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Globalisation and Its Impact on International University Cooperation

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Abstract

Globalisation is conceptually ambiguous. Not only is it used in contexts such as process, perspective, and outcome, and loosely defined in various dimensions (i.e. political, economic, socio-cultural), it is also commonly mistaken for internationalisation. Although most literature treating globalisation is economic in focus, this study attempts to investigate its ubiquitous nature in an effort to arrive at a more comprehensive understanding of globalisation within the particular domain of higher education. For purposes of this study, globalisation in higher education pertains to a convergence of educational systems and ideals designed to meet the needs of world knowledge (dissemination and pursuit thereof) and societal advancement (civilisation-building). Internationalisation refers to the divergent approaches within the various contexts of that convergence. The analysis of 600 + international university organisations, viewed as outcomes of globalisation, internationalisation, and other spheres of influence, provides tangible evidence of these forces and their impact on higher education, and more particularly, on international university cooperation.

Globalisation and Its Many Forms

Globalisation takes on different forms. Hirst and Thompson's *Globalization in Question* attempts to distinguish globalisation as myth, phenomenon, process, or outcome. Depending on context, the ambiguous and relativistic nature of globalisation may take any of these forms. Hirst and Thompson view globalisation more as myth because of its questionable validity in global leadership consensus, its historical existence prior to the current global economy, and the overestimation that trans-national corporations are beyond being regulated by the nation-state (Hirst and Thompson, 1996; 195).

The regionalisation of global zones, such as the European Union, has been characterised as a form of globalisation, referring to the unification, integration, and harmonisation of a given region. In some cases, the rhetoric of regional unification has been downplayed to minimise dissent while attempting to promote consensus, suggesting that like-minded leaders may respond to similar matters related to nation-state autonomy (neo-populism), but are unwilling to relinquish certain powers for the sake of a region as a collective whole. As a case in point, the Euro has divided the European Union between the EU-11 and the EU-15. Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway, and Switzerland continue to be perceived as part of a 'geographically-bound' Europe, but are not a part of the European Union¹. Eleven countries in Central and Eastern Europe are currently attempting to seek EU membership, and at opposite ends of the spectrum, sanctions imposed on EU Member States (i.e. Austria), suggest that nation-states willing to become part of a greater 'unified' whole may face increased international scrutiny if a national leader's interests may not reflect the interests of the collective. In spite of the complexity behind EU's membership and its promotion of regionalisation, global leadership tends to reflect back to the practical needs of the individual nation-state.

¹ Although the four countries listed are not a part of the European Union, they belong to two separate trading agreements with the EC. They are: The European Economic Area (EEA), which includes the EC, Iceland, Norway, and Liechtenstein; and The European Free Trade Association (EFTA), which includes the EC, Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway, and Switzerland.

Unlike scholars who view global advocates of free trade and economic rationalism (neo-liberals) as taking the credit for establishing globalisation (Held, 1995; Held *et al*, 1999), scholars who embrace a civilisation-in-the-making view, a Darwinian-Hobbesian perspective of evolutionary advancement for the sake of development, see globalisation as a naturally occurring, social reality. The general consensus assumes the notion that one can draw inferences about the historical causality of certain events that have led to the development of globalisation as it exists today.² For neo-realists like Hirst and Thompson, globalisation is viewed at face-value and thus is perceived as failing to measure up to the aggregate of intellectual collective power and applied economics. They tend to acknowledge the disillusionment and disenchantment of those suffering from rising unemployment and an increasingly uncertain---if not volatile---economic future. In sum, perspectives from neo-liberals to neo-realists are extensive, and since they differ in the way they approach globalisation, any analysis requires to take their and other views into account.

One way to attempt to measure globalisation is the analysis of international regulations. The institutionalisation of international regulations set by multi-lateral agencies such as the World Trade Organisation, the International Monetary Fund, and the World Bank are broadly designed to protect the economies of nation-states and other inter-governmental, regional bodies. Their leaders have powers similar to heads of state, and whatever conditions they may place on nation-states for economic or political reasons, their setting of standards and guidelines concerning key international trade and tariffs have a profound influence over them. Influence on trans-national corporations, therefore, tends to exist as long as their respective nation-states comply with the ethical policies and practices of these multi-lateral organisations. The mission of every trans-national corporation, then, is subject to the “global institutionalization of the expectation and construction of local particularism” (Robertson, 1995). However, if the trans-national is located in multiple countries, which is often the case, then it is most likely to side with the nation-state with less regulation. The pyramidal tension from international regulatory agencies to nation-states to trans-national corporations tends to find its only relief in voluntary compliance and cooperation. Although it appears fitting that Hirst and Thompson question the validity of globalisation in terms of regulation, the fact remains that globalisation is ‘a product of human agency’ (Jones, 1999) and is underpinned by political, economic, and socio-cultural dimensions in a time/space continuum.

Globalisation and Its Dimensions

The spatialisation of social theory, from feudalism to capitalism to socialism, indicates a convincing link between the political dimension of globalisation and postmodernity (Featherstone and Lash, 1995; Waters, 1995). Urry refers to this as the ‘centrality of inhuman objects’ that constitute contemporary networks in this post-modern, global era. He states that,

...in four different contexts[:] computer networks, consumerism in Eastern Europe, sociational opposition, and new modes of citizenship, there are powerful new temporal-spatial networks of the human and the inhuman. These new configurations weaken the power of the societal to draw together its citizens as one, to govern in its unique name, to endow all with national identity and to speak with a single voice (Urry, 1998; 14).

² See Appendix 1, Figure 1.3 for an interpretive chronology of the historical evolution of globalisation.

There also exists a connection between the economic dimension of globalisation and capitalism and development. Sklair concedes that as long as the 'culture-ideology of consumerism' subsumes dominance over local cultures and ideologies, "then the realities and illusion of capitalist 'development' will continue to appear to be the only global path to development" (Sklair, 1994; 181). Giddens concurs that a redressing of social democracy is necessary in opposing capitalism as a healthy alternative³ (Giddens, 1999). However, on a theoretical note, the intrinsic nature of human agency and its habitual ways (particularly in regard to consumerism) would have to be altered. This may be possible under certain conditions, but it would nonetheless require a constant stream of elastic adaptation to exponential change and an acceptance of shifting identities. Unfortunately, such ideology fuels variations of utopianism, which in and of itself is controversial. Thurow perhaps provides a more convincing argument of 'things to come', suggesting that capitalism cannot implode like communism did. "Stagnation, not collapse, is the danger" (Thurow, 1996; 325). Although he acknowledges that capitalism must go through a state of metamorphosis in order to prosper, Thurow believes its success will depend on a shift from a 'consumption' to a 'builder's' ideology (Thurow, 1996; 315).

The cultural dimension of globalisation has a rather dark side, as it may underpin the effects of cultural imperialism. Said forewarns about the global effects of cultural imperialism, stating that:

If at the outset we acknowledge the massively knotted and complex histories of special but nevertheless overlapping and interconnected experiences---of women, of Westerners, of Blacks, of national states and cultures---there is no particular intellectual reason for granting each and all of them an ideal and essentially separate status (Said, 1995; 32).

Ian Clark argues that the opposing force to globalisation is fragmentation; a 'dialectical response to globalization', which is 'driven by resistance to the hegemony of [Westernisation] and the spread of modernity' (Clark, 1997; 28). In many ways, fragmentation compels the notion to become more protectionistic, and in certain cases, self-serving. The cultural dissonance, then, of forces such as globalisation and fragmentation make it difficult for much of the world to assimilate into a single, homogenised world. In most cases, such resistance is healthy and encouraged.

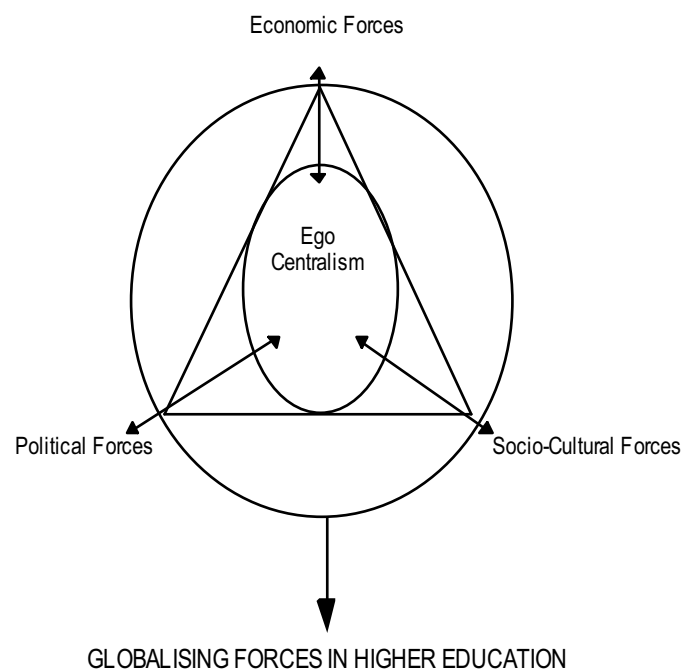
Globalisation and Internationalisation of Higher Education

Within the field of higher education, specifically in comparative and international education, globalisation incorporates the political, economic, and socio-cultural dimensions in an infusion of ideas, people, and resources with the principal aim of disseminating and advancing knowledge in, around, and throughout the world-at-large. In other words, the globalisation of higher education suggests an ideological sense of collective consciousness and action, with the underlying pursuit of cooperation on a worldwide scale to foster, promote, and advocate *veritas* (truth).

