fear of litigation amongst senior central managers if problems arose as a result of the activities,

They are more concerned about the threat of litigation than almost anything else and it’s a pity because it mitigates against a culture of creative development.

In relation to decision making within the structure, there was broad agreement with the comments of one academic that the extent to which collegial processes are used depends to a great degree on the stage of
decision making. In terms of broad decisions, these were perceived to be fairly top-down, whilst collegiality tended to occur more in the sense of talking about ‘defined issues but not the whole box and dice’, and with issues that the Dean and others brought to the DCC and similar consultative bodies. A number of staff at lower levels also gave indications of their agreement with this description of the process, and further noted that they believed participation in decision making could be improved between their level and other levels. An additional theme arising was a broad acceptance of the move from collegiality to managerialism in decision making. This perhaps reflected the fact that a business faculty was being studied, for staff in other faculties may not so easily share that view. One academic in the FoB went so far as to call collegial decision making ‘a pain in the arse’, arguing that collegiality is in any event almost impossible in a faculty which is of an equivalent size to many smaller universities.

As for the Faculty’s culture, participants without exception viewed the culture as being entrepreneurial and supportive of innovation and creativity. Some examples include:

\[\text{we are much more entrepreneurial and interesting and exciting and dynamic than they are (the centre) (Senior Academic Manager)}\]

\[\text{The FoB is aware that it is the main drawcard, so they know they need to be at the cutting edge in marketing. (Administrator)}\]

The culture is one which believes in taking calculated risks, and in introducing new programs and activities without full information, an impossible ideal in entrepreneurial management in any event. The risk is arguably lessened since four of the senior managers and administrators studies have extensive corporate experience, both in the international education realm and in international business. One senior administrator previously served as an International Trade Commissioner in several countries for Austrade, the Australian Government’s international trade promotion organisation.
The Dean strongly believes that internationalisation requires a long term, culture shift within the FoB, and his actions attest to this belief in terms of the development, for instance, of world-leading research centres of excellence across a range of business disciplines. The following quote provides a range of insights into the Dean’s philosophy, a philosophy which is clearly having a significant impact on the FoB.

All the places where there’s been heated debates and real strong internal staff reaction have been places in my view where the senior management haven’t done the job in terms of convincing their people that this is a sensible and reasonable thing to do. You can categorise institutions by the ways in which their senior executive interact with these kinds of ideas. Some just say this is what we are going to do and here’s how I am going to do it, and if you don’t like it well, rack off then, put your head down, don’t bother me. Others do it by selling the idea and saying “look, this is really important to the future of the place, and here’s the reasons why I think you ought to buy in and of course you can choose not to, but this is really where I think we should be going and this is vital stuff. You could debate with me - that’s great, let’s talk about it”. That’s a harder role to play, but I think in the long run that’s a more effective role because if you talk about career academics, if that has any meaning, these are the people making 10 or 15 year commitments to this stuff. You don’t learn a language overnight. Internationalisation isn’t a concept that you can take on board like you can learn accrual accounting - you can learn it in a few weeks. You can’t learn internationalisation in a few weeks. It’s a mindset. It’s got culture shift, and if all you are doing is treating it as though it’s learning about accrual accounting, you’ll have about the same impact as you get for teaching that out of context...It’s about changing the nature of the institution and how it thinks about what its mission is, what it’s supposed to be about...It’s a sane, serious shift about the way the whole place is.
This is not to say there are no problems, however, for interviewees constantly noted that problems existed, and that things were not perfect. This is arguably a healthy part of the culture, for it provides a rationale for continued improvement in programs and administration, and serves to remind the members of the FoB that they have a long way to go in achieving their goals. Problems raised included resentment about the large numbers of international students in local classrooms, the personal costs borne by staff in the FoB in accepting almost three-quarters of Australia U’s international student population, and concerns over the quality of offshore programs as they became progressively more localised and moved away from direct Australian control of standards and quality.

Systems

Australia U’s operating systems can be divided into three sub-systems, namely communication, administrative/operational, and rewards.

Communication systems, as noted above, are generally viewed as being adequate, however it was clear that there is a relationship between level of seniority in the organisation and satisfaction with such systems. In particularly, the lower-level administrative staff interviewed expressed a desire to be more regularly included in the “information loop” in terms of broader level issues such as the development of new programs. Nonetheless, these staff also viewed the communication processes as ‘evolving’ with the growth of the FoB, and do believe that they have the opportunity to offer suggestions and send information to senior managers in a bottom-up fashion.

