

No.21, August 2014

RIHE International Seminar Reports

THE INTERNATIONALIZATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION: REALITIES AND IMPLICATIONS

**Report of the International Workshop on
University Reform, 2013**

Organized by: Research Institute for Higher Education, Hiroshima University



Research Institute for Higher Education

HIROSHIMA UNIVERSITY

**RIHE International Seminar Reports
No.21, August 2014**

**Report of the International Workshop on
University Reform, 2013**

**THE INTERNATIONALIZATION OF HIGHER
EDUCATION: REALITIES AND IMPLICATIONS**



Research Institute for Higher Education

HIROSHIMA UNIVERSITY

The Internationalization of Higher Education: Realities and Implications

Edited and Published by

Research Institute for Higher Education

Hiroshima University

2-2, Kagamiyama 1-chome

Higashi-Hiroshima, 739-8512 Japan

TEL: +81-82-424-6240, FAX: +81-82-422-7104

<http://en.rihe.hiroshima-u.ac.jp/>

Printed by:

Nishiki Print Inc.

7-5-33, Shoko Center, Nishi-ku, Hiroshima City,

733-0833, Japan

TEL: +81-82-277-6954, FAX: +81-82-278-6954

August 2014

ISBN978-4-902808-88-9

FOREWORD

The Research Institute for Higher Education (RIHE), Hiroshima University, hosted an international workshop on December 5, 2013. The theme was “The Internationalization of Higher Education: Realities and Implications”. To discuss this theme, we invited three foreign speakers, one Japanese speaker, and one commentator. This volume is a summary report of the excellent presentations they gave at the workshop.

In Europe, people, money, goods, and information have been moving across the continent. So too are higher education, students, and scholars frequently crossing nation borders in the European Union area. In this workshop Dr. Eric Beerkens, Leiden University, the Netherlands, reported the forty year accomplishments and challenges of internationalization of higher education in Europe.

The United States has a somewhat different history of internationalization of higher education, attracting students and scholars from all over the world. Dr. Laura E. Rumbley, Boston College, presented the policy perspectives and practical concerns of the internationalization of American higher education.

Compared to Europe and the United States, Asian countries now face quite different challenges in the internationalization of higher education. As globalization of their economies continues, China, Korea, Japan, and other Asian countries have to train business and industry workers, administrators, and politicians who can work in international settings. Dr. Kiyong Byun, Korea University, reported on English-medium teaching in Korean higher education: policy debates and reality. And Dr. Yuichi Kondo, Ritumeikan Asia Pacific University, Japan, discussed the paradigm shift of the internationalization of Japanese universities. Finally Dr. Futao Huang, RIHE, Hiroshima University, presented the current situation of internationalization of China’s higher education.

After the aforementioned presentations, Dr. Motohisa Kaneko, Tsukuba University, Japan, made comments on each. Through the workshop, we were able to share common problems and also distinguish the different problems and tasks in the internationalization of higher education in each country. Readers will find both in this volume.

The workshop was quite successful since many discussions, questions, and

ii

comments were made exchanged by the participants. I am grateful to all contributors.

August, 2014

Fumihiko Maruyama
Director and Professor
Research Institute for Higher Education,
Hiroshima University

CONTENTS

Foreword

Fumihiro Maruyama i

Presentations

Presentation 1

40 Years of Internationalization in European Higher Education:
Achievements and challenges

Eric Beerkens 1

Presentation 2

Postcard from the United States: Policy perspectives and practical
concerns for the internationalization of American higher education

Laura E. Rumbley 25

Presentation 3

Exploring Effective Strategies to Implement EMI: Case studies of two
Korean universities

Kiyong Byun, Jae-Eun Jon and Young Ha Cho 45

Presentation 4

Japanese Universities and their Internationalization: Is paradigm shift feasible?

Yuichi Kondo 61

Presentation 5

The Internationalization of China's Higher Education: Foci on its transnational
higher education

Futao Huang 75

Appendices

1. Seminar Program 89

2. List of Participants 91

Acknowledgement

We would like to acknowledge the invaluable contribution of Professor Charles R. Barton, University of South Carolina Beaufort, USA, who edited all the manuscripts in this report.

Fumihiro Maruyama
Director & Professor,
Research Institute for Higher Education,
Hiroshima University

Presentations

40 Years of Internationalization in European Higher Education: Achievements and challenges

Eric Beerkens*

Introduction: Europe and higher education

When did higher education become ‘European’? The precise starting date of the process of Europeanization of higher education can be debated. Was it the establishment of the first universities in Italy, England, Spain, and France? These were the first universities in the world and became a model for most of the thousands of universities that emerged in the centuries thereafter. Or should we see the first treaties of the European ‘project’ as the start of a European dimension in higher education? The 1957 EURATOM Treaty and the 1958 Treaty establishing the European Economic Community (EEC) already contained passages on cooperation in science and technology. The first treaties, however, did not transfer any authority in the field of higher education to the European level. Despite this, the European Commission and other European Union (EU) institutions did find opportunities to actively get involved in higher education in the early 1970s, especially by linking education to the free movement of people within the European Community.

Forty years later we can claim that ‘Europe’ has unquestionably left its mark on higher education in Europe. Through the involvement of EU institutions, higher education in the EU member states has gained a stronger European but also a stronger international dimension. Mobility of students within Europe and between Europe and the rest of the world has increased and institutions and their academic staff increasingly collaborate with each other to improve their education and research.