³ Giddens' Third Way Programme consists of: the radical centre; the new democratic state (the state without enemies); active civil society; the democratic family; the new mixed economy; equality as inclusion; positive welfare; the social investment state; the cosmopolitan nation; and cosmopolitan democracy (Giddens, 1999; 70).

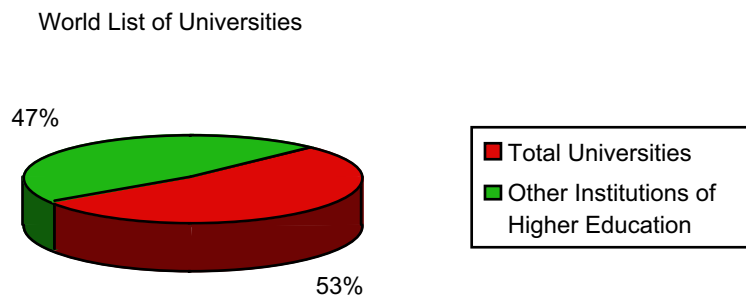
If globalisation of higher education is accepted as a process of convergence, particularly in the systemisation of world knowledge (dissemination and pursuit thereof), then internationalisation may be perceived as its conduit. Internationalisation, as a process of divergence within the convergence of globalisation, however, may also paradoxically go against all sense of economic rationalism, simply to embrace, respect or challenge the values, beliefs, and customs of a unique, but international culture. This suggests that the internationalisation process can sway to and fro, overlapping with globalisation processes, with regional processes of fragmentation, and in certain instances, with both. The outcomes may develop into patterns similar to those of globalisation, which result in increased confusion between terms, but the evolving nature of internationalisation is not necessarily dependent on globalisation. Just because a culture may not necessarily become assimilated into mainstream thought (i.e. the ideology of globalisation), does not imply that it is any less international. Circumstances are often quite the contrary, suggesting conflicting---sometimes hidden---agendas, and may even fuel the fragmentation debate, suggesting that a polarity may exist between globalisation and fragmentation.

Figure 1.2: Theoretical Sketch of Globalising Forces Affecting Higher Education

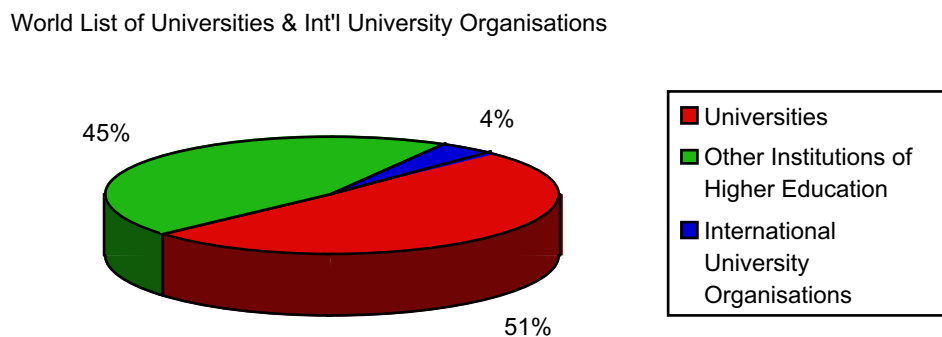


Note: This theoretical construct assumes that the political, economic, and socio-cultural forces compete against one another in an attempt to legitimise their school of reason for the sake of education itself. This does not in any way suggest that one force---or form of reasoning---is better, more dominant, or equivalent to the other forces. Instead, this construct offers the relativistic position that the internal spheres of influence which drive how one perceives oneself and the world around him (Ego-centrism) coupled with external spheres of influence (i.e. political, economic, and socio-cultural forces) comprise elements that make-up globalising forces in higher education. Internationalisation, therefore, is the process that determines the extent to which one acts with---hence, internationalises---one's world. Acts, in this context, are defined as both proactive and reactionary. Further acknowledgement is given to the fact that internationalisation is all but one process in a myriad of proactive and reactionary processes.

The internationalisation process applied to universities refers to the massification of universities in general; the reaching out further afield to increase an institution's influence, visibility, and/or market share on the international scene. According to the International Association of Universities, there are currently 8,022 universities and 7,182 other institutions of higher education in the world⁴.



If the above listing were to include the 635 international university organisations identified in this study, the distribution would appear as follows:



Although the distribution of international university organisations identified represent only 4% of the total amount of institutions of higher education worldwide, their presence suggests an emerging trend toward the internationalisation of higher education.

⁴ Information was compiled from data collected by the International Association of Universities in 1999. The following classification of terms was used to distinguish between types: 1) Universities. The entries comprise all institutions, whether or not they bear the name 'University', which are considered to be of university level in the country concerned. Universities, in general, are degree-granting (tertiary) institutions which conduct some form of research. Satellite campuses or schools which are administratively affiliated with the home university (e.g. off-shore institutions) are also included in this category; and 2) Other Institutions of Higher Education. This category lists all other institutions offering terminal degrees after three to four years of qualified academic study. (Qualified does not necessarily refer to accreditation, but rather to each country's individual recognition of the institution in question.) Independent schools, faculties of theology, and military academies are omitted from this category (World List of Universities, 1997; vi).

History of International University Cooperation

If the definitions of ‘inter-national’ and ‘university’ as we know them at present were relaxed, the origins of international university cooperation---at the least on an informal basis--may be traced back to the ‘peripathetic professor and itinerant scholar’ (Welch, 1997). Confucius, as a case in point, travelled with his students from his homeland Lu Guó to Sung, Wei, Chí, Chên, Tsái, and Chú during his lifetime (551 - 479 BCE) to ‘teach all’, while attempting to seek a civil servant role in government (Jong Guó Da Bai Ke Quan Shu, in Welch and Denman, 1997; 2). During the fourth century, two scholars, St. Basil of Caesarea and St. Gregory Nazianzen, travelled from Cappadocia (Turkey) to Athens (Greece) to study rhetoric between four to eight years abroad (Marrou, 1956; 204).

Universitas, defined initially as a formalised guild or corporation, was first used at the time the University of Bologna, circa 1140, was founded. Emphasis was placed on two transcendental powers, *Sacerdotum*, representing the spiritual loyalty to the Church, and *Imperium*, representing the temporal loyalty to the Holy Roman Emperor that, when combined with advanced learning (*studium*), led to the use of the term "university as [the] manifest expression" (Neave, 1997; 2). However, the inter-connectedness between medieval institutions of higher education were directly related to academic staff who, for whatever reason, would move from place to place to set up their business to teach, with the hope of being taken care of both in terms of finances and of security.

