The emergence of world and off-shore universities and other cross-border higher education

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This presentation considers the emergence of world universities, which are defined as degree-granting institutions that wholly concentrate on scholarly themes of global relevance and cater to an internationally-diverse student body. It also attempts to identify those institutions that are hosted by a country but which are not established for the purpose of sharing the host’s national or cultural character. These institutions include cross-border higher education entities which are characterised as institutions of higher education that have undergone the ‘multinationalisation’ process. This process defines academic programs and/or institutions from one country which are offered in other countries (Altbach 2004: 3). Both types of entities can be traced back to specific instances during periods of colonialism, but the majority of these developed only after the end of World War II. The narrative further considers how current geographic, financial, and competitive factors may have affected their establishment. Related research is described which considers the interplay of globalisation and internationalisation forces upon higher education and which identifies a typology of multinationalisation programs. The over-all analysis raises significant issues to be considered by universities interested in developing global themes and offshore operations.

[Key words: world universities, cross-border higher education]

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Introduction

This discussion concerns itself with world and offshore universities and cross-border higher education institutions, all relatively young entities that hold no specific territorial or cultural jurisdictions. The intent is to consider how and why they may have formed, to identify patterns in worldwide trends regarding higher education development, and to analyse current policies and practices that influence them. A related study examines propositions that market forces may be promoting the worldwide proliferation of university formations worldwide and that some institutions may be redefining themselves in order to play a major role in tackling
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‘global’ issues, such as sustainable development. Survey data concerning international university organisations are included to identify significant patterns.

Globalisation

International university cooperation is dependent on globalisation as globalisation is dependent on context. Although ‘globalisation’ is more commonly used in the literature to refer to the expansion of, participation in, and implementation of an integrated, interdependent world economy, the globalisation phenomenon is increasingly being embraced as a metamorphosis of exponential change relative to time and space, advocating, expounding, and elaborating on the dictum to globalise and be globalised. In the literature, Urry embraces Giddens’ (1998) concept of juxtaposing globalisation with that of time and space. He explains that global networks are “transforming the contours of time and space” (Urry 1998: 15) which, in this particular context, are interpreted to mean temporal. However, because globalisation may also involve the potentiality of a given network or partnership, the imaginary—sometimes unconscious—hope makes it spatial and ‘forward-looking’ as well (Game 1995: 206). As utilised generally, the term ‘globalisation of universities’ is interpreted to mean that political, economic and socio-cultural forces shape institutional character, standards, and repute. The ‘globalisation of higher education’, on the other hand, refers to the evolving, transformational nature of knowledge delivery and production. What is clear is that the formation of world and offshore universities coupled with other forms of cross-border higher education have brought new definitions into the world of higher education.

Globalisation and its colonial antecedents have played a role in moulding and shaping the structures and functions of higher education institutions. Historically, although each institution has its own story of founding, universities have been bound geographically by the communities they serve and their original role to disseminate knowledge to a select few. For those institutions which have survived the trials of war, famine, disease, and time, the spectrum of institutional types has included—in its most general form—public, private, and religious-affiliated entities as well as historic (pre-1900s), contemporary (1900-1970), and those identified as ‘new’ (1970-present). The present-day impact of globalisation forces upon higher education has created new pressures on systems, institutions, and students, which has in turn brought demands for analysis of these circumstances.

As the world becomes more interconnected and interdependent, a blurring effect has occurred among public, private, and religious-affiliated institutions. Moreover, institutions may no longer consider themselves bound by their physical location, may no longer serve primarily to disseminate knowledge but also to advance it, and may no longer serve a localised community but rather respond to a market niche opportunity. In other words, many institutions are responding to the effects of globalisation by developing their own pro-active internationalisation policies. In certain instances, internationalisation efforts have superseded globalisation forces because institutional responses to things international can reach beyond self-serving tendencies. There are also those institutions that propose to embrace
internationalisation but which do not have the necessary means to act on such intention; these are purely passive participants which are generally not taken seriously or ignored.

