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Cross-border Tertiary Education: The Challenges and Opportunities for Intercultural Understanding

1. Introduction

The interest in cross-border tertiary education is unquestionable and growing due to a number of factors. These factors include changes in student mobility, program mobility, long distance educational delivery, and the global trend of escalating student enrollments. However, the increasing interest in cross-border tertiary education extends beyond changes in student demographics and new delivery models. There is an increased awareness of the vital role cross-border tertiary education can play in building national capacity and enhancing mutual understanding among cultures. Many scholars believe sharing knowledge can influence social and economic progress within a country through the intellectual growth of its population. There are many other contemporary trends that merit close consideration of the potential of cross border education. The globalization of economies, the shift from an industrial to a knowledge based society, and the internationalization of education are among the leading forces in making cross-border tertiary education significant and in some cases a necessity. Cross-border tertiary education is not a new phenomenon as there is along history of exchange of students, professors, and knowledge dating back centuries. However, in the last two decades the world witnessed significant growth in cross-border tertiary education in large part due to changes in physical and virtual modes of delivery. This has expanded our thinking where cross-border tertiary education is now being conceptualized as more than the exchange of students and faculty. Advancements in technology made new modes of delivery possible. In addition to new ways to offer education many colleges and universities are changing their mission statements to include an international focus. The majority of these institutions regard cross-border tertiary education as a dynamic approach to

build mutual understanding, assist other countries in capacity development, generate revenue, and answer the need for an educated workforce in response to the demands of a globalized society. Parallel to the opportunities cross-border tertiary education provides there are a number of challenges and potential pitfalls that can threaten the existent promise of cross-border tertiary education. These inhibiting factors include the prospect of low quality providers offering degrees, brain drain from developing nations, and the ramifications of changes to the mission of higher education institutions.

In this paper I present an overview of the trends affecting the growth in cross-border tertiary education; discuss its potential benefits and inhibiting factors; review the models of delivery of education; and offer ideas of how cross border education can help build better social worlds. The burgeoning interest among providers and international planning groups such as the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)¹ makes this a topic that warrants the attention of administrators and scholars alike. I will present evidence that cross-border tertiary education presents opportunities for institutions of higher education to construct collaborative relationships designed to promote values and knowledge among students necessary to build a sustainable future. At this critical time in history, international collaboration for the transmission of knowledge across borders may help address a myriad of issues including sustainable development, poverty reduction, promotion of human rights, and peace. However, academic integrity must be upheld and administrators and scholars must work to address the challenges ahead.

2. Defining Cross-Border Tertiary Education and Recognizing Global Trends

Cross-border tertiary education has been defined as the movement of people, programs, providers, curricula, projects, research and services in higher education across national jurisdictional borders (OECD and The World Bank 2007). As a subset of educational internationalization, cross-border tertiary education is part of international efforts to develop cooperative projects, commercial initiatives and academic exchange programs. There are numerous reasons for the emergence of cross-border tertiary education programs. The first of these is the substantial growth of student populations worldwide. As illustrations of this growth, I offer these examples: in 2007 there were 132 million students worldwide while China and India have witnessed a 100 percent increase in

¹ The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) is made up of 30 nations which includes Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Korea, Luxembourg, Mexico, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Slovak Republic, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, United Kingdom, and the United States.

enrollment between 1997 and 2007 [Uvalic-Trumbic, Daniel, and West 2007]. Between 1990/1 and 2004/5 the United Arab Emirates saw an increase of total student numbers by 733 percent, Malaysia 725 percent, Poland nearly 500 percent, Hungary 371 percent, Romania 300 percent, United Kingdom 316 percent, France 224 percent, Czech Republic 217 percent, and the United States saw an increase of 147 percent. In this same time period China witnessed the exceptional growth of 950 percent in tertiary enrollments [OECD 2007 and UNESCO Institute for Statistics]. Knight [2007] indicated several other factors contributing to the rapidly increasing demand for higher education these include changing demographics; the greater number of secondary school graduates worldwide; a movement to lifelong learning, and the growth of the knowledge economy. While each country may have its own unique circumstances contributing to these dramatic increases, the growth of student population is substantial, and as noted above it has a worldwide effect spanning countries with a wide distribution of mean income levels. This rapid growth created issues of limited or strained capacity of higher education institutions in some countries. Without the capacity to meet the growing demand for education, many new opportunities and models are emerging. These new models have the potential to improve access to education for more people and ultimately help nations expand their base of human capital provided they can meet high quality standards.