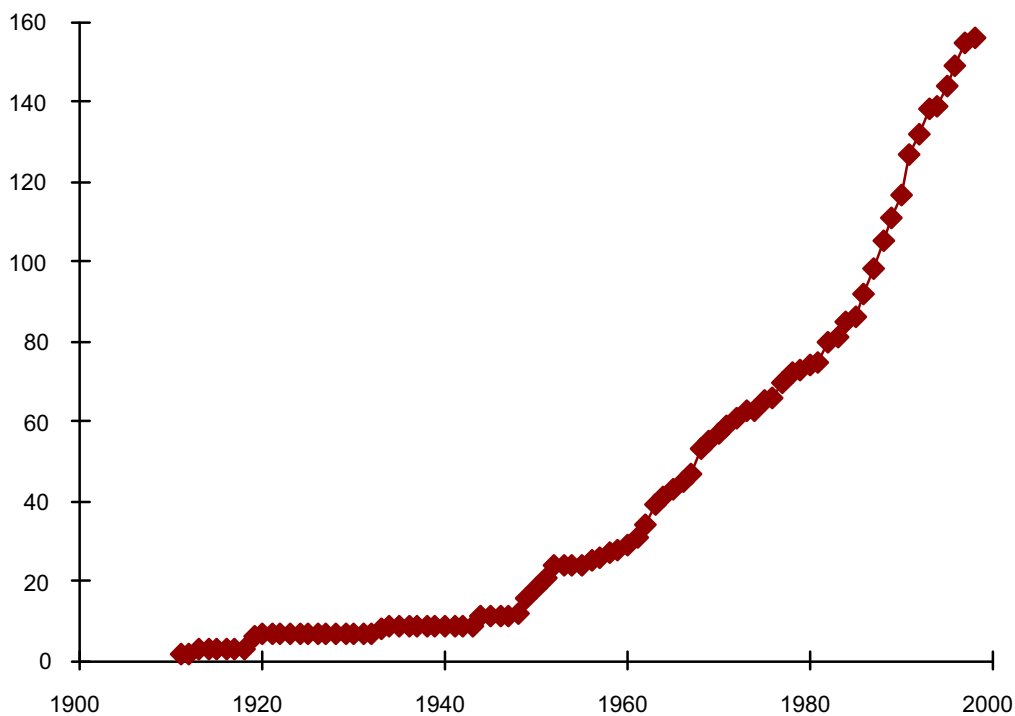
Much of the mass migration of Western Europeans to the New World in the middle of the nineteenth century provided the opportunity for academic staff to take advantage of quality students and research. Wertheimer points out an example where William James (Psychology) indirectly exploited his students to bring the ‘new psychology’ back from Germany to the United States (Michael Wertheimer, 1979; 90). James did this by convincing his own students to study abroad or by going overseas himself to recruit students from abroad to study in the United States. They included: G. Stanley Hall (1844-1924), who studied at Bonn, Berlin, and Leipzig; Edward Wheeler Scripture (1864-1943), who studied with Wundt at Leipzig; Carl Emil Seashore (1866-1949) who was born in Sweden and took his degree under Scripture at Yale; and Hugo Münsterberg (1863-1916) who was brought from Germany to the United States by James to head the experimental laboratory at Harvard.

Colonialism offered the first known wave of formalised inter-institutional partnerships with the formation of the Association of Commonwealth Universities (ACU) in the United Kingdom in 1913. Although the institutional relationships were mostly unilateral, the formation of such partnerships was typically designed in an effort to further develop the colonised area as a political entity or ally.

It was only after World War II that international university cooperation began to take form. Perhaps the first of its kind in the developing world, The Colombo Plan was founded in 1951 to provide developmental assistance in the form of international educational exchange to financially disadvantaged countries. Below is a cumulative growth of international university organisations identified in this study:

Figure 1.1: Cumulative Growth of International University Organisations Identified in this Study

Cumulative Number of Int'l University Organisations per year by Founding Date (int'l consortia, int'l alliances, and int'l agencies)



From the 1980s to present day, the proliferation of international university cooperation has diversified to the extent that a classification of various types can take place. In particular reference to this study, 108 international university organisations of a total of 532 participated in a survey to classify themselves as either international consortia, international alliances, or international agencies. The distribution out of a total response rate of 33.8% is as follows:

| | |
|-------------------------|-----|
| International Consortia | 38% |
| International Alliances | 28% |
| International Agencies | 34% |

International consortia predominately consisted of inter-institutional partnerships with emphasis placed on the academic exchange of students and staff. International alliances were typically represented by either multilateral development organisations (i.e. AMIDEAST, ALO, and UNESCO), university associations (i.e. AUAP, ACU, CRE, and IAU), member-based higher educational associations (i.e. EAIE, NAFSA, and IDP), or unions, councils and coalitions. International agencies were comprised mainly of inter-governmental (i.e. OECD/CERI, IREX, and various Rectors' Conference Organisations), organisations that focussed on particular disciplines or causes (i.e. International Union Against Cancer and International Astronomical Union), unilateral business-type exchange operators and consultants (i.e. School for International Training and Consultants for Global Programs), intellectual or philanthropic think tanks (i.e. Soros Foundation, Reuters Foundation, Foundation for Educational Exchange), and world universities (i.e. United Nations University and European University).

The formation of these organisations has become of increasing interest to governments (i.e. international, national, and local), to businesses (i.e. trans-national), and to higher educational institutions themselves, since many benefits have been anticipated by their formation. The following summarises the influences government, business, and higher education have recently had on international university cooperation.

Links to Government

The emergence of trans-regional educational exchange schemes⁵ (Denman, *forthcoming*) may have some correlation to the development of regionalised free trade agreements in certain parts of the world. Although the European Community (EC), the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), and the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC), did not initially recognise the need for education in their statutes, all began with idealistic notions to develop socio-economic standards and quality-of-life objectives within their respective regions.

ERASMUS, the European Community programme for the mobility of students and for cooperation in higher education, was adopted in 1987 to initially serve the EC by providing financial support to EC universities and to award certain travel and study grants to EC students and academic staff. It has led to the formation of other international university organisations that go beyond the EU region. TEMPUS (Phare and Tacis), as a case in point, was established to develop formalised institutional linkages with those in Eastern Europe. The lesser known America Latina Formacion Academica (ALFA) was developed to offer opportunities for South American students to study in the EC through its historical connection with Spain and Portugal.

The development of building a tri-lateral partnership between Canada, the US, and Mexico, beginning with the conference at Wingspread in 1993, was related to the heady anticipation of NAFTA. The main objective of NAFTA was to provide a framework for managing the process of economic integration that was already in progress between the three countries. Building on an earlier free trade agreement between Canada and the United States, NAFTA was implemented in 1994, with the understanding that its provisions would gradually take force over fifteen years. Despite the fact that higher education was not included in these provisions, senior government officials from the three nations have met regularly to discuss the 'education implications of economic integration' (Weber, 1998; 9).

In the Asia and Pacific region, APEC Study Centres and UMAP have identified a number of organisations in the region that are committed to fostering further international ties, with the emphasis on developing Asia and the Pacific as a formidable trading zone. FitzGerald believes that Australia is attempting to align itself with its Asian neighbors in an attempt to accelerate the regionalisation of the area as a consequence of globalisation (FitzGerald, 1997). Of particular relevance to the Australia/Asia partnership is the continuation of twinning programmes⁶. Also known as a type of offshore scheme, twinning programmes have been the backbone to furthering institutional ties between Australia and Southeast Asia in particular. Yet, at this writing, twinning programmes along with other forms of offshore delivery, are fueling concerns that education is being commodified, spurring fierce competition between countries to attract or retain students. In some instances, the

⁵ See Appendix 1, Figure 1.4 for a list of trans-regional educational exchange schemes.

⁶ See Appendix 1, Figure 1.5 for listings of twinning and distance learning programs in Australia.

development of twinning and other offshore programs of Australia have had negative repercussions in foreign relations. As Caston articulates,

...such mass movement of students seeking their education in other countries because of perceived deficiencies of places or quality in their own universities cannot really be seen as 'international co-operation'; it is more like competition, and indeed the University of the South Pacific complains about Australian universities unfairly attracting many of the best students from its countries, often with scholarships paid for with government aid funds (Caston, 1996; 6).

In spite of these negative repercussions, governments at all levels are advocating the need for equal access to knowledge, expertise, and resource materials, and as such, have been striving for improved literacy and mass deliveries of education within their territorial jurisdictions. Multi-lateral organisations such as UNESCO and the OECD are recognising the need to offer education in the world where demand exceeds supply, particularly but not exclusively in the developing world, and are reconstituting their organisational strategies in behalf of a universal 'education for all' type mission⁷. The OECD, for example, recognises that the complementarity of universally accessible and high quality education are mutually reinforcing, suggesting that human capital theory is currently being revitalised under the 'new capitalism' as the dominant influence upon the world (Cox, 1996; 534).

Links to Business

Transnational corporations are heavily involved in globalisation issues, since they determine the extent to which they invest in risk management in terms of resources, staff, and time spent overseas. The more a company invests in its business transactions overseas, the more it is required to reciprocate by investing its interests in the host country (Tahija, 1993). This may be done by sponsoring schools in the local community or providing education to develop certain work competencies for the business enterprise located overseas. Not only is the development of education and work competencies advantageous to good business practices in the long run, but it also offers altruistic dividends in the short term. The cancellation of debt in return for education and training has also played an increasing role in the re-conceptualisation of international assistance in the developing world⁸. Although the building of infrastructure---airports, railroads, roads, harbors, power lines---and the implementation of quality compliance (i.e. environmental protection) encourage local economic activity, perhaps the greatest need of all is the transfer of human skills and competencies to the host culture.