**Globalisation Effects**

The ebb and flow of globalisation as enabler on one hand may also be perceived as inviting compliance, surveillance, and suspicion on the other. It permeates all levels of educational policy and practice and has begun to impact university students and academic staff as it defines the attainment of ‘graduating attributes’, ‘best teaching practices’, and ‘research capacity’, among others. At institutional levels, universities which develop their international efforts in response to market shifts and competition also experience increased pressure from key stakeholders who impose quality control and assurance standards on international higher education development. The institutionalisation of international regulations set by multilateral agreements such as the General Agreement of Trade and Service (GATS) and the Bologna Declaration have been broadly designed to foster great potential for international educational opportunity and engagement but include hard-to-implement obligations to maintain academic quality and integrity in the literature. Reflecting on the reaction of scholars in this context, Cox recognises the need for regulation, but considers the restructuring of world production through international education and training ‘as an integral aspect of economic globalisation’ (Cox 1996: 530). Barrow concurs with the economic aspects of international higher education, citing that North America will become inextricably linked to NAFTA (Barrow 2003: 165). Czinkota advocates the relaxing conditions for institutions taking advantage of economic opportunities in cross-border education and argues that multilateral agreements should not be too restrictive. He states, “…academia is special and should be treated differently in the process of international services negotiations. Apparently the key principles of the GATS framework, such as free competition, transparency, non-discrimination and national treatment should not apply” (Czinkota 2005: 4).

Although the variables of geographical context, availability of sustainable resources, expertise, infrastructure, student demand, and political influence may determine the dimensions of a possible lucrative market of international programs and students, it is ultimately the market and demand of and for students that apparently drive it. Market forces can also be part of the process of quality control. On the other hand, if multilateral policy were enforced, it may stifle opportunities and undermine newly established programs. The issue is clear: the challenge for international higher education development is to seek a balanced approach of providing opportunity where the demand for such exists—but in a manner that ensures academic quality and integrity.

**The International ‘Global’ Context in Higher Education**

Global interdependence is becoming increasingly valued, particularly in economic terms, and its evolution is demonstrating the importance of internationalisation
processes in the context of higher education (Welch 2002). The relatively recent acceleration of telecommunications worldwide has profoundly influenced higher education by means of advanced technology. Mobile phones, emails, blogs, chatrooms, podcasts, Internet searches, and interactive video conferencing have vastly expanded and accelerated the opportunities to communicate and collect information from urban centres of the world. Improved accessibility and relatively inexpensive means of transportation have given new meaning to the concept of the ‘wandering scholar’. ‘Wandering scholars’ take on different attributes, but they nonetheless represent the principal stakeholders in international higher education. There are at least two types. Global observers, on one hand, are in pursuit of knowledge, investigating a particular culture and a better understanding of the world as a whole. Global participants, on the other hand, seek full immersion within various cultures to better understand and appreciate values, beliefs, and customs. Both attempt to see the world with fresh eyes—usually for naturalistic, humanistic, and aesthetic reasons—but with the hope of gaining further insight into themselves and their world. Despite their differing approaches, the demand from both global observers and participants contributes to an increased measure of societal awareness of the world, adding value to a university in influencing it to internationalise its curricula, pursue overseas research, and share both knowledge and resources.

In apparent efforts to meet demand and expand market share, the majority of internationally-oriented institutions in higher education have developed degree programs, collaborative research projects, and international educational exchanges. Only after the beginning of the twentieth century did international initiatives involving world and offshore universities and cross-border higher education begin to proliferate. Just a handful of these existed in earlier years, the majority of these international alliances such as the Association of Universities and Colleges in Canada, which was founded in 1911 initially simply to provide a venue for Canadian institutions to convene and discuss issues of common concern. After World War II, a spate of newly formed, politically-inspired educational organisations appeared, designed in major part to promote world peace, equality, and democracy. In 1951, perhaps the first of its kind in the developing world, The Colombo Plan was founded to provide developmental assistance in the form of international educational exchanges for financially disadvantaged countries. It was also at this time that the Council of Europe began to develop initiatives to ‘denationalise’ the region. Since the mid 1980s, diverse international university organisations have proliferated to the degree that has prompted calls for a classification of various types. A response to this need is data collected from an admittedly small sample in ongoing research on international university organisations (Denman 2002), which shows the cumulative growth of international university organisations identified between 1900 to present (see Figure 1). It is estimated that there are thousands of both informal and formal inter-institutional partnerships.
Partnerships

The formation of inter-institutional partnerships has become of increasing interest to governments (international, national, and local), to trans-national businesses, and to higher educational institutions themselves, since many benefits have been anticipated from their formation. The internationalisation process applied to universities can be referred to as the massification of universities in general: the reaching out or shifting from elite to mass education; the expanding of an institution’s marketplace or marketability; and/or the establishing of an institution’s mark of influence, visibility, and credibility on the international scene. It may also refer to a pedagogical strategy to cover world views or perspectives in various fields of study. In any case, the internationalisation process tends to reflect institutional incentives or approaches which are representative of Wittgenstein’s world-picture (Weltbild), “a view of things particular to a location and held by a particular group of individuals at a certain point in time” (Kober 1996: 419-20). Although there may be elements of altruism in justifying a rationale for establishing an international university organisation, reality appears to suggest that such entities are typically financially market-driven with the imperative of responding to student demand.