At other levels, information flows were particularly impressive. Senior managers such as the Director, International Programs produce an array of well-structured international reports which provide comprehensive strategic information to other levels of the institution. Inside the Faculty, we viewed several concise yet information-rich documents which guide the activities of groups such as the Dean’s
Consultative Committee.

Similarly, administrative/operational systems were seen to be adequate, but barely so. Improvements to these systems were labelled by one academic as ‘incremental’, and were generally seen to be following strategies in a “catch-up” fashion rather than supporting strategies in a more direct manner. In noting the current development of a new student administrative system, one senior academic manager called the current system ‘hopelessly inadequate’, yet also a reflection of the incrementalist nature by which such systems are generally developed in universities. Several participants stated that the systems did not cater particularly well to international students, however such comments must be placed against the FoB leadership’s philosophy that the aim is to have systems which caters for all students, whether they be local or international.

Mixed responses were received on the issue of reward systems. Two academics gave strong negative views about the rewards for teaching in Malaysia since the university had eliminated daily allowances for academic staff, demanded the keeping of all receipts for reimbursement, and only paid for actual teaching hours. With courses becoming more localised, such rewards were rapidly diminishing. One academic stated that she would continue to participate, but only for the pleasure of travelling to another country, while another made it very clear that he would not be heading back to that part of the world in the foreseeable future,

*We all have things which we want to do, but not getting out of bed on Easter morning at five o’clock to go to the bloody airport, not for a thousand bucks a week!*

Academics seemed to be happier with the arrangements for teaching in Singapore, particularly in terms of the rewards for course development, and considered onshore rewards to be fair and supportive.
At more senior levels, a perception existed that the reward systems were appropriate, although it was commonly admitted that Australia U pitched its remuneration at levels less than those of some competitors. The general view was that Australia U did its academics a favour by allowing them to earn additional remuneration without affecting onshore workloads and salaries. At the administrative level, one staffer pointed to the presence of new carpets and cupboards in the office in which our interview was conducted as evidence that rewards do “trickle down” in some ways to other parts of the organisation!

Learning

Australia U’s FoB has learnt a great deal from its international experiences, both positive and negative. To cite one example, a recently-ended relationship with a United Kingdom university provided a significant learning experience for the Faculty. More than half of all participants mentioned it in response to a general question about organisational learning. It was viewed as the critical dimension in moving the Faculty from reactivity to proactivity in the strategic management of international-entrepreneurial activities. As a senior academic manager stated in relation to this activity,

*It was a disaster, but we learnt an enormous amount from the disaster.*

Among the lessons learnt was the need to target potential partners of a similar calibre to Australia U, and the need to have ‘local champions’ at both sides of the relationship to make it work and ensure continuous communication flows. Additional lessons learnt from experiences in Asia include the need to make a continuing investment in the relationship, particularly in terms of regular flows of staff and information between the partners.

Learning was not perceived to be perfect, however. One senior academic manager pointed to the ‘diffuse’ nature of universities, and the rapid turnover which occurs among university staff. In
comparison to corporations in which he had worked, learning was thus seen to be ‘ragged’, if occurring at all. Similarly, a senior administrator lamented the lack of institutionalisation of past learnings, noting that mistakes should not occur more than once given the presence of structures such as the International Activities Focus Group. He called for more rigour in institutionalising learning throughout the university. In sum, the view of learning was best summarised by one academic who described learning in the FoB as being more like a single-loop process than double-loop learning. A transition to double-loop learning is arguably essential for ensuring that learning is institutionalised both within the FoB and throughout the wider university.

A similar conclusion could be made about the management of quality in international-entrepreneurial programs. Although some interviewees argued that quality processes had been continuously revisited and improved, and were now more systematically managed within the university, few could mention explicit processes by which this occurred. In fact, there was disagreement among some interviewees as to who was responsible for various aspects of quality maintenance and enhancement. In some discipline areas, such as accountancy, the requirements of accrediting bodies were a powerful influence on standards and quality, however Australia U’s formalisation of quality controls appeared to be more ad hoc than that which is occurring in some of its competitors who are moving to seek international accreditation for the quality of their programs.