⁷ The most notable organisations involved in the mission, **education for all**, are: UNESCO's Asia-Pacific Programme of Education for All (APPEAL)(founded November 1986); UNESCO's Regional Resource Centre in Distance Education (founded in July 1988); OECD's International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP); and OECD's Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (CERI).

⁸ Transnational corporations generally contend that ownership in the development of a region must be two-sided. Some believe that, as a result of increased business activity overseas, international developmental aid has shifted to developmental cooperation. Although there is some merit in this assertion, Tahija contends that the 'colonial mentality' of many transnational executives often creates a barrier in fostering cooperation (Tahija, 1993). "Improving U.S. Competitiveness: Swapping Debt for Education", was a 1988 report to the US Secretary of Commerce, recommending how the Department of Commerce could facilitate use of third-world debt held by US banks to finance on-the-scene study by American students. Although the report's recommendations were not approved, the report helped set the impetus for debtor nations to encourage education for the cancellation of debt. As recently as the World Congress on Higher Education (July 1997), The Philippine Commission on Higher Education called for the establishment of a swapping-debt-for-education policy.

Microsoft and Motorola, as a case in point, have recently gone to the extent of forming their own institutions of higher learning in developing countries, not necessarily because they are conducting business in those areas, but because there is a strong student demand in the local communities for highly skilled and extremely **versatile** workers. Some institutions of higher learning have also become involved---particularly in developing countries---and instead of the student travelling from afar to get an education, entrepreneurial universities are building satellite campuses in host countries to bring the institution to the student⁹.

Distance education¹⁰, utilising the latest technology in telecommunications, provides accredited and non-accredited degree programs to students who never set foot on the home campus. Although it is acknowledged that distance education is only peripherally related to international education, in that distance learning may take place beyond national borders, the fact is that it is **virtual, not actual**. The internet, for those in the world who use it---let alone those who have access---has also created the opportunity to create the paperless office and is, by default, prompting university academic staff to offer their lectures on-line. Even libraries are pressured to digitalise their inventory of publications. Although governments on all levels are encouraging the use of distance education to improve equal opportunity and access at all levels of society, most distance learning providers currently subsidise their services by 'user-pay' principles, which limit delivery to only those who can afford it, who have an interest, and who have access. As an example, access to libraries worldwide is becoming increasingly difficult, particularly for non-citizens and non-residents. In many parts of the world, visiting scholars need special passes to acquire access to libraries and utilise their services. Despite the fact that efforts are being made to digitalise references, publications, periodicals and the such, it remains to be seen how accessible this information will be in the future. At this writing, the Internet only provides basic information as to where one can find materials requested.

Although many distance education providers are non-profits (i.e. Western Governors' University), it can be argued that the mode of delivery is still largely tuition-based. In Canada, current research indicates that student interest in distance education is less than previously thought, sparking concerns that if there is no student demand, then the supply of distance education will falter. Finally, much of the developing world does not presently have the adequate infrastructure in place to meet the demands of distance education delivery, particularly computer-based technology.

⁹ International universities cannot do this without substantial financial risk. As in the case for Monash University, Australia, which has recently built a university in Malaysia, university administrators are taking advantage of the Malaysian government's *Bumiputras* policy (an affirmative action policy for ethnic Malays, trans-literated as 'sum of the soil')---which gives ethnic Malayas preference over other ethnic groups regarding university placement. Malaysia is one of many countries where there is not enough physical space in Malaysian universities to matriculate *all* qualified students. Monash and other universities---predominately Anglophone---are building institutions abroad in Malaysia with the hope of matriculating large groups of Chinese and Indian Malays, who for whatever reason, are unwilling to travel to Australia or other English-speaking countries to study. Cost factors such as travel and living expenses are major reasons, but the unwillingness may also have to do with security and family concerns. The Malaysian government has legal jurisdiction over such foreign universities, which adds further concern about institutional autonomy and quality control. As de Vries and Fisher have discovered, "...in some other countries the national government decided to convert the legal basis for capital works slightly and create off campus autonomy so that institutions could cash assets under limited conditions. All these creative efforts are examples of the strive to acquire tertiary education facilities which remain out of reach under traditional allocation rules" (de Vries and Fisher, 1997; 141).

¹⁰ Many scholars contend that distance education should be classified as trans-national. In this study, distance education is regarded as peripheral to the internationalisation process, in that it is viewed as a supplementary mode of educational delivery and not as an alternative.

Parenthetically, the apparent priorities of multilateral organisations such as the OECD, acting in the interests of its member states and of the greater world community, may become increasingly contentious, if they act on issues that go beyond their membership. Globalisation is accentuating these conflicts of interest. In spite of the disparity between and conflicting interests among governments, businesses, and higher education institutions, the financial rewards for developing different modes of higher educational delivery overseas appear to be what drives the international sale of international education. According to Dunning, 50 to 55 percent of all foreign direct investment in 1992 was in the tertiary (service) sector (Dunning in Ohiorhenuan, 1988; 10).

Links to Higher Education

The massification of higher education, which began in the 1960s, provided incentive for higher educational institutions to take charge of their individual destiny by implementing their own international initiatives. Many, if not most international university organisations, were formed out of sheer determination on the part of their founders to maintain a sense of institutional control and to pursue the development of their own unique organisational identity, usually in the form of niche markets. Others regard the development of their international university organisations as their only means for survival, whether that may relate to culture, language, or special ‘localised’ interest. Whatever the differences, the vast majority of international university organisations sponsored solely by institutional members typically have very limited resources, and as such, are constantly having to concern themselves with sustainable financing. Funding cutbacks have usually resulted in tuition increases, decreased services in international education programs and services, attrition of faculty appointments and replacements (unless otherwise needed for core academic courses), and restricted guidelines governing and limiting monies available for international research and travel.

The university at present has transformed itself into a power-broker with institutional policies and practices which help maintain a certain mode of control and ownership from student recruitment and assessment to faculty instruction and degree recognition. In many ways, it has become a business, and as such, the mentoring bonds between teachers and students are becoming less consistent. The enforcement of certain guidelines to maintain and preserve the institution’s integrity and, perhaps more importantly, to streamline procedures to educate as many students as possible are the underlying causes. The international sale of higher education, including international education, has provided impetus for the institution to compete for students and staff for some measure of profitability, and in certain instances, has caused it to shift from civic responsibility to business opportunity.

These significant influences detailed above are clearly forces that are helping form and legitimise the existence of international university organisations¹¹. First, there continue to be teacher-student relationships that take advantage of personal faculty networks worldwide for study, research, and the general sharing of knowledge. Second, there are institutions that are creating their own inter-institutional partnerships to expand their market share, to consolidate costs by sharing resources, or to seek some tangible---often financial---benefit. Finally, there are free-standing organisations which are separate from academic institutions but nonetheless serve them in various capacities. These types of inter-institutional organisations are served by agreements, which can be further explained as follows:

¹¹ See Appendix 1, Figure 1.6 for examples of international university cooperation, specifically between international consortia, international alliances, and international agencies in higher education.

Informal agreements

collegial linkages between individual academic staff and relate to particular scholarly activities within a specific discipline or concentrated area study. The informal agreements are set up for partner institutions to collaborate primarily on teaching, which involves educational exchange, internationalising curricula, and joint research. Collaboration may vary considerably, but because of their informal status, such partnerships are constantly vying for visibility, recognition, and financial assistance within their own institutions¹². In some instances, informal agreements develop from collegial relationships for grant-seeking initiatives which may require financial leveraging from the institutions involved. Otherwise, they need to be financially self-supporting. The strength of informal agreements is found in their limited administrative bureaucracy, since such partnerships usually consist of only two to three inter-institutional linkages.

Formal agreements

inter-institutional linkages, the majority of which consist of two institutions---but are not limited to just two---are integrated into the administration of the institutions involved. They are designed to promote specific international activities which enhance institutional visibility, but a large proportion of activity tends to focus on the non-academic, operational aspects of the partnerships, such as the smooth transfer of admissions, financial aid, student support, academic credit, and degree requirements. Most cooperative arrangements between institutions are formalised by memoranda of understanding, which are negotiated at institutional levels and signed by senior leaders of the institutions concerned. Formal agreements tend to be monitored centrally by academic affairs departments of the institutions involved, since admission, assessment, and curricula requirements require periodic review to maintain academic standards. The strengths of formalised agreements tend to provide a sense of security for parents and students in the easy transfer of degree-seeking requirements and a sense of familiarity, because the majority of formalised agreements permit larger groups of students from the home institution to study together in one of the host institutions.