* Senior Advisor for International Affairs, Leiden University, The Netherlands, email: h.j.g.beerkens@BB.leidenuniv.nl

The process of Europeanization of higher education reversed a centuries long process of nationalization of universities. In the past few centuries universities became more firmly embedded in the nation state. Their students, their funding, their regulative framework, *etc.*, all were impacted by the strong role of the nation state. The past forty years this process has been slightly reversed and the international dimension in higher education is gaining importance. The organizational field (in the meaning of DiMaggio and Powell's (1983) definition as "sets of organizations that constitute a recognized area of institutional life") of the contemporary university has become more international and transnational in nature. Staff and students, regulatory agencies, funders, and competitors increasingly operate across borders and are less bound by national contexts than half a century ago. In this paper we will analyze the processes of Europeanization and internationalization of higher education in Europe and the challenges they bring.

The Europeanization of higher education

The Europeanization of higher education can be conceptualized by three interrelated processes:

1. The Europeanization of higher education policies through the emergence of a supranational polity;
2. The Europeanization of academic activities through increased academic interaction and exchange within Europe; and
3. The Europeanization of higher education systems through harmonization.

The first process is a political process: the establishment of education as a domain of European policy. This began at the signing of the Treaty of Rome in 1958 and the signing of the Maastricht Treaty in 1992 can be seen as a major milestone in this process. In Maastricht, the European policy makers managed to pull education into the competence of the EU. Although education was not within the formal authority of the European Community – the term was not mentioned in the first European treaties – education became a division within the Directorate General for Research Science and Education in the 1970s. It took, however, until the 1992 Maastricht Treaty to include education in the Treaty. Articles 126 and 127 stated that:

The Community shall contribute to the development of quality education

by encouraging cooperation between Member States and, if necessary, by supporting and supplementing their action, while fully respecting the responsibility of the Member States for the content of teaching and the organization of education systems and their cultural and linguistic diversity.

The latter part of this paragraph clearly shows the sensitivity of European policy in the field of education. Teaching content and the organization of education was a national matter, not a European one. In addition, education was subjected to the subsidiarity principle, meaning that Community action can only be taken if national actions are not sufficient.

The second development was the increased interaction and mobility in European higher education and research. This started with the first European education program in 1976. From this point on, the internationalization of education became part of European academic life. Only in 1987, however, the first large scale European education program was established. This was what became the European flagship program named ERASMUS. This program for the first time brought about substantial flows of students between European countries. Student mobility was – and still is – the cornerstone of the European programs and through it, young Europeans gained an understanding of other European cultures and developed some form of European identity. In this sense, the program was very much an instrument to support the European integration project. The program also made international mobility an option for many, not so much through its funding but through the institutionalization of international mobility within universities. Universities set up infrastructures to deal with new demands of students and staff, leading also to an increase of mobility outside of the Erasmus Programs.

What's more, Erasmus developed into more than a mobility program. After 1995, staff exchange and curriculum development also became part of the activities. Erasmus was also a prime networking instrument, bringing academics and administrators from around Europe together to collaborate and communicate. The same was true for the European research policies, and in particular the Framework Programs. Cooperation in partnerships and consortia and combining strengths of different universities were a major objective of these European policies. Several decades of research cooperation has made 'Europe' a more natural playing field for academics in European research universities.

A final development started at the end of the twentieth century and can also be seen as a development triggered by the increase in European policies and European interaction. This created an awareness of the diversity of systems in

Europe and an acknowledgement of the fact that this patchwork of national higher education systems can create obstacles for further cooperation and exchange and creates inefficiencies from a pan-European perspective. Making a single European Higher Education Area from this patchwork was the main objective of the initiators of the Sorbonne and Bologna Declarations.

The Sorbonne and Bologna Declarations of 1998 and 1999 were intergovernmental actions, initiated by Germany, France, Italy and the United Kingdom in the Sorbonne in 1998 but extended to 29 countries in Bologna in 1999 and growing to 47 countries in 2010. In the 1999 Bologna Declaration, national governments agreed to harmonize their education systems. Objectives were to:

- adopt a system of easily readable and comparable degrees;
- adopt a system with two main cycles (undergraduate/graduate);
- establish a system of credits (ECTS);
- promote mobility by overcoming legal recognition and administrative obstacles;
- promote European co-operation in quality assurance; and
- promote a European dimension in higher education.

These were supplemented by new action lines in the course of the process, for instance, to promote the attractiveness of the European Higher Education Area and the promotion of the social dimension in the Bologna Process. Although the European Commission was initially not a participant in this process, they – together with the Council of Europe – became facilitators of the Bologna Process.

European cooperation was not just seen as an instrument for European integration and mobility and for quality enhancement of European higher education, but also became an instrument for improving Europe's economic competitiveness in an increasingly globalized world. Through a more flexible and more innovative higher education system, European universities were increasingly considered as engines of economic growth and as crucial determinants of a country's competitiveness. This narrative was very much part of the European 'Lisbon Agenda'. This agenda developed in parallel with the Bologna Process. Together with an ongoing discourse about the crisis of European universities (partially caused by the emergence of international rankings), this paved the way for a closer alignment of the collaboration based Bologna Process with the competition based Lisbon Agenda. Ultimately this

has *de facto* led to the convergence of the Bologna Process and the Lisbon Agenda into one policy framework (Huisman & van der Wende, 2004, pp. 34-35).