World Universities

In the case of institutions that currently are committed to a globally integrated market, certain political, economic, and cultural factors have accelerated the pressures for higher education accountability, which in turn, has initiated a suggestion that institutions be classified in an international context. Although there may be disagreement with what descriptors are most appropriate for a given institution within a given nation, it has become clear that many universities and other institutions of higher education consider a multitude of descriptors as appropriate for self-categorisation. While most universities have been founded to meet specific needs, in an ever-changing market-centred environment, the labelling
of an institution has become critical. Figure 2 reflects percentages of postsecondary institutions using international-type descriptors in 2007.

**Figure 2. Percentages of Postsecondary Institutions Using International-Type Descriptors (2007)**

![Pie chart showing percentages: World 7%, Regional 29%, Open 15%, International 49%]


Can one infer that the term ‘world’ means global? Can global and international be interchangeable? Within the context of higher education, there are no universally-prescribed definitions. As noted previously, world universities are generally defined as degree-granting institutions specifically intended to reflect scholarly themes related to some global reference and including an internationally-diverse student body. A global issue could be anything from developing leadership in multilateral organisations to peace-building or environmental sustainability. An internationally-diverse student body would require the inclusion of students beyond those of one’s own nation-state. What remains problematic with even this working definition, however, is the issue of the degree to which these so-called global universities actually impact world issues. At present, the institutions listed below can perhaps be best described as world-focused or global in character, so identified by their respective descriptors.

**WORLD ‘GLOBAL’ UNIVERSITIES (n=22)**

- American Global University (USA)
- First Global University to teaching Jainism (Jain University) (India)
- Global University (Lebanon)
- Global University (USA)
- Handong Global University (South Korea)
- San Diego Global University (USA)
- The Global College Lahore (Pakistan)
- Transnational Law and Business University (South Korea)
- Transcend Peace University (Romania)
- Universidad EARTH (Costa Rica)
- Universidad Intercontinental (Mexico)
- Universidad Tecnológica Intercontinental (Paraguay)
In spite of the fact that the majority of these institutions are utilising descriptors such as ‘world’ or ‘global’ most likely to increase their profiles in an expanded global marketplace—the majority of their student bodies consist of people from within their respective countries. A handful are affiliated with a parent university, as in the case of The Global College Lahore (University of the Punjab), the University for Peace (Universidad de Costa Rica), and Vancouver University Worldwide (Vancouver University). Education-type institutions purporting to delivering education by distance with the descriptor ‘global’ were also identified, which include The American Global University, San Diego Global University, and the Virtual Global University.

In addition to those institutions which have received government authorisation to title themselves universities, some have sought out additional external peer reviews from organisations such as the University Grants Commission, the Association of European Universities (CRE), the World Maritime Organisation, and the Western Cooperative for Educational Telecommunications (WCET), a subsidiary of the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education. Parenthetically, The Global University (USA), according to its advertising, is positioned to spread evangelism worldwide, while the First Global University—which teaches Jainism—is perhaps a ‘teaser’ label for Internet users to access the website of Jain University.

Employing the earlier-suggested definition of ‘world university’ as a standard, only the Global University (Lebanon), Universidad EARTH (Costa Rica), World Maritime University (Sweden) and the University for Peace (Costa Rica) meet the test at this writing. The United Nations University, for example, is strictly a research-only institution and is not degree-granting. The Transcend Peace University has been founded by a well respected academic (Professor Johan Galtung), but the short-term courses offered are not degree-level. Both institutions may offer something unique to higher education, but they do not fit within the confines of the definition employed.

Institutions such as the Transnational Law and Business University (South Korea), the University for Development Studies (Ghana), the University of National and
World Economy (Bulgaria), the University of World Economy and Diplomacy (Uzbekistan), and the Uzbek State World Languages University (Uzbekistan) clearly do not meet the definition employed, even though their respective emphases are world-focused. The problem is that both institutions cater specifically to students within their respective national jurisdictions.