Globalization is often cited as a significant force in the growing demand for higher education. Baumann and Blythe [2008] stated that globalization refers to the integration of economies and societies around the world, which has accelerated the mobility of goods, services, labor, technology, and capital. In their view, globalization is not a new phenomenon as they claim it has spanned several centuries. However, the advent of new technologies accelerated the speed of globalization due to ease in the circulation of information, resources, and people. Many economists agree that globalization has impacted a shift to a knowledge economy. A knowledge economy describes societies with the ability to turn information into productive knowledge. The characteristics of a knowledge economy include the proliferation of service organizations. These organizations can access, employ and manage information and knowledge strategically. Such an organization has found ways to weave technology and information together as compelling forces making knowledge available for use and in service to others or as a commodity that may be traded [*New Penguin Business Dictionary* 2003]. There is widespread agreement that in a globalized world education is a vital element necessary for the preparation of people for the knowledge economy. Intellectual capital replaces the capital of the past such as land, labor, and economic capital. Knowledge and innovation are necessary for the success of organizations, nations, and the global economy.

Drucker [1989] referred to the shift to a knowledge economy as more significant than any change witnessed in politics, government, or economics. Its impact reaches individuals employed as knowledge workers, the organizations trading information and services, the societies that rely on innovation, and a globalized world using knowledge to grow its economy and improve the quality of lives.

The OECD economies are increasingly based on knowledge and information and knowledge is now recognized at the central driving force of productivity and economic growth. In the OECD economies there is a dependence on the production and dissemination of knowledge for the benefit of people and society. Foss [2005] believed the knowledge economy rests on four pillars; (1) an economic and institutional regime that promotes incentives for creating, acquiring, disseminating, and using knowledge to promote the growth of its economic base and increase the welfare of its citizens; (2) a system of universities, research centers, think tanks, consultant firms that are capable of tapping into the growing stock of worldwide knowledge and adapt this knowledge to local needs and create new knowledge; (3) establish a dynamic communication and information infrastructure capable of facilitating the dissemination and processing of information; and (4) an educated citizenry that can create, acquire, distribute, and use knowledge.

Tertiary Education Institutions play a central role in the knowledge economy. Marginson [2009] noted the means of knowledge production are primarily located in tertiary education institutions as they serve as the primary source of knowledge production. The OECD (2008) recognized tertiary education institutions contribute to social and economic growth and progress by taking an instrumental role in the development of human capital. Tertiary education builds the knowledge base through research efforts, studying issues in the environment, applying theoretical constructs, and discovering innovations to adapt knowledge to a situated context. These institutions also serve as the repository of cultural knowledge and transmit the accumulated knowledge to students through teaching and learning.

A knowledge economy necessitates higher levels of competencies in the workforce. Knowledge workers fill positions in fields such as accounting, health care, management, education, communication, and governmental work to mention but a few. The United States saw an explosion in these fields during the 20th century and the demand for knowledge workers in that country continues to grow. This is not isolated to the United States as there are many other countries experiencing similar meteoric increases in numerous professional fields. The vast majority of these professions require study and degrees from tertiary educational institutions to prepare workers for intellectually demanding jobs. However, tertiary education is not limited to vocational training. As students enter the classroom they not only learn career skills, but should also learn how to engage

in reflective thinking, appreciate the value of cultures, understand the moral and ethical consequences of choices, and see the interdependencies of nations and people. A knowledge economy relies on the dissemination, application, and use of knowledge to serve the public. This is only possible through the efforts and contributions of graduates of tertiary education as they fulfill this critical role through their occupations.