Harmonizing education systems thus became an instrument not only for stimulating cooperation and exchange but even more for strengthening the attractiveness and quality of Europe higher education as a whole, with the ultimate aim of strengthening Europe's competitiveness in the global economy.

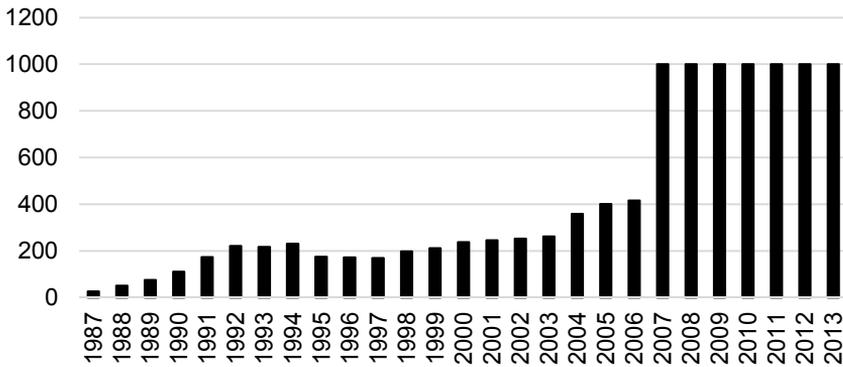
Achievements

The developments of the past 40 years that we identified above have shaped the European field of higher education. In March 2010 in the city of Budapest, the governments of the 47 countries involved in the Bologna Process launched the European Higher Education Area. Whether the Bologna objectives had actually been achieved is debatable. What can be concluded is that the European dimension has gained an important position in the life of European higher education institutions. Universities in Europe can no longer be seen as purely national institutions, operating in national systems, subjected to national policies. In this section, evidence is provided of the impact of these three processes and what has been achieved is analyzed.

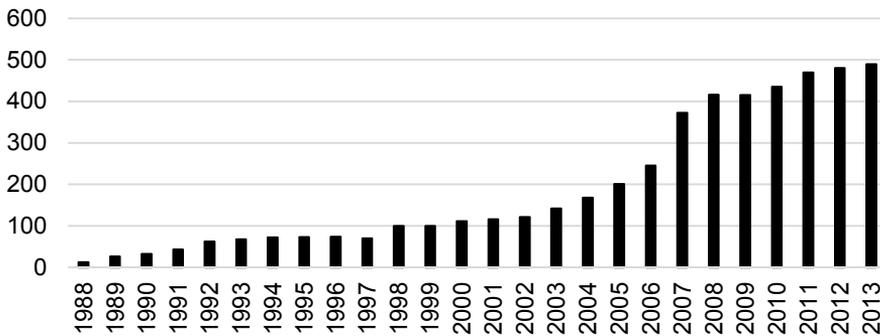
Europe as a new polity in higher education

The inclusion of 'education' in the Maastricht Treaty was a major milestone in the Europeanization of higher education policies and politics. If one looks at the distributive role of European institutions, for instance, a clear rise in the budget of the Commission's education and research programs in the past 30 or 40 years can be seen (Figure 1).

The budget on education increased gradually since the start of the Erasmus Program in 1987. In the Socrates programs (1994-2000 and 2000-2006) this increase slowed down. It was especially with the start of the Lifelong Learning Program (LLP, covering the whole sector of education) that investments in education really became substantial. The LLP had a budget of almost 7 billion Euros over 7 years. If one only looks at the budget spent on student and staff exchanges in higher education, one sees a similar pattern: a gradual increase from 1987 until 2006, with spending increasing strongly in the LLP, reaching almost half a billion in 2013 (Figure 2).



**Figure 1. Annual EU budget for education 1987-2013 (in M€)
(European Commission, 2006)**



**Figure 2. Annual Erasmus budget for student and staff mobility (M€)
(European Commission, 2013)**

The budget for the new ERASMUS+ program, which will start in 2014 will be 14.7 billion Euros. The European Commission initially asked for a budget of 19 billion Euros for a seven year period, a significant increase compared to the 7 billion of the LLP. The EU budget negotiations (between the Commission and the member states) have resulted in the budget of 14.7 billion. Substantially less than the budget the Commission asked for, but still a doubling compared to the LLP budget.

Of the budget, two thirds will go to mobility programs in all levels of education. The majority of this will be earmarked for higher education. About a quarter of the budget will be earmarked for collaborative projects

between higher education institutions and between higher education institutions and industry. The remaining part will go to support for policy reform.

A similar trend can be observed if one looks at the EU's involvement in research. The first Framework Program for Research was launched in 1984 and had a budget of almost 3.3 billion Euros for a four year period. This has increased tenfold in the last thirty years with the budget for 2013 totaling more than 10 billion Euros (Figure 3). In 2014, the successor of the Seventh Framework Program will commence. The European Commission initially proposed a budget of 80 billion Euros for the seven year period until 2020. The end result is likely to be closer to 70 billion. Still a substantial increase from the almost 56 billion Euro budget of the Seventh Framework Program.