If the definition were relaxed to include world-focused institutions, meaning those ‘global in character’, then the United Nations University and the Transcend Peace University could be classified within that rubric. The Carnegie Mellon University (USA) (The Global University), National University of Singapore (Singapore’s Global University), and the University College London (London’s Global University) would also be included on condition that their form of branding (e.g. marketisation) were universally accepted. Alternatively, perhaps they would best represent a new dimension in a growing list of new offshore universities that have recently been established. The following list identifies institutions that under such an umbrella might be described as offshore universities:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OFFSHORE UNIVERSITIES (n=25)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• New York University (Albania)</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Webster University (Austria)</td>
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<tr>
<td>• University of the West Indies, School of Continuing Studies (Belize)</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Houdegbe North American University Benin (Benin)</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Amerikanski universitet v Bulgaria (Bulgaria)</td>
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<td>• The American University in Cairo (Egypt)</td>
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<td>• The German University in Cairo (Egypt)</td>
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<td>• Université française d’Egypte (Egypt)</td>
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<td>• Universitas Swiss German Serpong Tangerang (Indonesia)</td>
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<td>• Kazahsko-Amerikanskij Universitet (Kazakhstan)</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Kyrgyzstandagy Amerikalyk Universitet (Kyrgyzstan)</td>
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<td>• American University College of Science and Technology (Lebanon)</td>
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<td>• American University College of Technology (Lebanon)</td>
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<td>• American University of Beirut (Lebanon)</td>
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<td>• C &amp; E American University Institute (Lebanon)</td>
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<td>• Ecole supérieure et internationale de Gestion (Lebanon)</td>
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<td>• ABTI-American University of Nigeria (Nigeria)</td>
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<td>• The Arab American University-Jenin (Palestine)</td>
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<td>• Florida State University – Panama (Panama)</td>
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<td>• Universitatea Româno-Americana din Bucuresti (Romania)</td>
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<td>• Webster University Thailand (Thailand)</td>
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<td>• American University in Dubai (UAE)</td>
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<td>• American University of Sharjah (UAE)</td>
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<td>• The British University in Dubai (UAE)</td>
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<td>• Richmond, The American University in London (UK)</td>
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Source: International Association of Universities Online Database. (Accessed 24 January 2007)
http://www.unesco.org/iau/onlinedatabases/list.html
Institutions such as New York University (Albania), Webster University (Austria), Florida State University-Panama (Panama), Webster University Thailand (Thailand), and Richmond, The American University in London (UK) are among an ever-increasing cadre of institutions that blur conventional understanding as to what kind of entity represents ‘offshore’ versus ‘satellite’. What appears to clarify definition in the term ‘offshore’ is whether the institution-in-question is authorised to confer degrees using its own label. This suggests that the physical presence of university buildings, staff, and students in a foreign country may not necessarily mean that the entity should be classified as ‘off-shore’. They may be more precisely labelled satellite or ‘niche’ campuses.

Types of Multinationalisation Programs

If a specific international university classification is thought to be desirable to describe higher education developments such as those listed above, it indeed may be necessary to include all forms of cross-border higher education (OECD 2004), including multinationalisation programs that are acknowledged to be institutional subsidiaries.

Present typologies include the following:

- **SATELLITE [OFFSHORE BRANCH] CAMPUSES**: campuses are set up by an institution from one country in another in an effort to provide its educational or training degree programs in the host country;

- **MEMORANDUM OF UNDERSTANDING SCHEMES**: an institution (A) approves an institution (B) in another country to provide one or more of A’s programs to students in B’s country;

- **ISLAND STUDY ABROAD PROGRAMS**: an institution (A) offers its own students its academic programming in another country with or without collaboration from another institution (B);

- **SEMI-AFFILIATED AND WHOLLY-AFFILIATED STUDY ABROAD PROGRAMS**: an institution (A) recognises and offers academic study at an institution (B) in another country as partial credit towards a degree program at institution (A);

- **CONTINUING EDUCATION PROGRAMS**: degree and/or training courses are offered by institution (A) emphasising specific fields of study in affiliation with institution (B) located overseas

- **TWINNING**: agreements are made between institutions (A) and (B) in different countries to offer a joint degree or qualifying degree programs;

- **CORPORATE PROGRAMS**: programs are offered in another country by businesses and accredited by an institution (A). These often involve accreditation across national borders;
• INTERNATIONAL CONSORTIA AND ALLIANCES: a network of three or more universities or other institutions in higher education work cooperatively to offer degrees and conduct research

• DISTANCE EDUCATION PROGRAMS: a degree or training program is delivered by institution (A) to other locations throughout the world by means of satellites, computers, correspondence, or other technological means.