The demand for education is obvious in the growing number of people across the globe seeking tertiary levels of education. The World Bank Group [2002] noted that in OECD nations the number of people with tertiary degrees rose from 22 percent to 41 percent over a ten-year period and the United States projects a 19 percent increase in positions requiring master degrees. Tertiary education is most important in OECD countries and for graduates it results in higher wages, lower rates of unemployment, and increased levels of productivity in the economy [Mankiw, Romer, and Weil 1992; Gemmill 1996]. Human capital is inseparable from national economic growth rates. However, education does not stop at the completion of a traditional tertiary degree. A knowledge economy also requires a commitment to life-long learning. This represents a significant turn in education, as many graduates are required to return to tertiary institutions to learn new knowledge or relearn skills in order to keep pace with innovations in technology, products, or services. Life-long learning creates a new dimension for tertiary educational institutions. The increasing student population will require access to more education post graduation. Tertiary educational institutions should have the capacity to serve students across the life span. This requires planning and a shift in the role of the institutions.

Clearly the role of tertiary education in a knowledge economy is vital to the success of the economy. The World Bank Group [2002] saw knowledge as the principal driver of economic development. It was their belief that higher education could support a knowledge economy through educating a qualified and adaptable work force from high level research scientists to teachers at all levels of education, and future leaders in government and business. More than this, institutions would generate new knowledge and provide people with the ability to access existing global knowledge so they may adapt this to local use. The World Bank Group regarded institutions of higher education as unique in their ability to contribute to sustainable transformational economic growth because of their capacity building contributions.

In essence a knowledge-based economy requires a highly skilled workforce and a highly skilled workforce has the potential to earn higher wages and secure employment more readily. Card and Lemieux [2000] found men between the ages of 26–30 with baccalaureate degrees earned three times more than men of that age who did not complete a higher education degree in both the United States and the United Kingdom. The OECD [2009] reported that in Poland between 1997 and 2007 those with a secondary education averaged an unemployment rate of

approximately 14 percent, while those with tertiary education unemployment dropped to under 5 percent. On average across the OECD countries, more than 40 percent of individuals with below upper secondary education are not employed. In Belgium, the Czech Republic, Hungary, the Slovak Republic, and Turkey more than half of the population with below upper secondary education is not employed. However, a tertiary degree brings the individual more than wages. The World Bank saw a meaningful education as more than access to scientific and management knowledge. They felt education should expose students to disciplines such as the humanities and social sciences to help form a person capable of reasoning and thought so they may answer critical questions and issues. Human capital resides in the ability of citizens to consider the moral implications of their actions, build communication competencies, and nurture habits that promote life-long learning. This ultimately promotes civic responsibility, and is instrumental in creating the foundation of economic, political, and social development.

There is little doubt that higher education institutions serve as the conduit and repository of knowledge. The act of educating affects the values, ethics, and attitudes of the student and this is the foundation of social capital required for the evolution of societies. This is not without controversy as there are those in the academy who feel the role of tertiary education should not be as closely allied with business and the economy of a nation. This is a challenge institutions will face, as the policy makers, students, and those paying for education often question what job opportunities exist upon graduation. Consistent with an economic perspective, many students want to know what the yield on their investment in education will bring. This leads to the larger central question of how closely tied should institutions be to vocational preparation. This is not an entirely new question, but the social context has changed in light of the knowledge society. Professional workers are not simply trained. The successful professional must possess the ability to reflect and find new applications of existing knowledge, or discover ways to combine existing stores of knowledge to make applications to real-world problems.

Scott [2005] made important distinctions in terms of what globalization means and its relationship to the internationalization of higher education. A common conception of globalization is that it is a worldwide market and the elite higher education institutions produce the innovations and scientific advances that a global knowledge economy relies on. However, Scott pointed out this is a limited view of what globalization actually means. He went on to describe other perspectives of globalization that emphasize the wide distribution of knowledge production inclusive of innovation in technology, economics, but also in social, political, and cultural areas as well. This perspective contends higher education institutions affect regional and national development. As they become what

Scott referred to as “transactions spaces” or “trading zones” between global knowledge and local knowledge. The tertiary education institutions bring together local agendas with international agendas on a wide range of matters such as ethnicity, religion, and cultural diversity. Scott also saw globalization as a potential contributor to a “world culture”. The danger of this lies in who determines what the world culture would be. Western or Asian dominance is a critical matter institutions of higher education face. These institutions should serve as mediators to ensure that world cultures and national cultures promote synergy rather than conflict. The internationalization of education has the potential to serve as force to promote international understanding, appreciation of cultural differences, and locate the universal values that are or may be shared by all. In these later accounts that Scott outlined we see there is an opportunity for scholars from many different kind of institutions to affect regional and national development. It could be argued that educational internationalization is no longer the exclusive province of elite universities it can become the concern of all academics dedicated to building intercultural bonds and understanding. Academics can construct collaborative relationships to share knowledge across nations and cultures.