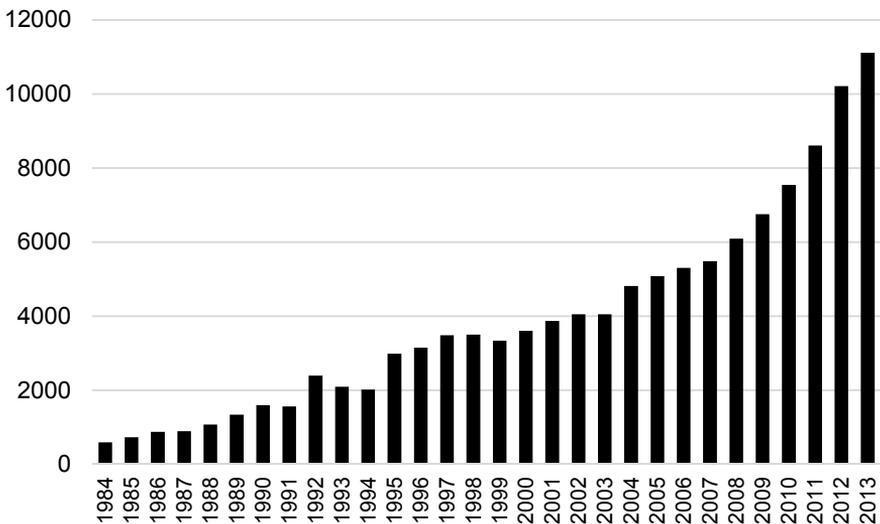


Figure 3: Annual EU budget for research 1984-2013 (M€) (European Commission, 2012a)

In addition to its distributive role, the EU also plays an important legislative role. If one considers the legislative actions of the European institutions, one can observe a rise in secondary legislation related to education and research¹. Many directives were issued in order to implement article 57(1) EEC on the recognition of qualifications in various sectors in order to enable the free movement of labor. But directives were also issued for matters like the

¹ Directives and Regulations in force under classifications 16.30 (Education and Training) and 16.10 (Science) according to EurLex, see also: Beerkens, 2008)

education of children of migrant workers, the right of residence for students, and the admission of third country nationals for the purpose of studies or scientific research.

The formal adoption of education as a policy competence of the EU has also been influenced by policy domains that had no direct but an indirect connection with education. For instance, the free movement of workers in the EU also created a push for more transparency and recognition of professional degrees and it created rights for ‘social advantages’ like student financial support for workers and their children. In addition, the non-discrimination principle prohibited different treatment of students on the basis of their nationality. This, for instance, meant that tuition fees charged to other EU nationals could not be higher than those for domestic students. These legal developments enabled the Commission to take a more active role in education policy in the EU. But in this domain, it was especially the European Court of Justice (ECJ) that caused an expansion of the authority of European institutions in education and research. The number of ECJ cases that significantly impacted education and research increased to around 60 in 2005, with peaks in the late 1980s and the early 2000s (Figure 4; for a discussion on these cases: see Beerkens, 2008²).

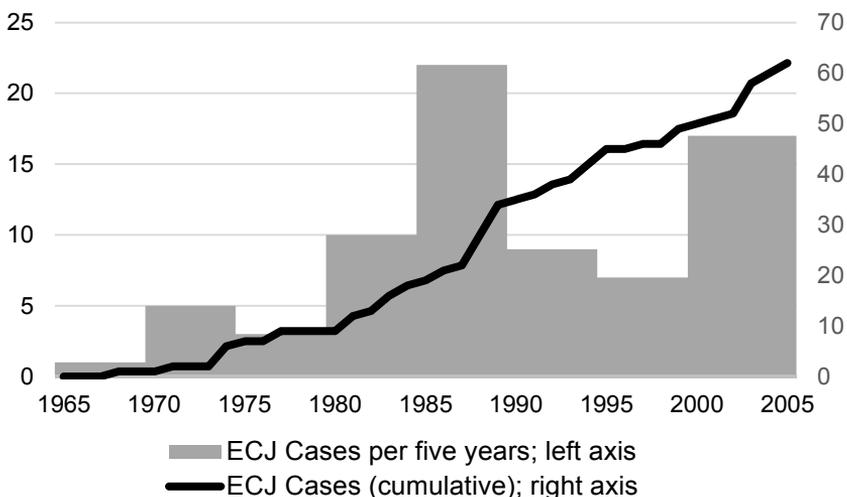


Figure 4. ECJ cases related to education and research (Beerkens, 2008)

² All judgments of the ECJ that are related to (higher) education and research or had a major impact on it. The list was compiled on the basis of various secondary resources (De Witte, 1989; McMahon, 1995; Tudor, 2005) and searches in the EurLex Database.

The observations above demonstrate that the EU is becoming a significant player in higher education and research policies. Both in terms of resources and regulative activity, they have strengthened their position in Europe and thus established Europe as an arena for higher education and research policy.

Yet, this picture might also require some nuance. After all, the subsidiarity principle limits the power of the EU institutions to get involved in education issues. Most of the interference from Europe, therefore, is related to issues arising from the creation of a European single market. They are related to issues like the rights of immigrants; the recognition of qualifications across borders; and the treatment of nationals *vis-à-vis* other EU citizens. The actions of the Commission and other EU institutions are not directed towards issues like curricula, teaching and learning, autonomy of institutions, *etc.* But what one can observe is that some core aspects of education and education policies are indirectly affected by European policies through so-called spill-overs. The central thesis here is that integration within one sector will tend to cause its own impetus and spread to other sectors. The establishment of supranational institutions designed to deal with functionally specific tasks will set in motion economic, social, and political processes which generate pressures towards further integration. This is the logic subsumed under the headings of ‘spill-over’ or ‘the expansive logic of sector integration’. Functional spill-overs occur when the integration in one policy-area spills over into others because these issue areas are inter-connected. For instance, measures in social policy (*e.g.* the right to social support for immigrants) can affect higher education policies through changes in student financial support.