Although these kinds of cross-border higher education entities are programs rather than specific, stand-alone institutions, they nonetheless have a significant impact on the development of higher education. In many ways, they fit the style of ‘imagined communities’ that exist within the broader context of an institution’s mission. Accordingly, they are subject to the same forces that affect other parts of higher education—positive and negative.

**International University Organisations**

If universities are changing to meet the needs of global-oriented, knowledge-based societies, it may be important to add organisations which provide cross-border higher education into the classification matrix, as their services could have as much of an impact on the ‘global’ society as the stand-alone university or its related programs. Figure 3 notes the percentage of international university organisations that have identified themselves and their university partners as world-focused (2004).

**Figure 3. Percentage of Universities Identified as World-Focused According to Country (2004) (n=33)**
The characterisation of university partners as being world-focused among international university organisations is considered significant, despite the small sample, as it is the common denominator for creating a partnership. In other words, it can be suggested that most inter-institutional partnerships develop from institutions being world-focused. (The only exception to this is the Japan-America Institute of Management Science (JAIMS) in Japan, which was included in the above sample discussed earlier.) By classifying international university organisations as a separate category in an international university classification system, it is possible to obtain a generalised measure of the concept of ‘like-mindedness’ in international university cooperation.

**Multi-Culturally-Oriented Universities**

These entities are institutions that achieve their character from diverse groups within their respective student bodies. In the related study, international university organisations which characterised their university partners as multi-culturally-oriented utilised this descriptor apparently to signal their commitment to student diversity. This may suggest that these institutional entities are attempting to bring the world to the university campus rather than sending students off to study the world. Student diversity adds a new dimension to internationalising curricula by encouraging differing points-of-view in interactive classroom discussions. Figure 4 lists the percentage of universities by country identified as multi-culturally-oriented by international university organisations.

**Figure 4.** Multi-culturally-oriented universities according to country (2004)

![Pie chart showing the percentage of multi-culturally-oriented universities by country.](image)

**Geographic, Financial and Competitive Factors**

There are several possible reasons for the formation of universities and other institutions of higher education which deliver academic programs across national
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For the most part, pro-active universities have developed because opportunity beckoned and they are very few in number. They have, of course, required necessary resources, interest, and overseas contacts as well as the opportunity to achieve any significant financial returns. For many others, the reasons include seeking increased academic credibility through institutional affiliation. Although most institutions may have rationalised going beyond their borders in altruistic terms, the primary reason for offering external programs are, for the most part, financial. In certain cases when the principal purpose has been to offer developmental assistance, institutions have initiated multinational programs to fill a void, offering academic programs where these were either not available or where student demand exceeded supply. The majority of world-oriented institutions appear to be attempting to 'internationalise' themselves incrementally in order to retain their share of their customary market. Many are increasingly competing against one another for students and are working against rather than with one another. A number are student-demand-driven, and whether they cater to global observers or participants, they are expanding modes of delivery and types of degrees in order to play to student demand and to be in step with world market trends.

Forces that have influenced world university establishment may vary, but because these entities are uniquely theme-based, their formation suggests that a new model for universities may be emerging. Traditionally, universities have borrowed their degree structures from older, more established universities from Western Europe, including the United Kingdom. Examples include Oxbridge, Scottish, German, and French models. Those universities which have fashioned their offerings after others have often attempted to achieve recognition by maintaining high academic standards in order to produce graduates that have a reasonable guarantee of a successful and prosperous future. However, as the international mobility of students and staff has accelerated since World War II, the emphasis on moulding and shaping student minds has been replaced with corollary emphasis upon the transferability of skills within a significantly enlarged geographic workplace. A related consideration is the easy transferability of academic credit between institutions, which suggests that increasingly, a number of universities no longer can claim that their students have completed their entire degree program at the home campus.

Certain world-focused universities may be pursuing world-class status as a result of increased international competition. Echoing the Sputnik era of the 1960s, when educational achievement became a national objective for many countries, the current context suggests that certain universities are anxiously striving to become ‘world-class’ (Hazelkorn 2006). On one hand, the development of strategic planning has influenced institutions to increasingly aspire to advanced status. On the other, several nation-states have announced their intention to reallocate public subsidies to only the most respected universities. This is the result of nationalistic agendas intended to advance relative competitiveness. Examples include the 211 Project in China and Australia’s proposal to divide its universities in terms of teaching and research capabilities.
Such developments have the effect of causing institutions to align themselves with an expanded ‘world’ community, which may have different needs than the local community they were initially intended to serve. The resulting challenges are significant: the possible sacrifice of academic integrity in the interest of increasing student numbers and the emphases on form over substance in research and scholarship in pursuit of monetary gain. What is most disturbing is the potential loss of academic creativity and innovation.