The internationalization of higher education was described by Knight [2004] as “the process of integrating an international, intercultural, and global dimension into the purpose, functions, and diversity of higher education”. The International Association of Universities in its statement on internationalization regards the role of tertiary education institutions to prepare leaders for an increasingly interdependent world where internationalization promotes intercultural diversity and understanding, respect, and tolerance among people. Their vision extends far beyond economic development as it includes solidarity among nations, the promotion of human peace, and access to opportunities for all people through the appropriation of knowledge. Among their recommendations they feel tertiary educations institutions should be proactive in the process of internationalization rather than reacting to forces such as economic markets to guide the direction of these institutions. The current climate creates an opportunity to build collaborations that will result in far more than the generation of revenue.

In 2003 The International Association of Universities surveyed its member institutions and they identified the top three motivations for internationalization as mobility and exchanges for student and faculty development; improvement of academic standards and quality assurance; and international research collaboration. However, the survey did identify brain drain and loss of cultural identity as the greatest risks of internationalization [Knight 2003]. As more institutions become participants in international education they will have to overcome these challenges as internationalization develops. However, the results of this survey show the focus of institution participating in internationalization

programs are intent upon improving educational experiences and working together to expand the base of knowledge.

As evidence of the prevalence of internationalization, in the United States we see a growing number of well-known institutions such as the University of Michigan, Pennsylvania State University, Boston College, George Washington University, and Clark University espouse an international focus. The University of Michigan defines itself as providing service to the world, Pennsylvania State University sees itself as a world campus, Boston College teaches global citizenship, George Washington University dedicates itself to international understanding and exchange, and Clark University's mission is to educate its students to be imaginative students of the world. This is consistent with Scott's observation of a shifting mission of the university towards internationalization due to rapid globalization, economic interdependency, a global knowledge society, and the state of the postmodern university all contribute to this change. Scott projected the new postmodern universities would have internationalization at the very core of their mission as they provide service to the body of worldwide nation states.

In many countries internationalization does not occur at the ministry level but between institutions. However among many OECD nations internationalization is not typically a priority and many do not have a proactive policy on marketing internationally. This has resulted in a relatively limited number of productive international collaborations especially among the smaller institutions that lack the funds or human resources to dedicate to cultivating these relationships. It is important that scholars begin to find ways to make the connections that will build strong collaborations to attain the goals of internationalization.

Initially internationalization was limited to the number of students electing to study in foreign countries. While the scope of internationalization expanded beyond study-abroad programs this continues to flourish in the present climate. We see evidence of this as indicated in The Global Student Mobility 2025 Report [Bohm and Meares 2003]. Bohm and Meares forecasted the demand for international education will increase from 1.8 million students in 2000 to 7.2 million in 2025. While many students benefit from international study it is limited in terms of access. Student mobility imposes economic barriers restricting international studies to only those students who have the economic resources to participate. Students from lower economic backgrounds participate less in cross-border student mobility.

Economic impediments are not the only concern of student mobility. Clearly the distribution of student mobility is unbalanced. The four English-speaking countries of the United States, the United Kingdom, Australia, and Canada host 54% of all foreign students in the OECD area [OECD 2004]. For example, in the academic year 2004/05 the number of Polish students going abroad was 8390

that was 359 percent higher than the number of students coming to Poland 2330 [OECD 2007]. This can be attributed to a host of issues such as the number of courses offered in foreign languages, economies of scale, and international marketing efforts. In the USA during the 2008–09 academic year the total number of students from the USA studying abroad worldwide was less than half of the students from China and India alone studying in the USA.