Consortial agreements

consortial linkages between three or more institutions, some of which require an organisational hub to organise, develop, and maintain the linkages among partners which benefit from the mutual relationship. Consortial agreements may mirror both informal and formal agreements in terms of focus and priorities, but are extended networks that include three or more institutions which cooperate internationally on various academic and non-academic levels. Cooperation is the operative word, since consortial agreements attempt to harness the strengths of individual institutions, which help to maximise performance and maintain academic standards. The distinctive qualities of consortial agreements, however, tend to highlight the administrative consolidation of costs and resources, which help minimise the duplication of efforts and streamline procedures. Consortial agreements also tend to promote the greatest amount of flexibility in developing interdisciplinary studies, but they also require a great amount of effort. Inter-

¹² A feasibility study was conducted in Europe to ascertain the needs for the establishment of the University of the Peoples of Europe. In discerning mono-disciplinary cooperative arrangements between the University and other partner institutions, it was determined that incentives for growth had to involve the prospect of enhanced status in the eyes of students and staff, a competitive stance with other like-minded organisations, and a minimal financial outlay (Neave, 1991; 103).

institutional consensus, commitment to and maintenance of the agreement, and active participation are necessary to keep consortial agreements in good working order.

Conclusion

The links between government, business, and higher education play a major role in the globalisation, and hence, in the internationalisation of higher education. Although conceptual and empirical constructs may attempt to infer causal relationships between processes (globalisation and internationalisation) and outcomes (international university cooperation), the vast array of worldwide educational systems, contexts, and culture-specific issues make it difficult to confirm any linearity. Hegemonic struggles for power and autonomy, freedom of access, and the unequal basis on which individuals, groups, and nations participate in, and make, history may compound---even distort---the pursuit towards greater international cooperation.

In sum, the current international climate has led many institutions of higher education:

- 1) to cooperate and/or collaborate with other institutions of higher education to enhance, enrich, and diversify the academic programs, initiatives, and resources to students and staff; and
- 2) to cooperate in an effort to compete for economic diversification, gain, recognition, and sustainability.

As international university cooperation continues to be seen as promoting further cooperation, it will inevitably fall on governments, businesses, and higher education institutions of the world to develop coherent and coordinated international education strategies for equal opportunity, access, and collaboration. Sustaining the activities of these organisations will also be crucial, but if it is left to higher education alone to finance, staff, and provide the resources necessary for their survival, the following consequences may be expected:

- that most institutions may become more fragmented and less focussed on a well-rounded education in their approaches to higher learning;
- that academic integrity and accountability may be compromised when weighed against the pro's and con's of short-term, financially rewarding programs and initiatives;
- that many institutions may be required by society to be all things to all people without the necessary resources, or conversely, that they become highly selective and elitist; and
- that academic staff and personnel may become reluctant or unable to adapt to the changing tide of curricula development, to a cross-fertilization of ideas, concepts, and theories, as well as to a new student body.

Figure 1.3: Interpretive Chronology of the Historical Evolution of Globalisation

| | |
|--|--|
| Assyro-Babylonian (a.k.a. Akkadian) Language (c. 1950 BCE) | - the oldest known member of the Semitic languages, which, at the time of the breakup of the Sumer empire, was widely used throughout Mesopotamia by Babylonians, Sumerians, Elamites, Guti, Lullians, and Hurrians. During the Old Babylonian period (c. 1950-1500 BCE), Akkadian dialect was used as the first known diplomatic and commercial lingua franca. ¹³ |
| Confucius (Kung, Fu Tse) (551 - 479 BCE) | - master teacher from Lu Guó who travelled to the nation states of Sung, Wei, Chí, Chên, Tsái, and Chú to <i>teach all</i> , while attempting to seek civil service (Jong Guó Da Bai Ke Quan Shu 1992: 42). China became unified under dynastic rule in 221 BCE. |
| The Sophists (fifth C BCE) | - peripatetic teachers who travelled throughout the Greek-speaking world to seek payment for giving their lessons. “The Sophists...often concentrating on rhetoric and political education, plied their trade widely, basing this peripatetic lifestyle on the view that arete (moral perfection) could be taught [and], at least implicitly, training, argument and education could take place anywhere, dependent only on a master and interested students” (Welch 1997: 3). |
| Alexander the Great (336-323 BCE) | - Graeco-Macedonian king who conquered much of the civilised world during his time. “From Alexander onward, all the civilized states of Europe and Asia were empires, embracing populations of infinitely mixed origin. European civilization and all of the political units belonging to it have remained international or, more precisely, inter-tribal ever since” (Popper 1966: 50) |
| Xenophon’s <i>Cycropaedia</i> (539 CE) | - first published manual of empire citizenship, based on the biography and psychagogy of Cyrus the Great. Despite the contradiction between ‘empire’ and ‘citizenship’, “...the matter of empire citizenship, which concerned the Persians, today concerns those who, in Siberia and Catalonia and other places, desperately hope that being subject to foreign rule is compatible with being citizens of their own country” (Petersen 1996: 35-6) |
| Ptolemy, Claudius (circa 150 CE) | - astronomer who, in Alexandria, Egypt, determined that the earth is round, motionless, and centre of the universe. “The revival of Ptolemy’s 2nd-century AD geographical mapping in terms of co-ordinates of latitude and longitude created the possibility of both a cartographic and a spherical representation of global space” (Holton 1998: 34) |

¹³ Information was obtained from “Assyro-Babylonian Language,” Microsoft(R) Encarta(R) 97 Encyclopedia. (c) 1993-1996 Microsoft Corporation. Contributed by Edmund I. Gordon. The Bible too refers to a common language in Genesis 11. “And the whole earth was of one language, and of one speech. And it came to pass, as they journeyed from the east, that they found a plain in the land of Shi’nâr [Babylon]; and they dwelt there” (The Holy Bible, King James Version, Genesis 11:1-2: 15).

| | |
|---|---|
| Ancient Stoics (circa 1431 CE) | - peoples who were the first to conceive of themselves as citizens of the world (Baldwin 1993: 11) |
| Copernicus, Nicolas (1473-1543 CE) | - German astronomer who determined earth is a moving planet. “Technically, and if one assumes that globalization is at least partly a reflexive process, globalization could not begin until that time [fifteenth and sixteenth centuries], because it was only the Copernican revolution that could convince humanity that it inhabited a globe...So the globalization process that is of most interest here is that associated with modernization” (Waters 1995: 4) |
| Columbus (1492 CE) and da Gama (1497-8 CE) | - European explorers of the New World. “...Europeans began to exert an influence on the rest of the world and implant their cultural institutions on all continents. The acquisition of a world view by Europeans produced as its long-term outcome the world’s first truly global culture” (Spybey 1996: 1) |
| Drake (1580 CE) & Cook (1768 - 1778 CE) | - English explorers who indirectly helped establish the makings of an English-speaking world, <i>a mare usque ad mare</i> (from sea to sea). - colonialisation of the British Empire (United Kingdom; Ireland; Scotland; Wales; Canada; Bermuda; Guyana; Gambia; Ghana; Sierra Leon; Nigeria; Sudan; Uganda; Kenya; Tanzania; Zambia; Namibia; Republic of South Africa; Botswana; Rhodesia (Zimbabwe); India; Bangladesh; Pakistan; Brunei; Falklands; Papua New Guinea; Australia; New Zealand) |
| The French Revolution (1789-1799 CE) | - the French revolution conferring full political rights on the 'citoyens', the members of the polity, but not always requiring that they also be citizens of France |
| Irish famine (1845); Britain’s Corn Laws (1846); Submarine telegraph cable under the English Channel (1851) | - free trade era emerging as a result of the Industrial Revolution. “Yet the really big leap to more globally integrated commodity and factor markets took place in the second half of the century. By 1914, there was hardly a village or town anywhere on the globe whose prices were not influenced by foreign capital, whose engineering, manufacturing, and even business skills were not imported from abroad, or whose labor markets were not influenced by the absence of those who had emigrated or by the presence of strangers who had immigrated” (O’Rourke and Williamson 1999: 1-2) |
| 1880s | - mass migration from Europe to North America and Australia; national economic interests demanded protection and a new wave of nationalism emerged in European politics |
| 1884 | - establishment of worldwide time zones with the standardisation of the prime meridian (Greenwich, UK) as |

the first junction point to determine the correct time in other parts of the world¹⁴

before 1914

- passports not required in Europe outside Russia

1930s

- Great Depression and WWII solidifying the existence of immigration control, passports, and control of citizenship (Hammar 1986: 737).