Europe as a new arena for academic activities

The main instrument through which European institutions have influenced higher education in Europe was through the promotion of mobility. The growth of international mobility, however, was not just a process guided by European level programs. It is also a phenomenon that is driven by processes of globalization (and a phenomenon that in turn causes further globalization). Yet the Erasmus Programs can be seen as the dominant driver for credit mobility (mobility to obtain credits in another country, as opposed to degree or diploma mobility) and has witnessed a vast expansion in the past decades (Figure 5). From a few thousand a year in the late 1980s, Erasmus mobility has grown to over 200,000 students every year in the current decade. What needs to be realized is that there is also a significant number of students that go abroad for

studies and internships and do not receive an Erasmus grant. Therefore, they are not included in these statistics.

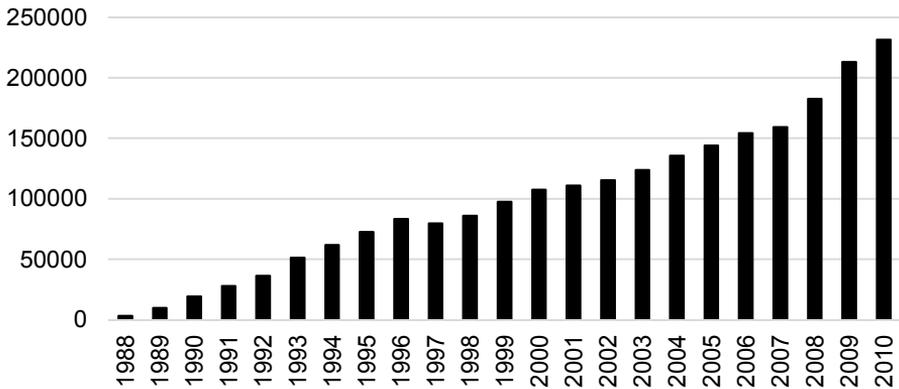


Figure 5. Number of Erasmus students 1987-2010 (European Commission, 2012b)

In the 1990s, Erasmus became part of the two consecutive Socrates programs. This also brought along more instruments for cooperation. This was prolonged in the LLP. The latest step was the adoption of the ERASMUS+ program, planned to start in 2014. Part of the program focuses on widening participation in the mobility program; another part on strategic partnerships; and other forms of cooperation and a last part on policy support.

The emphasis on cooperation and exchange has also led to the creation of numerous partnerships between institutions and the emergence of a wide variety of associations and networks aimed at bringing European students, teachers and scientists together. In the Socrates framework alone, more than 860 cooperative actions were coordinated by higher education institutions in Europe between 1994 and 2004 (ISOC, 2007). These have resulted in joint curricula, joint conferences, research reports, publications and a wide range of other actions that promote joint knowledge creation and dissemination. In the framework of Erasmus Mundus, the Commission requires the establishment of higher education consortia in order to offer a joint Masters program. Since the launch of Erasmus Mundus, more than one hundred of such consortia are active. In the field of research, the prerequisite of cooperation is also apparent. For most of the Framework Program activities, researchers are required to form networks with colleagues from other Member States. All these cooperative activities require communication by phone, email, and internet; face-to-face

meetings of academics and other staff; and the exchange of information and ideas.

But it is not just about organized cooperation in the European programs. Higher education and research have always been characterized by international cooperation but cooperation has become easier because of open borders and new technologies. The result of the intense cooperation and exchange of ideas and information can, for instance, also be observed if one looks at scientific publications. Here, the growth in international joint publications is a phenomenon that can also be observed in Europe. Jonathan (2013) found that, over more than three decades, domestic output (papers that list only authors from the home country) has stabilized in the United States and in Western European countries. The rise in total annual output for each country is due to international collaboration. As a result, the percentage of papers that are entirely ‘home grown’ is falling. What’s more, he found that impact scores for jointly authored papers tend to be higher than for domestic papers.

This collaborative environment has institutionalized in the past few decades in the form of a dense network of academic associations. In Europe it has led to a vast increase in the number of academic organizations. In the past 40 years, at least 700 of such organizations have been established (Figure 6). Most of them are associations organized around disciplines and subdisciplines. Major growth can be observed in the late eighties and early nineties. Considering that establishing such an organization can take multiple years, it is plausible to assume that this rise of associations is related to the emergence of European research and education programs (in 1984 and 1987 respectively).

In these academic communities, the exchange of information and ideas and collaboration to create new knowledge are the primary goals. Within such organizations, conferences and journals function as the vehicles for communication and information exchange. Not surprisingly, the development of disciplinary journals, therefore, shows a similar pattern.

For the everyday life of academics, this means that ‘Europe’ has become increasingly important. Their research networks and also their classrooms do not consist only of domestic researchers and students, but of researchers and students from all over Europe and beyond Europe. They become more dependent on European colleagues for obtaining their research funding and their audience is targeted through European and international journals much more than ever before. The academic arena has become European and even global in scope in the past decades.