Yet another inhibiting factor of student mobility is the increased risk of “brain drain” for the sending country. Brain drain refers to the situation that occurs when the most talented and skilled people migrate from their home country to another country. This can happen when a student completes a university education and remains in the foreign nation upon graduation rather than return home. The impact is a loss of human resource or capital for the home country [Blackwell Dictionary of Sociology 2000]. In spite of this precarious trend, many institutions have made the recruitment of international students a priority for the future as the number of eighteen year olds is declining in both North America and Western Europe. In many cases the receiving nations benefit by employing the brightest and most talented students from the sending country.

3. Models of Delivery and Challenges of Cross-border Education

Knight [2007] described a typology of program mobility. This typology provides an explanation of six models for the delivery of cross-boarder education. The six models are:

1. Franchise. In this model of delivery an institution of higher education from another nation (A) authorizes an institution of higher education in the host nation (B) to deliver their courses in their nation or other countries. The credits for completed work are awarded by the institution A but the agreement must comply with existing regulations and accreditation standards in country B and regulations and coded in country A. For example, an Italian university (A) authorizes a Czech university (B) to offer courses in the Czech Republic or another country. However, the Italian university (A) awards the credits or degree.

2. Twinning. This model creates an articulation agreement and collaboration between the source country A and country B that allows students to earn credits in either country. Credits and awarding of degree is awarded by source country A and complies with regulations and standards of the source country. For example, an American university (A) collaborates with a Hungarian university (B) and students make take courses in Hungary or the USA that earn credits awarded by the American university.

3. Double or Joint Degree. Providers in different countries form a collaboration to offer a program where the students receive credits from each provider or a joint award from the collaborating institutions. For example, a French university collaborates with an Indian university and the students complete courses at both

institutions that may lead to a degree from the French university and a degree from the Indian university.

4. *Articulation.* This is similar to twinning but with a looser collaboration. Providers from different countries allow students to earn credit by completing work with a collaborating party. For example, a German university collaborates with a Chinese university and credits earned at either university are recognized and may lead to a degree.

5. *Validation.* This arrangement allows providers in different countries to allow the provider in country (B) the receiving country, to award the credits of provider (A) in source country. For example, a Dutch university may award the credits of a Canadian university in Holland.

6. *E-learning or distance learning.* Courses or programs of study are offered to students any where in the world through distance models. This may include face-to-face support for students through domestic study or support centers. This model may offer the greatest potential when coupled with face-to-face support to improve the accessibility to education. This model has created the conception of virtual education, students, and institutions.

New technologies have been instrumental in increasing accessibility to education and have opened new avenues for cross-border education. Higher Education institutions can easily link with partners in other countries and make their programs and courses accessible through programs such as Blackboard, Cicada, Elluminate and other electronic learning systems. In some cases a partner is not necessary and the institutions can recruit students from other nations and employ this new technology. This developing technology made virtual classrooms and virtual universities a possibility, thus leading to significant changes in program mobility. In the past decade a number of new models of delivery are present

Knight's typology may not be an exhaustive list of all models as providers have developed other ways of delivering education to students or they have combined features of these six models to offer access to students in other geographic locations.

A relatively recent phenomenon is making an impact on cross-border tertiary education and that is the number of alternative providers who offer education to students. Traditional providers are usually defined as the public or private universities and colleges, but there has been an arrival and an increase in a new kind of provider of tertiary education. For example, the Apollo Group a publicly traded company was founded in 1973 in the United States. It includes its subsidiaries the University of Phoenix, College for Financial Planning, Insight Schools Inc., the Institute for Professional Development, and Western International University. Informatics of Singapore provides degrees and courses and states its vision is "to be a global leader in providing quality education and training services"

Informatics claims to have partnerships with twenty-six tertiary education institutions in the United States, United Kingdom, Australia, and New Zealand. Aptech of Mumbai, India began in 1986 to provide IT and animation education and claims to have trained over five million students. However the alternative providers can come from other areas such as corporate universities who join these profit-making ventures to sell training to organizations, employees, or students worldwide. Allen [2002] identified there are about two thousand corporate universities in the United States, but the vast majority are designed to provide training to their own employees. Allen's research indicated only five of these corporate universities offer degrees and pose little threat to traditional tertiary education providers. Corporate universities have the potential to impact the life-long learning market. As stated above, many employees are likely to continue their study after the award of a degree due to innovations in their field. The need for ongoing education may be highly attractive to the corporate universities or alternative providers. These new entities may also see the growing student needs coupled with the limited capacity of tertiary education institutions in many countries as a profit making opportunity. The overwhelming numbers of students seeking education and capable of paying will likely be of great interest to the alternative providers.