Note: This rather simplistic illustration above demonstrates how certain events in the history of the world have led to the culmination of globalisation in its present-day context. The periodisation CE (Current Era) and BCE (Before the Current Era) are used throughout this study unless specified otherwise.

¹⁴ The French were an exception to this, who persisted with their own time standard until 1911.

Figure 1.4: Trans-Regional Educational Exchange Schemes (former & current)¹⁵

European Community (EC)

- SOCRATES European Community action programme in the field of education
- The SOCRATES programme supports European cooperation through ERASMUS (higher education), COMENIUS (school education), LINGUA (promotion of language learning), open and distance learning, adult education, and exchange on information and experience on education systems
- ERASMUS European Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students
- This is the higher education section of the European Community action programme in the field of education "SOCRATES". It is currently open to 29 countries: the EC 15; the EEA Member States; and associated countries (Bulgaria, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, Slovak Republic, and Slovenia). The scheme offers financial support to universities for inter-university cooperation programmes (ICPs); mobility grants to students; and grants to staff in higher education. From 1987 to 1999, 640,000 students and more than 20,000 teachers have participated in SOCRATES/ERASMUS mobility projects.
- LEONARDO Action programme for the implementation of a European Community vocational training policy
- a newly formed joint framework of objectives to promote the coherent development of vocational training in the EC and serve as a reference for the policies conducted by the EC 15; the EEA Member States; and associated countries (Bulgaria, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, Slovak Republic, and Slovenia). LEONARDO is the consolidation of previous action plans: COMETT, PETRA, FORCE, and EUROTENET (1995-1999) and is currently undergoing scrutiny for poor leadership.
- TEMPUS Trans-European Cooperation Scheme between the EC and the CIS (PHARE)(TACIS)
- action plans to contribute to the restructuring of higher education, to the development of teaching capacities, and to sharing positive models, projects, and initiatives to institutions in 26 eligible Phare (Central and Eastern Europe) and Tacis countries (CIS Countries and Mongolia)
- NARIC Network of National Academic Recognition Information Centres
- This network is part of the European Community's ERASMUS/SOCRATES programme, which aims to provide information on and about the academic recognition of diplomas in EC Member States as well as to look at ways to improve their transferability. The recent signing of the Bologna Declaration commits to achieve greater compatibility and comparability in higher education in the eligible 29 countries over the next ten years.

North America (NAFTA)

Trilateral Task Force on North American Collaboration in Higher Education

- established in 1992 at Wingspread, the task force focussed on identifying five interrelated issues of common interest: mobility of students and faculty; networking and the impact of information management technologies on human resource development; strategic partnerships; faculty and institutional development; and leveraging of resources

North American Distance Education and Research Network (NADERN)

- a defunct consortium that was established in 1993 to attempt to facilitate access to information and to support education, research and training among participating institutions

North American Mobility in Higher Education (NAMHE)

¹⁵ It is apparent that both North America and the Austral-Asian region have not secured formalised schemes in the way that Europe has. This may have more to do with competition than cooperation in North America, and the inter-relationship of collegiality in Asia, suggesting a possible socio-cultural distinction for each. There are many international consortia that have formed in both regions from a bottom top institutional approach via academic staff involvement to a centralised, independent organisation that manages its institutional members in an administrative hub fashion. The majority of the above organisations in North America and Austral-Asia have some vested interest in becoming the flagship educational exchange scheme for that region from an institutionalised top bottom approach.

- an initiative of the Institute of International Education, but funded on a national level by the USIA University Affiliations Program, and later by the Canadian Department of External Affairs and the General Directorate for Higher Education in Mexico
- Regional Academic Mobility Program (RAMP)
- another initiative of the Institute of International Education, but funded on a national level by the USIA University Affiliations Program, and later by the Canadian Department of External Affairs and the General Directorate for Higher Education in Mexico

Asia and Pacific Region

Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC Study Centres Consortium)¹⁶

- under the Human Resources Development Working Group, the United States sponsored the APEC Partnership for Education in 1992 to promote university partnerships. It evolved into APEC Study Centres which now concentrates primarily in private sector training within Member States through the exchanges of students and faculty.

University Mobility in Asia and the Pacific (UMAP)

- The Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee (AVCC) established UMAP in 1991 to promote discussion on educational cooperation in the region. The program has since helped encourage governments within the region to support the participation of students and academic staff in UMAP programs. Currently, UMAP activities are jointly coordinated by the AVCC and the Japan Association of National Universities.

Sources: EAIE Newsletter, no. 14, (April 1994) for European Community; The Chronicle of Higher Education, July 9, 1999; A43; <http://www.europa.eu.int/>; US Department of State Dispatch, vol. 4, no. 48, (November 29, 1993); North American Higher Education Cooperation: Implementing the Agenda. A report on the international symposium on higher education and strategic partnerships. Worldstat International Inc., Ontario, 1993; Malo, Salvador, (1998). Vancouver Five Years Later. Paper presented at the CONAHEC conference in Vancouver, Canada; UMAP brochure, (August 1997); and <http://econgeog.misc.hit-u.au.jp/umap/index.html>

¹⁶ For further information on APEC Study Centres Consortium, please see the following website: <http://www.apecsec.org.sg/workgroup/study.html>.

Figure 1.5: List of Twinning Programmes (AVCC, February 1998)

| <u>Twining Arrangement by Institution</u> | <u>Country</u> |
|---|------------------|
| Deakin/Capital University of Economics/CICPA/ASCPA | China (PRC) |
| LTU/East China Normal University | China (PRC) |
| LTU/Shanghai Second Polytechnic University | China (PRC) |
| LTU/Shanghai University | China (PRC) |
| LTU/Yunnan Polytechnic University | China (PRC) |
| LTU/Yunnan University | China (PRC) |
| LTU/Zhejiang University of Technology | China (PRC) |
| Monash/Shanghai Industrial Management Training Centre | China (PRC) |
| RMIT/Shanghai Institute of Foreign Trade | China (PRC) |
| RMIT/Wuhan Yeijin University of Science and Technology | China (PRC) |
| UNSW/Guangzhou University | China (PRC) |
| USouth Australia/Yantai University | China (PRC) |
| VictoriaU/Shenzhen University | China (PRC) |
| UQueensland/Narvosa Agricultural College | Fiji |
| UWS/Fiji School of Medicine | Fiji |
| ACU/Caritas Institute for Further and Adult Education | Hong Kong, China |
| Curtin/Chartered Institute of Bankers | Hong Kong, China |
| Curtin/Hong Kong Management Association | Hong Kong, China |
| Curtin/Informatics | Hong Kong, China |
| Curtin/Open Learning Institute | Hong Kong, China |
| Curtin/University of Hong Kong | Hong Kong, China |
| Deakin/Caritas Francis Hsu College | Hong Kong, China |
| JCU/Skelter Enterprises Ltd | Hong Kong, China |
| LTU/Asia Pacific Management Institute | Hong Kong, China |
| LTU/Chinese University of Hong Kong | Hong Kong, China |
| Macquarie/Hong Kong Institute of Bankers | Hong Kong, China |
| Macquarie/Hong Kong Management Association | Hong Kong, China |
| Monash/Chinese University of Hong Kong | Hong Kong, China |
| Monash/University of Hong Kong | Hong Kong, China |
| Murdoch/HR Education Group | Hong Kong, China |
| RMIT/Hong Kong Arts Centre | Hong Kong, China |
| RMIT/Hong Kong Baptist University | Hong Kong, China |
| RMIT/Hong Kong Management Association | Hong Kong, China |
| RMIT/Superguide Consultants Ltd | Hong Kong, China |
| Flinders/China Business Centre | Hong Kong, China |
| UNE/Caritas Hong Kong | Hong Kong, China |
| UNE/Chinese University of Hong Kong | Hong Kong, China |
| UBallarat/Po Leung Kuk Vicwood Chong Sixth Form College | Hong Kong, China |
| UBallarat/United Institute of International Education | Hong Kong, China |
| USouth Australia/Asia Pacific Management Centre | Hong Kong, China |
| USouth Australia/Hong Kong Baptist University | Hong Kong, China |
| UWS/Asia Pacific Management Institute | Hong Kong, China |
| UWS/Hong Kong Baptist University | Hong Kong, China |
| UWS/Hong Kong Polytechnic University | Hong Kong, China |
| UWS/Management Learning Ltd | Hong Kong, China |
| VictoriaU/Asian Institute of Higher Education | Hong Kong, China |
| VictoriaU/Media Education Services | Hong Kong, China |
| VictoriaU/University of Hong Kong | Hong Kong, China |
| Wollongong/Asian Institute of Higher Education | Hong Kong, China |
| Wollongong/Mass Transit Railway Corporation - Hong Kong | Hong Kong, China |
| Wollongong/Open Learning Institute | Hong Kong, China |
| Curtin/Stimik Aki College | Indonesia |
| Monash/Institut Pengembangan Manajemen Indonesia | Indonesia |
| Monash/UniSadhuGuna, Jakarta | Indonesia |
| Murdoch/Singapore National Employer's Federation | Indonesia |
| RMIT/Lembaga Pendid dan Pengembangan Profesi Indonesia | Indonesia |
| SUT/Yayasan Pendidikan Pramita, Jakarta | Indonesia |