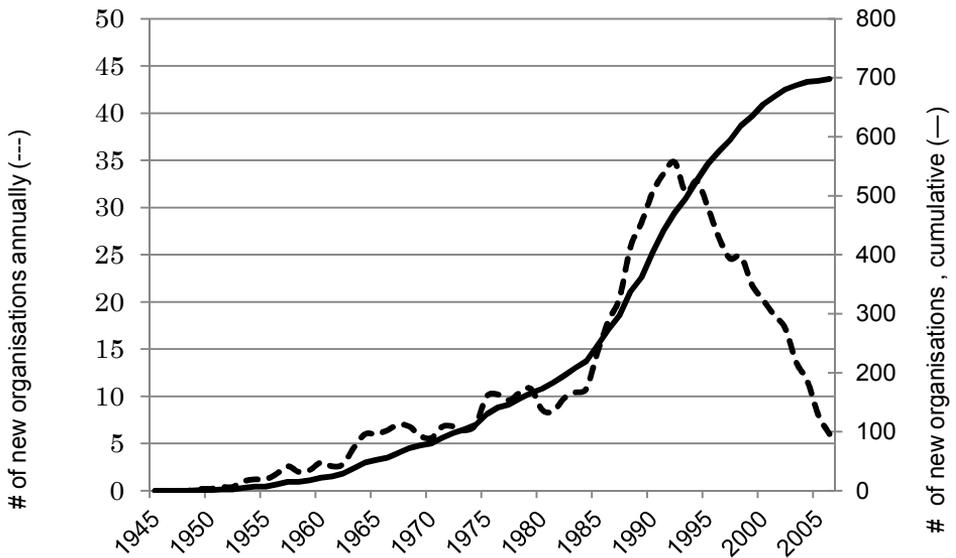


Figure 6. Growth of European organizations and associations in education and research (various sources³)

Europe as a harmonized higher education system

Europe has developed in a mosaic of education systems. With the ongoing mobility of students, academics and other European citizens, this diverse nature of European higher education has become more apparent. At multiple levels of the European polity, the need for more harmonization and more transparency has been voiced. A high level of diversity existed in the types of programs and their comparability, in systems of and ideas about quality assurance, in the university degrees, *etc.* The Bologna Process was intended to harmonize these systems or at least make the differences more transparent.

After more than ten years since the start of the Bologna Process, can one really speak of a harmonized system? Probably not, but evaluations and impact studies of the Bologna Process have shown that major steps were taken (*e.g.* Westerheijden *et al.*, 2010). Higher education across the 47 participating countries looks substantially different from the situation at the start of the

³ The list was compiled from various sources, including the Yearbook of International Organizations (Union of International Associations, 2005), the Directory of European associations in the field of education (European Commission, 1999) and various Internet searches. The list is restricted to organizations with a multinational membership covering a substantial part of Europe.

process. Degree structures and curricula have been reformed, certain instruments have been much more widely applied (for instance, the Lisbon Recognition Convention, the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS), Diploma Supplements, quality assurance, qualifications frameworks, *etc.*) and this in turn has contributed to making European higher education more attractive in the world.

One of the most visible instruments for realizing harmonization was the introduction of a two cycle (three if the Ph.D. is included) degree structure. This has now been implemented in nearly all countries of the European Higher Education Area. Yet, the way it was implemented still shows a diverse picture. Most countries have adopted even differences within the national systems. The Netherlands, for instance, allows both four year and three Bachelor programs (four for the Universities of Applied Sciences and three for the Research Universities) and one and two year Master programs (one for regular Masters and two for research Masters). In this way, we cannot really speak of a harmonized system in Europe. There is still much variety in the length of programs in terms of years or ECTS credits. The ECTS system itself has been implemented in nearly all systems; the few exceptions all use ECTS-compatible systems. However, determining the weight of ECTS credits is based on different considerations in different countries. According to the European Commission, 'ECTS is a student-centered system based on the student workload required to achieve the objectives of the program of study. These objectives should be specified in terms of learning outcomes and competences to be acquired' (Directorate-General for Education and Culture, 2004). However, this is the case only in a minority of the Bologna countries. About half of the countries use only learning outcomes or only the workload concept, and a quarter of the participating countries use neither (Westerheijden *et al.*, 2010).

The extent to which the key objectives of Bologna will be achieved is still an open question. Achieving some of the desired outcomes will require many years of post-implementation experience and even among countries that have shown early progress, compatibility and comparability have not yet been fully achieved. Still, one can safely conclude that a process towards more harmonization has commenced in 1999 and that major steps have already been taken. Whether this will lead to a harmonized European higher education system remains to be seen, but at least it has created an awareness of the differences and it has made these differences much more transparent.

Intermezzo: Europeanization and/or internationalization?

For individual nation states, it is clear that internationalization is about opening up to other countries. In the case of Europe this is less clear. Is internationalization limited to the relation between Europe and the rest of the world? Or does it include internal European dynamics (as analyzed in this paper)? One could best claim it is both. European countries, unlike most other countries in the world, operate in a real multilevel polity. They are part of Europe (or even different Europes) while also being part of the wider global system. In this regard, the European internationalization dynamics are a subset of the wider, global internationalization dynamics.

Operating in the European system can, on the one hand, be compared to operating in the global system; on the other hand it can be compared to operating in federal systems.