The new models of delivery, new providers, and strategic initiatives of traditional providers of tertiary education have raised quality assurance concerns. Accreditation does not have an international standard. Without recognized standards the problems lie in determining which institutions are legitimate providers and which are not. There is evidence of what has been labeled as rogue providers. These are institutions that do not meet accepted accreditation standards, but boast of accreditation from a non-recognized body or one that may not exist at all. Students and tertiary education partners in a receiving country need safeguards from the prospect of poor quality programs, untrained faculty, and providers driven by commercial interest and not academic integrity. The rise of the profit making institution, rouge providers, and even traditional universities competing for paying students is a cause for caution if not concern.

Reform of higher education accreditation has its roots in Europe with the well-known "Bologna Process". This is one effort driven by forty-six countries to ensure quality, as well as synchronize and balance tertiary education. The Bologna process has become the leader in generating worldwide interest in developing consistent standards for tertiary education. However, the Bologna Process is not without its critics as many academics are either suspicious or mistrusting of this movement and there is reluctance to support the process. Among the concerns is the loss of academic freedom and independence in curricular design.

The European Commission developed the European Diploma Supplement designed to provide students with a document attached to their tertiary

education diploma to improve international recognition of academic and professional qualifications. This is a response to differences in qualification systems in different countries. Student mobility and program mobility has resulted in more people participating in study outside of their home nation. The Diploma Supplement is a way to respond to the need to provide an articulation of the qualifications the student has accomplished. It provides a description of the qualification the student achieved by providing information on the mode of study, length of the program, program requirements, the units studied, grades obtained, grading scheme, along with information on the national higher education system of the country issuing the diploma. This is an effort to provide transparency and fair information about the students' qualifications. This is likely to improve the acceptance of European degrees across participating nations. With a clearer indication of the students' qualifications, this should facilitate employment across borders.

Another effort in quality assurance is the partnership between the World Bank and UNESCO known as the Global Initiative for Quality Assurance Capacity (GIQAC). This effort aims to build quality assurance capacity of higher education in developing countries.

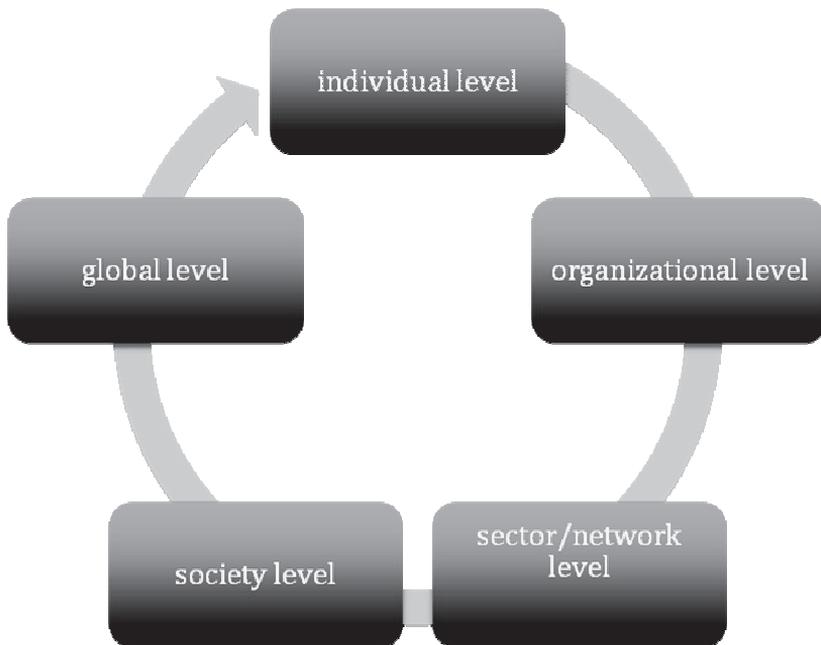
Quality Assurance remains an obstacle that tertiary education providers will face in the future. With the proliferation of foreign study likely to increase this is a significant issue requiring the cooperation and collaboration of many institutions and policy-making bodies across the globe to ensure that students are being served.