| | |
|---|-----------|
| UNSW/Institut Teknologi Bandung | Indonesia |
| UNSW/Uni SadhuGuna | Indonesia |
| UNSW/University of Indonesia | Indonesia |
| UTamania/IKIP Padang | Indonesia |
| UTS/University of Indonesia | Indonesia |
| UWS/PT Surveyor | Indonesia |
| Wollongong/PT Krakatau Steel | Indonesia |
| SUT/Israel School of Enterprise Management and Innovation | Israel |
| RMIT/Japanese Chiropractic Association | Japan |
| Macquarie/Australian Business Centre, Tokyo | Japan |
| UTS/Ministry of Defence, Naval School | Kuwait |
| UTS/Ministry of Education, Lao | Laos |
| Curtin/ITC Management Centre | Malaysia |
| Curtin/IT Mara | Malaysia |
| Curtin/Kolej Bandar Utama | Malaysia |
| Curtin/Limkokwing Institute of Creative Technology | Malaysia |
| Curtin/Mara Institute of Technology | Malaysia |
| Curtin/Metropolitan College | Malaysia |
| Deakin/Disted College | Malaysia |
| Deakin/Limkokwing Institute of Creative Technology | Malaysia |
| Deakin/Kolej Komuniti Mertajam | Malaysia |
| Deakin/Stamford College | Malaysia |
| ECU/Institute Teknologi Mara | Malaysia |
| ECU/Kolej Damansara Utama | Malaysia |
| ECU/Stamford College | Malaysia |
| Griffith/HELP Institute | Malaysia |
| Griffith/Kolej Antarabangsa Berjaya | Malaysia |
| LTU/Kolej Komuniti Mertajam | Malaysia |
| LTU/Maktab Sains MARA Trolak | Malaysia |
| Monash/Asia Pacific Institute for Information Technology | Malaysia |
| Monash/Sunway College | Malaysia |
| Murdoch/Kolej Damansara Utama | Malaysia |
| NTU/Kolej TAFE | Malaysia |
| QUT/Inti College, Kuching | Malaysia |
| QUT/Maktab Sains MARA Trolak | Malaysia |
| QUT/Premier College | Malaysia |
| QUT/Crossfields Asia-Pacific Pte Ltd | Malaysia |
| RMIT/Adorna Institute of Technology | Malaysia |
| RMIT/Linkokwing Institute of Creative Technology | Malaysia |
| RMIT/Malaysia Institute of Management | Malaysia |
| RMIT/Metropolitan College | Malaysia |
| RMIT/Research Institute of Investment Analysis Malaysia | Malaysia |
| Flinders/Kolej Antarabangsa | Malaysia |
| Flinders/Sunway College | Malaysia |
| UAdelaide/Disted College | Malaysia |
| UAdelaide/Sepang Institute of Technology | Malaysia |
| UNE/Kolej Bandar Utama | Malaysia |
| UNE/Kolej TAFE Seremban | Malaysia |
| UNSW/Institut Teknologi Mara | Malaysia |
| UNSW/Kolej Damansara Utama | Malaysia |
| UNSW/Makab Sains Mara Trolak | Malaysia |
| UNSW/Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia | Malaysia |
| UNewcastle/AMSET | Malaysia |
| UNewcastle/Kolej Antarabangsa, Penang | Malaysia |
| UNewcastle/Maktab Sains Mara Trolak | Malaysia |
| UQueensland/International College, Penang | Malaysia |
| UQueensland/Maktab Sains MARA Trolak | Malaysia |
| UQueensland/Nilai College | Malaysia |
| UQueensland/PRIME College | Malaysia |
| UQueensland/HELP Institute | Malaysia |

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|---|-------------|
| USydney/Kolej Antarabangsa | Malaysia |
| UWA/Nilai International College | Malaysia |
| UWA/Selangor Institute of Music | Malaysia |
| UWA/Sunway College | Malaysia |
| UBallarat/Country Heights Education, SDN BHD College | Malaysia |
| UBallarat/Mertajam Community College | Malaysia |
| USouth Australia/HELP Institute | Malaysia |
| USouth Australia/Sepang Institute of Technology | Malaysia |
| VictoriaU/Assunta Hospital | Malaysia |
| VictoriaU/International City Institute of Technology | Malaysia |
| VictoriaU/Kolej Damansara Utama | Malaysia |
| VictoriaU/Mansor Institute of Technology | Malaysia |
| VictoriaU/National Heart Hospital | Malaysia |
| VictoriaU/Subang Jaya Medical Centre - Petaling Jaya | Malaysia |
| VictoriaU/Sunway College | Malaysia |
| VictoriaU/Universiti Sains Malaysia, Medical Faculty | Malaysia |
| UTamania/Amsett Ltd | Malaysia |
| UTS/Taylors' College | Malaysia |
| UWS/Kolej Unitek Malaysia | Malaysia |
| UWS/Universiti Pertanian Malaysia & TQM SDN BHD | Malaysia |
| ECU/Ministry of Education and Science | Mauritius |
| RMIT/Republic of Nauru, Ministry of Education | Nauru |
| ACU/Catholic Institute of Theology | New Zealand |
| ACU/Notre Dame Institute of Education | Pakistan |
| USQ/Survey Training Institute | Pakistan |
| VictoriaU/Asia Pacific College | Philippines |
| ACU/Singapore Pastoral Institute | Singapore |
| CQU/Real Estate & Construction Centre | Singapore |
| Curtin/Electronics Industries Training Centre | Singapore |
| Curtin/Informatics Computer School | Singapore |
| Curtin/Marketing Institute of Singapore | Singapore |
| Curtin/Nanying Academy of Fine Arts | Singapore |
| Curtin/Singapore Institute of Building | Singapore |
| Curtin/Singapore Institute of Materials Management | Singapore |
| Curtin/Singapore Institute of Personnel Management | Singapore |
| Deakin/TMC Educational Group | Singapore |
| Griffith/International Business Management Education Centre | Singapore |
| LTU/Asia Pacific Management Centre | Singapore |
| Macquarie/Institute of Banking and Finance | Singapore |
| Macquarie/National Productivity Association | Singapore |
| Macquarie/Singapore National Employers Federation | Singapore |
| Monash/Materials Management Consultants Pte Ltd | Singapore |
| Monash/Singapore Institute of Management | Singapore |
| Murdoch/Singapore National Employers' Federation | Singapore |
| QUT/La Salle-SIA College of the Arts | Singapore |
| QUT/Sumbershire Management Consultants Pte Ltd | Singapore |
| RMIT/LaSalle SIA College of the Arts | Singapore |
| RMIT/Singapore Institute of Advertising | Singapore |
| RMIT/Singapore Institute of Management | Singapore |
| RMIT/Singapore Institute of Purchasing & Materials Management | Singapore |
| SUT/Enterprise Promotions Centre/EDB, Gov't of Singapore | Singapore |
| UNSW/Unisearch Singapore | Singapore |
| UQueensland/Singapore Institute of Commerce | Singapore |
| USydney/Singapore Institute of Management | Singapore |
| UWA/International Centre for Management Development | Singapore |
| USouth Australia/Asia Pacific Management Centre | Singapore |
| UTamania/Sumbershire Ltd | Singapore |
| UTS/International Centre for Management Development | Singapore |
| UWS/Asia Pacific Management Institute | Singapore |
| UWS/Auston Consulting Pty Ltd | Singapore |

| | |
|--|-------------|
| VictoriaU/Sumbershire Educational Consultants | Singapore |
| VictoriaU/Sumbershire Ltd | Singapore |
| RMIT/Hanseu University | South Korea |
| VictoriaU/Hotel Consult SHCC Cesar Ritz | Switzerland |
| Curtin/Srinakharinwirot University | Thailand |
| Deakin/Khon Kaen University | Thailand |
| Monash/King Mongkut's Institute of Technology | Thailand |
| UNSW/Mahankorn University of Technology | Thailand |
| USouth Australia/Thammasat University | Thailand |
| Curtin/Florida State University | USA |
| UBallarat/State University of New York, Oswego | USA |
| LTU/Hanoi Foreign Studies University | Vietnam |
| LTU/National University of Vietnam | Vietnam |
| RMIT/Vietnam National University Hanoi | Vietnam |
| SUT/Vietnam Chamber of Commerce | Vietnam |
| UNSW/Ho Chi Minh University of Technology | Vietnam |
| UCanberra/College of Education, University of Ho Chi Minh City | Vietnam |
| UTamania/Ho Chi Minh City University of Technology | Vietnam |