The Impact of Trade and Calls for Systemisation

As free trade agreements have reduced trade restrictions between participating nation-states, major opportunities have developed for international higher education providers to offer a wide range of academic programs within the geographic limits of their respective free trade areas. They have also spurred the development of English as the new *lingua franca*. In recent years, English has become the preferred language of instruction for cross-border higher education, and the novelty of using English as a medium of instruction worldwide may fuel a standardisation of consumer-driven production and dissemination of knowledge.

Since most free trade agreements do not provide formalised provisions for an increasingly ‘regionalised’ higher education system, there are increasing calls for international university regulation. Ideally, such regulation would attempt to ensure minimum academic standards, place controls on ‘diploma mills’, and institute external peer audits and accreditation reviews. Unfortunately, such regulation—if unrestrained—could also undermine academic integrity and inhibit the best and the brightest. There is an alternative: to develop a less objectionable international classification of universities. However, in order for classification to take place, a universal consensus must be established to define the ‘university’ and its various attributes. The most contested descriptor used in the naming of an institution is the term ‘university’. A university does not have the prerogative to label itself as such without legal authorisation. However, if a government entity determines that an institution can be classified as a university, there is no international authorising body to dispute such classification. The terms ‘university’ and ‘institution of higher education’ also carry with them varying connotations, depending on the respective educational system in which they are sited. The typology used in IAU’s World List of Universities identifies 1) universities, 2) other institutions of higher education, and 3) other national academic bodies. According to the World List of Universities 2004, there are currently 9,200 universities and 8,000 other institutions of higher education in the world (IAU World Higher Education Database).

The segmentation of the international higher education market suggests that higher education has not so much lost its soul as it has its voice. As recently as five years ago, Chickering issued “…a call to reclaim the soul of higher education…to do so requires major institutional transformation, accompanied by levels of professional authenticity, purpose, and spirit seldom apparent in our current cultures” (Chickering 2002: 5). It will also require peer consultation to review and identify the appropriate mechanisms to create an internationally recognised university
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classification system. Only then will it be possible to imbue higher education’s soul with academic rigour in producing enlightened and discerning thinkers across the world. If the soul of an institution is weakened, then the soul of the student is endangered, and higher education has indeed failed society.

Reflections and Implications

The following suggests implications reflected in this presentation:

A typology of worldwide universities may help identify global trends and issues such as global diversity and equity. World universities and offshore institutions have strategic differences, but they share similar stakeholders (i.e. global observers versus global participants).

The old-time uniform diet of liberal arts [Trivium and Quadrivium] is being progressively replaced with a diet of professional specialisation as a result of a student/employer demand-driven education market. This has increased the need for academic credentials and licensure, which, in turn, increases demand for international university standards and regulation. This leads some to question whether world universities can withstand economic pressures when committing its resources to ambitious themes of global relevance. Global observers and participants may be able to find academic programs tailored to meet their individual needs but, as universities and other institutions of higher education further specialise, the resulting effect may be a world university system incapable of producing great ‘global’ thinkers. The ‘wandering scholar’ may be forced to specialise, as the supply of university programming will be limited to what the market dictates.

There is concern regarding the reallocation of governmental subsidies to ‘world-class’ universities. This spurs greater competition, which may result in institutions reorganising themselves to become elite and global-market oriented at the expense of meeting local community needs.

Educational arrangements throughout the world offer a wealth of diversity, which meet distinct needs keyed to their contexts. However, it may be beneficial to form an international body that would establish an integrated international university classification. This might include international university organisations as well as other higher educational institutions, but its main import would be that of highlighting the diversity of institutional types worldwide. Its descriptions and identifications would certainly promote research relating to the success of international-oriented universities in stimulating global-oriented knowledge production. Any tendency toward regulatory mechanisms would require substantial deliberation. The regulatory role, for example might impose the necessary benchmarking academic standards for all international-oriented universities, but if too stringent or conditional, these could inhibit development of world universities, discourage ‘unique’ program offerings, and even compromise academic integrity. In its most positive role, a world classification of universities may be used to help institutions recognise the importance and uniqueness of their role in serving their respective constituencies. It can be useful in identifying institutional ‘like-
mindedness’. Finally and obviously, any effort to classify higher education on an international scale must be all-inclusive if it is to really be useful in promoting, fostering, and monitoring international university cooperation.

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