4. Favorable Impacts of Cross-Border Tertiary Education

While cross-border education presents a number of challenges, it can provide many positive outcomes. Among these outcomes there is wide agreement that cross-border tertiary education can enhance mutual understanding, help nations with capacity development, generate revenue, and address global issues and concerns. Mutual understanding has been a motivating force since the inception of academic exchange programs. Sharing ideas and learning about new ideas in political, cultural, and academic spheres has always been central to faculty and student exchange programs. It has been shown that exposure to new cultures and the development of strategic alliances leads to closer geo-political affiliations. Mutual understanding renders knowledge as borderless and can move people towards greater appreciation of cultures.

A commonly held goal of cross-border education is the ability to contribute to capacity development. There is no singular definition of capacity development but all of the definitions share the concepts of a process where people, organizations, and societies assist others to strengthen or develop people or nations. This may be done through sharing resources that promote learning, empower people, build social capital, integrate cultures, and create new relationships of mutuality

and reciprocity between societies [Eade 1997; Morgan 1994; Smillie 2001; UNDP 2006; OECD 2006]. Capacity development's goal is sustainable development to improve the lives of people and nations and build the capacity of a country to reap the benefits of a global society. Vincent-Lancrin [2007] described capacity building as a multi-level conceptual framework occurring on the individual level, organizational level, sector/network level, society level, and global level.



The individual is capable of acquiring skills through learning that may or may not come from formal education. However, Vincent-Lancrin believed that formal education is the most common means to transmit knowledge and skill development. At the organizational level capacity development affects the infrastructure or institutions within a country. In cross-border education the effect may be improvement in a university's ability to offer resources to students in its nation. The sector/network level capacity may be improved by better coordination among organizations. In the case of tertiary education, there may be improvement in different kinds of institutions such as research and teaching facilities working together for the benefit of people in its host nation. The final two levels are the most difficult to change and usually take a longer period of time. Societal level addresses conventions, attitudes, values, beliefs and the human frameworks that sustain these. This may include social issues such as racial discrimination, gender equality, political representation to name but

a few. Capacity development at the global level targets improvements in global affairs and the international affiliations the nation operates with.

Education is a key factor in capacity development because of the well-recognized role of tertiary education institutions as providers of knowledge, teaching, and research. As discussed above, knowledge is an engine of economic growth and the role of tertiary education in economic growth has been well established. It is clear that tertiary education brings many economic benefits to the individual such as higher wages, and a greater likelihood for employment. However, in terms of capacity development the gain is realized in the development of human capital. There is a positive correlation between the level of human capital within a country and the national productivity rates. Nations with more human capital will see greater growth rates in gross domestic product. Perhaps more importantly the standard of living increases and citizens will enjoy a higher quality of life. As we can see in Vincent-Lancrin's model, capacity development has the potential to impact multiple levels in positive ways and is a goal societies should strive to attain.

Revenue generation is another by-product of educational internationalization. Tertiary educational institutions, like all other organizations, have been subject to a shifting economy and are forced to deal with increased competition for paying students. Due to the declining economy, we see public institutions in many countries are operating with less governmental support. All the while, operational costs for institutions have continued to escalate. Internationalization has become a part of strategic plans of institutions as a way to diversify their student body, increase their presence in a global world, and find new sources of revenue. The vast majority of tertiary education providers are not-for-profit organizations and new revenues are likely to be dedicated to meet operational costs or as a source for investment in their institution. The new commercial providers may have other goals and this has raised questions about the commoditization of education. Education as a commodity represents a radical shift from the purpose of the university. Revenue generation can appear to transform tertiary education institutions towards entrepreneurial organizations. The internationalization of education coupled with the aspiration of revenue generation may transform the mission and strategic goals of tertiary educational institutions. However, internationalization is only one among many new directions tertiary educational institutions are entering. Some critics are left to wonder if the university is moving from a social institution to an industry that is deferential to market forces [Gumport 2000]. This raises questions if universities and colleges are moving away from the traditional mission of creating and teaching knowledge. This presents another challenge for scholars and administrators alike to reconcile. The changing economic landscape presents a new reality and we can only speculate that tertiary education will become more competitive and market driven as we move toward the future.