Operating in the global system of higher education often means operating in a policy vacuum and at the same time being hindered by national obstacles. The 'global' is not an entity coordinated by supranational organizations. Although international organizations (like the World Bank, UNESCO, OECD) might occupy important positions in global higher education they do not function as a supranational coordinator of international activities. In Europe this is different and in this sense it might resemble a federalist state. The EU institutions monitor whether countries are really complying with the internal market rules that have been laid down in various treaties and they might call for new legislation when new obstacles arise. In this way it does create a supranational hierarchy operating above the separate nation states.

Yet for many students and academics operating in this European system is like operating in a global system. It brings many of the same challenges even though cultural distances might seem relatively small. Although a process of harmonization might be set in motion, students and academics are still confronted with many challenges if they decide to study or work in another European country. This is also the reason why intra-European internationalization has contributed so much to the wider internationalization of European higher education institutions. Universities in Europe in the 1980s and 1990s have set up infrastructures, and developed skills and expertise to deal with international exchange, cooperation and recruitment. Although these activities were initially predominantly European in scope, this infrastructure and expertise now also serves the cooperation and exchange with other countries and regions in the world.

It is this position which makes European internationalization an interesting process, and also a challenging one. European higher education, and its institutions, its students, academics, and leadership, navigate between their national policy domains and the emerging – inter-national – European polity. This brings along questions about the balance between national and European governance; about the extent of solidarity with other member states; and about the role of national sensitivities in the wider European system. These are issues that are typical for nations that are moving from purely independent nation-states to more supranational systems. In this regard, these are also exemplary for what is happening in the wider global system (which is also typified by increasing interconnectedness and integration of activities, albeit on a smaller scale than within Europe). Three challenges arising from these issues will be discussed in the next section.

Some challenges ahead

The financial implications of European (degree) mobility

The way higher education is funded is fully located within the authority of the individual European nation states (or the subnational states in case of federations like Germany). If one looks at the amount of money spent on higher education, one sees rather substantial differences between the countries of the European Higher Education Area (Figure 7, based on purchasing power parity).

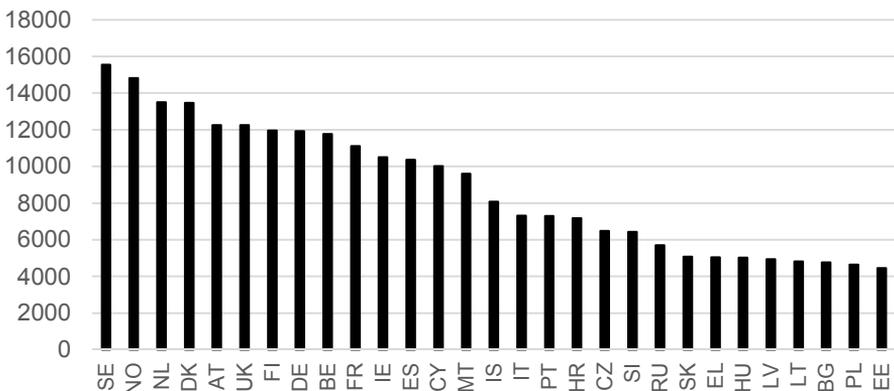


Figure 7. Annual public expenditure on tertiary educational institutions per full-time equivalent student in Euros PPS, 2008 (Eurydice, 2012)

In some countries, public subsidies in higher education are supplemented by tuition fees. The United Kingdom, with many institutions asking tuition fees of more than 10000 Euros, has the highest fees in the EU. In many of the countries charging tuition fees, the fees are far from cost covering and the government still subsidizes the major part of a student’s education. Finally there is the group of countries charging no tuition fees. In those countries where governments still fully or predominantly subsidize a student’s higher education, major imbalances between inflow and outflow of students from or to the EER countries can cause financial problems. Usually this is not the case when we are talking about large inflows of students from outside the EER because a country can set higher fees for non-EER students. In several court rulings the ECJ, however, confirmed that tuition fees or other costs such as registration fees cannot be higher for foreign EER students than for domestic students. At the same time, these programs need to be accessible to those foreign EER students and certain requirements should not form an indirect form of discrimination based on nationality.

Countries like Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Czech Republic, and the Netherlands, will all face extra costs in subsidizing their higher education systems due to a net inflow of EER students (Figure 8). In the end, national governments will need to fund the education of these foreign students. Comparing this to a federal system like the United States makes an interesting comparison. In the United States individual states are allowed to charge in state and out-of-state tuition fees, this is not allowed in EU member states.

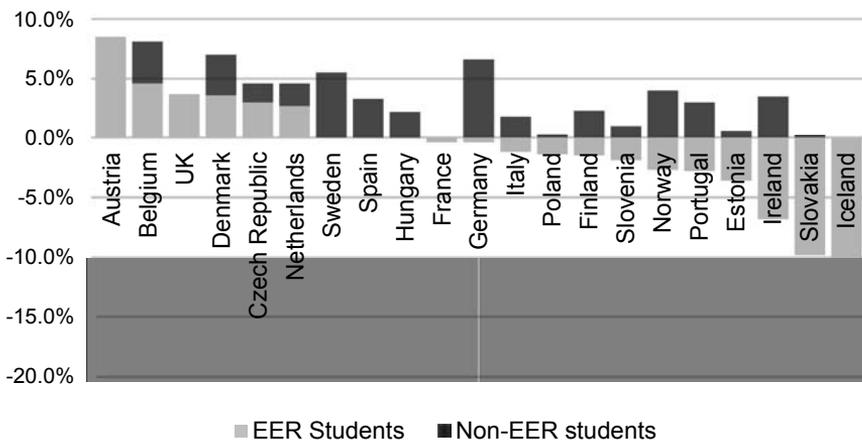


Figure 8. Net flows of foreign students (CPB, 2012; based on OECD data)