**Leadership**

A significant factor in the FoB’s management of international-entrepreneurial activities was seen to be the Dean’s leadership of the Faculty. A number of the aspects of his leadership style are evidenced above. While variously described as ‘gung ho’, ‘dynamic’, ‘entrepreneurial’ and ‘a cowboy’, these comments were generally made in the context that such labels could become pejoratives if the Dean did not actually have the ability and competencies to successfully manage the Faculty. It was clear, however,
that these comments were made in a context in which the Dean was perceived to be achieving his goals and driving both the FoB and the broader university in thoughtful, positive directions. As one senior administrator stated,

*his (the Dean’s) personal skills are quite remarkable, and in fact he’s grossly undervalued at the university level. Many people see him as a threat because he is so damned entrepreneurial and he does actually achieve what he sets out to do, in many cases. He’s got about 16 balls in the air and one hand juggling them, and obviously drops a few, but he manages the process well within the confines and constraints of academic, and he has a good international perspective.*

In sum, the FoB is led by a Dean with a vision for the Faculty’s future which is shared broadly throughout the Faculty. He is committed to long-term cultural change, and is implementing the strategies to achieve this, particularly with strategies such as the creation of world-class research centres and an emphasis on language skills and an international perspective among both staff and students. Programs such as the MBA in Mandarin taught in Australia are clearly innovative and successful. He is not a “Dean-God”, however, and this is neither the view of FoB staff, who generally expect to be consulted and have their ideas treated seriously, or the Dean himself, since his creation of entities such as the Dean’s Consultative Committee and positions such as that held by the International Marketing Manager evidences a desire to ensure that a critical mass of expertise and influence is shared among several people.

**Conclusion**

This brings us back to the two questions posed earlier. First, does the management of international-entrepreneurial programs at Australia U’s Faculty of Business reflect the ‘competing on the edge’ building blocks outlined above? The answer appears to be a qualified yes. In competing at the ‘edge
of chaos' in today's businesses, the FoB has developed the kinds of semi-structures seen as critical in this fast moving context. Responsibilities for activities are generally clear, with the exception of responsibility for quality, and real-time communication occurs through the positive relationships within the Faculty between the major "players" in internationalisation. The presence of an adaptive and positive culture has also been noted. Coadaptation through the capture of 'cross-business synergies' is also evident through the formation of groups such as the International Activities Focus Group, although the activities of this group could arguably be tightened and made more rigorous. The advantages of the past are achieved through the regeneration of existing programs which do blend the old and the new. The introduction of the Mandarin MBA is one instance of this, as was the development of a Limited Work Experience MBA, both of which are highly successful. Similar programs are currently being discussed or in development, providing further evidence of a real commitment to regeneration. A commitment to "winning tomorrow today" via experimentation is also in evidence. The UK learning experience is one which interviewees viewed as critical to the success of current strategies, and another example is provided by Australia U’s recent launching of a program which is viewed as strategically important yet which lacked the student numbers initially seen to be a minimum prerequisite for commencing the program. Australia U’s FoB ‘sets the pace’ through an internal time rhythm based on the window of opportunity which they perceive to have if they are to become ‘Australia’s INSEAD’ before INSEAD itself achieves market leadership in the region. Semi-coherent plans for periods of three, five and ten years are used to ensure that a sense of urgency is maintained in achieving the vision, or at least in making progress towards its achievement. Finally, in terms of leadership, the FoB appears to reflect Brown and Eisenhardt’s (1998, p.222) view that the role of the senior executive in dynamic industries has evolved from one of ‘chief strategist’ to that of a ‘synthesiser’ whose key tasks are ‘channelling, synthesising, and articulating the essence of the semicoherent strategic direction that characterises the strategy that emerges as businesses reinvent themselves’. The Dean of Australia U’s Faculty of Business appears to manage in this way to an extent which is arguably uncommon in academe in Australia and elsewhere.
Second, is this model relevant to other universities? The answer is also a qualified yes, for if institutions do wish to grow their international-entrepreneurial programs, and wish to do so in a way that makes these activities consistent with the need for a long-term adaptive and constantly changing organisational culture, then making the most of cross-faculty opportunities, implementing flexible organisational structures, building on successful programs, experimenting along the way, and building in internal metronomes for change would seem to make a good deal of sense.
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