List of Distance Learning Programmes

| <u>Distance Learning Arrangement by Institution</u> | <u>Country</u> |
|---|------------------|
| CSU/International Student Recruiting Service | Canada |
| CSU/Michener Institute for Applied Health Science | Canada |
| CSU/Shenzhen University | China (PRC) |
| SCU/International Institute of Distance Learning | China (PRC) |
| CQU/J.O.B.S. Fiji | Fiji |
| CQU/Hong Kong College of Technology | Hong Kong, China |
| CSU/Carias Francis HSU College | Hong Kong, China |
| CSU/Hong Kong Polytechnic University | Hong Kong, China |
| CSU/Hong Kong University | Hong Kong, China |
| CSU/Mr GK Lee | Hong Kong, China |
| Deakin/Open Learning Institute of Hong Kong | Hong Kong, China |
| Monash/Hong Kong Polytechnic | Hong Kong, China |
| Murdoch/HR Education Group | Hong Kong, China |
| RMIT/Superguide Consultants Ltd | Hong Kong, China |
| SCU/International Institute of Distance Learning | Hong Kong, China |
| USQ/Hong Kong Baptist University | Hong Kong, China |
| USQ/Informatics Hong Kong | Hong Kong, China |
| ECU/Indian Law Institute | India |
| ECU/Dr Soetomo Hospital | Indonesia |
| ECU/Government Department of Manpower | Indonesia |
| ECU/Yapaysan Pelorpor Maji Mandiri | Indonesia |
| UNSW/University of Indonesia | Indonesia |
| UTS/Ministry of Education, Lao | Laos |
| CSU/Systematic Business Training Centre | Malaysia |
| CSU/Western Institute of TAFE | Malaysia |
| Deakin/RECSAM | Malaysia |
| ECU/Disted College | Malaysia |
| ECU/Institute CECE | Malaysia |
| ECU/Malaysian Academy of Family Physicians | Malaysia |
| ECU/Malaysian Medical Association | Malaysia |
| SCU/Asian Centre for Development Studies | Malaysia |
| USQ/First Robotics Industrial Science Institute of Robotics | Malaysia |
| USQ/HELP, IRI Resources | Malaysia |
| USQ/Informatics Malaysia | Malaysia |
| CSU/Auckland Institute of Technology | New Zealand |
| CSU/Eastern Institute of Technology | New Zealand |
| RMIT/Waikato Polytechnic | New Zealand |

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|---|----------------------|
| SCU/Air Nuigini | Papua New Guinea |
| ECU/Government Department of Labour and Employment | Philippines |
| CSU/Escola Superior de Biotecnologia Universidade Catolica Portuguesa | Portugal |
| CQU/Altron Management Systems Pte Ltd | Singapore |
| CSU/Nanyang Polytechnic | Singapore |
| CSU/Overseas Academic Link | Singapore |
| CSU/Singapore Society of Radiographers | Singapore |
| Deakin/IMC Consultants Pte Ltd | Singapore |
| Monash/Asia Pacific Management Centre | Singapore |
| Monash/Midland School of Commerce | Singapore |
| Monash/Singapore Institute of Banking and Finance | Singapore |
| Monash/TMC | Singapore |
| RMIT/Alberton Management Centre | Singapore |
| SCU/Comsertrac Consultants | Singapore |
| SCU/Hemdsdale & Associates | Singapore |
| USQ/Thames Centre for Open Learning | Singapore |
| UWS/Sumbershire Education | Singapore |
| CSU/JMW Computer and Educational Services | South Africa |
| SCU/TH Chilvers and Co | South Africa |
| CSU/Sukhothai Thammathirat Open University | Thailand |
| CQU/ACE Computer Institute | United Arab Emirates |
| CSU/Northumbria Ambulance Service NHS Trust | United Kingdom |

Note: The above listing is a compilation of data collected by the AVCC (February 1998). The data utilised for this study focusses solely on inter-institutional partnerships as opposed to inter-faculty partnerships as compiled in the AVCC study.

Figure 1.6: Examples of Organisational Identities

| | | |
|-------------------|--------------------------|--|
| Sponsorship & Adm | International Consortia: | predominantly institution sponsored and administered (64% institution sponsored and administered; 27% gov't sponsored and institution administered; 18% institution sponsored and agency administered |
| | International Alliances: | mix between 37% institution sponsored and administered <i>and</i> 27% government sponsored and institution administered. The 18% institution sponsored and agency administered suggest the possibility of a hub-type organisational make-up, which is similar to that of certain international consortia that fit within this category |
| | International Agencies: | mixed bag of 25% institution sponsored and administered; 17% gov't sponsored and institution administered; 14% gov't sponsored and agency administered; and 14% agency sponsored and administered. The distributions suggest two or more types of international consortia, one of which utilises a bottom-top approach and the other a top-bottom approach |
| Funding Sources | International Consortia: | 21% grants, 19% membership dues, 19% tuition fees, 15% gov't subsidies, 13% programs and activities, 10% donations, 3% publications. Funding sources tend to be evenly distributed between the top three |
| | International Alliances: | 27% membership dues, 22% programs and activities, 14% government subsidies, and 13% publications, 12% grants, 7% donations, 5% tuition fees. Heavy reliance on membership dues and participation |
| | International Agencies: | 23% programs and activities, 20% government subsidies, 15% grants, 14% tuition fees, 13% membership dues, 9% donations, 6% publications. Type 1 is heavily financed by means of government subsidies and grant opportunities. Type 2 is market-driven and keeps financially afloat by means of programs and activities and tuition fees |
| Management | International Consortia: | 45% CEOs, 26% academicians, 26% committee/co-directorship; 3% other. Two types emerge as a result of management - Type 1 is centralised and managed predominantly by CEOs (62% centralised/38% decentralised). Type 2 is evenly split between centralised and decentralised management and managed either by academicians <i>or</i> committees or co-directors |
| | International Alliances: | 82% CEOs, 13% committee/co-directorship; and 5% academicians. They are predominantly centralised and managed by CEOs, which equates to 72% centralised/28% decentralised |
| | International Agencies: | 87% CEOs, 5% academicians, 4% committee/co-directorship; and 4% other. The vast majority are centralised and managed by CEOs, which equates to 68% centralised/32% decentralised |
| Governance | International Consortia: | the majority governed by boards of institutions, most of which are policy makers |
| | International Alliances: | principally governed by boards of directors, which serve both in policy making and advisory capacities |
| | International Agencies: | significant inference in using boards of directors for governance, the majority of which are policy makers |

| | | |
|-------------------------------|--------------------------|---|
| Composition of Governing Body | International Consortia: | 57% appointed, 29% elected, 7% ex officio, 7% all three |
| | International Alliances: | 47% elected, 29% appointed, 19% ex officio, 5% all three |
| | International Agencies: | 53% appointed, 28% elected, 19% ex officio |
| General Purpose | International Consortia: | 23% administering student exchange, 18% sharing resources, 17% facilitating faculty exchange, 15% internationalising curricula |
| | International Alliances: | 21% sharing resources, 16% facilitating faculty exchange, 16% conducting international research, 14% administering student exchange |
| | International Agencies: | 19% administering student exchange, 17% conducting international research, 17% sharing resources, 14% internationalising curricula |
| Exchanges: | International Consortia: | multi-lateral 71%, bi-lateral 24%, both 5% |
| | International Alliances: | multi-lateral 67%, bi-lateral 19%, both 14% |
| | International Agencies: | bi-lateral 40%, multi-lateral 38%, both 22% |
| Research: | International Consortia: | 27% |
| | International Alliances: | 34% |
| | International Agencies: | 39% |
| Internationalising Curricula | International Consortia: | 49% undergraduate education, 29% graduate, 22% both |
| | International Alliances: | 46% undergraduate education, 36% graduate, 18% both |
| | International Agencies: | 39% undergraduate education, 34% graduate, 27% both |

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