5. The Opportunities Ahead

Universities have long been agents of social responsibility and served as think tanks to assist society in meeting emerging trends and help prevent major crises before they occur. There are a multitude of social, political, economic, and health care issues facing people across the world. These global and regional issues may be a rallying point for tertiary institutions to build collaborative relationships to ameliorate our contemporary challenges. International cooperation among tertiary institutions may be able to use the resources of the world to address these issues, seek solutions, and improve responses to eradicate poverty, promote health care, and bring peace to the world. This is a unique opportunity for institutions to work together and sustain the role of the university as a think tank.

As presented above cross-border tertiary education has many potential benefits, but at the same time it presents a number of challenges for administrators, faculty, students, and policy makers. It would appear we are in the nascent stages of the design of an effective cross-border tertiary education model. It is highly likely the leaders will emerge who will shape an effective system that can meet the needs of people worldwide. Cross-border tertiary education offers numerous opportunities for collaboration to help build human capital and capacity development worldwide. Principled scholars and administrators have an opportunity to embrace a unique opportunity to enhance intercultural understanding. If we think of knowledge as border-less and recognize we have a moral responsibility to share precious knowledge resources that create prosperity for all; we would be taking step forward in creating a better world for all people.

In order for cross-border tertiary education to be truly effective it can no longer remain unidirectional. Dominance by the USA, UK and the few other nations leading the way is not intercultural parity. The universities of the world have a long and rich history, multiple perspectives, and knowledge to share so we may all address the future with the greatest amount of collective knowledge. There is room for tertiary institutions of many nations to participate in the true sharing of knowledge and overcome domination by a small group of nations and universities. This is particularly true in doctoral study where the restrictive American model of residency and high costs limits advanced study for many. This may an opportunity for universities in Central Europe and other regions that offer high quality, lower cost, and less restrictive residency model to explore and develop. Such an effort would make knowledge at the highest level more accessible to more people.

The power of economic market forces should not be the sole impetus for educational delivery. An educated citizen contributes to the world in many ways and reducing an education to its economic benefit misses the purpose and intent of knowledge. Better social worlds come about when citizens have a keen sense

of what is right and the consequence of their actions on the world around them. Education is not only necessary for economic success; it is a key component of a successful democracy. Academic integrity should supersede notions of profit. There is ample room for institutions to meet economic goals and increase the base of knowledge. Internationalization has to first be motivated by the desire to make a better world and improve the quality of life for all.

Tertiary institutions worldwide can enhance their status as agents of social responsibility and together they can address the pressing issues of poverty, genocide, human rights and access to health care for all. Cross-border tertiary education delivered in a collaborative model can generate new forms of knowledge and innovation that will benefit all societies.

Abstract

Universities are agents of social responsibility and this paper explores how they can expand this mandate by forging collaborative ventures to produce the worldwide leaders of tomorrow. These international partnerships between universities can instill in future leaders the values and knowledge to build a sustainable future. The significance of international cooperation for the transfer of knowledge across border is critical in meeting the needs of people across the globe. UNESCO has defined cross-border tertiary education as the movement of people, programs, providers, curricula, projects, research and services in tertiary (or higher) education across national jurisdictional borders. Cross-border education is a subset of educational internationalization and can be part of development cooperation projects, academic exchange programs and commercial initiatives in today's globalized era. The mobility of students, professors, knowledge and even values has been part of higher education for centuries, but it has recently grown at an unprecedented pace. The last two decades have seen a significant growth in the mobility of higher education programs and providers through physical and virtual modes of delivery. Parallel to these opportunities are an equal number of challenges: a potential increase in low quality or rogue providers, a lack of recognition of foreign qualifications by domestic employers or education institutions, along with elitism and the tensions it creates.

This paper will present research on several successful models between several institutions of higher education in different nations. These models will demonstrate how universities have take on an anticipatory role by fostering intellectual advancement that contributes to the broader goals of sustainable development, poverty reduction, creation of wealth, and peace and human rights.

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