Whether this will actually lead to problems remains to be seen. It has led to public and political discussions in countries like Belgium, the Netherlands, Sweden, and Austria. Such discussions were either focused on the fact that countries could not limit the influx of foreign students to their regulated programs (e.g. medicine, veterinary sciences) or on the fact that national taxpayers' money was used for the education of foreign students. A study in the Netherlands – where the latter discussion emerged – however, found that every foreign student will contribute much more to the economy than he or she benefited from a Dutch higher education (CPB, 2012) and that, therefore, the Netherlands should remain open to foreign students (including EER students) but should also focus on retaining them for the Dutch labor market (SER, 2013).

Wherever the benefits or costs may go, the complexity of national education funding in a Europeanized higher education area makes clear that it is necessary to look at such issues from a pan-European perspective. It is simply not possible anymore to calculate all the national costs and benefits in an area where more and more people move, be it for work, for education, or both. Such a pan-European view, however, is not yet reality in the current EU.

Inequalities in mobility and cooperation

Whether one looks at the 48 country European Higher Education Area as a whole, or at the 28 country EU, it is impossible to ignore the fact that developments have not taken place equally everywhere. Based on rankings and bibliometric data, there is still a considerable quality difference in Europe, in particular between Northwestern Europe and the rest of Europe. As a result one sees certain dynamics in European higher education and research.

If one looks at mobility between countries, one sees that the United Kingdom, Switzerland, and Austria, and to a lesser extent, France, Germany, Belgium, Sweden, and Denmark are the most attractive destinations for European students (Figure 9). The countries receiving less than average foreign students are all Central and Eastern European countries. Similarly, if one looks at research cooperation, one sees that the central nodes of the European publication networks are formed by these same countries and that the newer member states are still at the periphery of this landscape (Figure 10).

Like most other countries, it is inevitable that Europe will also have its stronger and weaker regions. The fact that the redistributive role of the EU is very small compared to many other federalist states and especially the fact that this is mainly a division of the EU 15 and the newer member states, makes this a

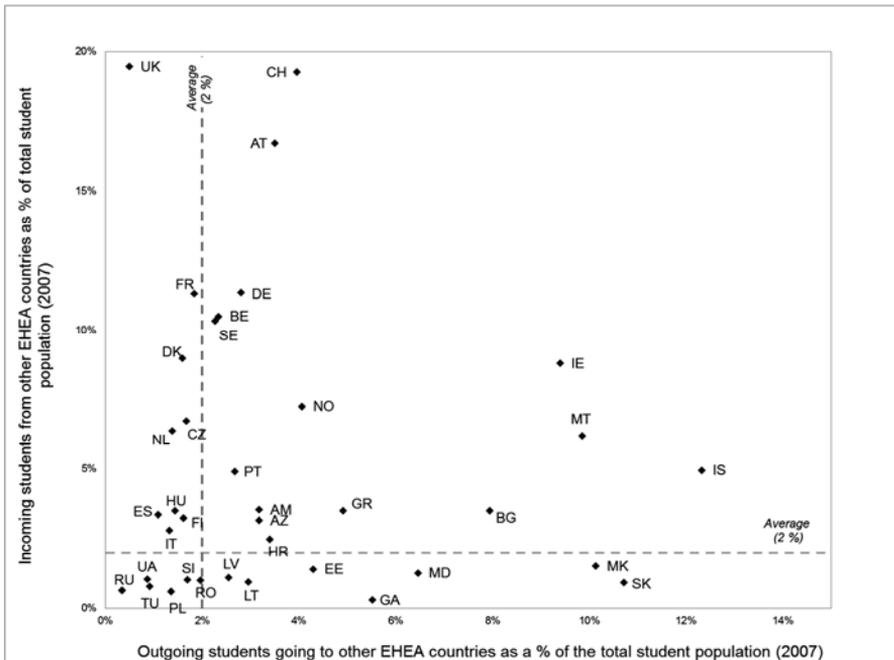


Figure 9. Incoming and outgoing foreign students from and to other EHEA countries (based on data from UNESCO Institute of Statistics)

politically undesirable situation. As a result, the European Commission has applied many instruments to close this gap. On the other hand, especially in the research domain, the Commission promotes excellence, and research funding is channelled towards the most excellent researchers and research groups. It is one major challenge of the new H2020 program to find a balance in this excellence versus inequality dilemma.

Homogenizing tendencies and the rise of English

A final challenge addressed here is the tendency towards convergence and homogenization, in particular in terms of language. Globalization in general and also processes of regional integration comprise tendencies towards convergence and homogenization. The Bologna Process was even more explicit in this through its focus on harmonization. The words convergence and homogenization, however, were painstakingly avoided. The idea of converging all education system into one Anglo Saxon model was and remains unpopular. European institutions, therefore, were careful to include aspects of cultural, linguistic and system diversity in the narratives surrounding the Bologna

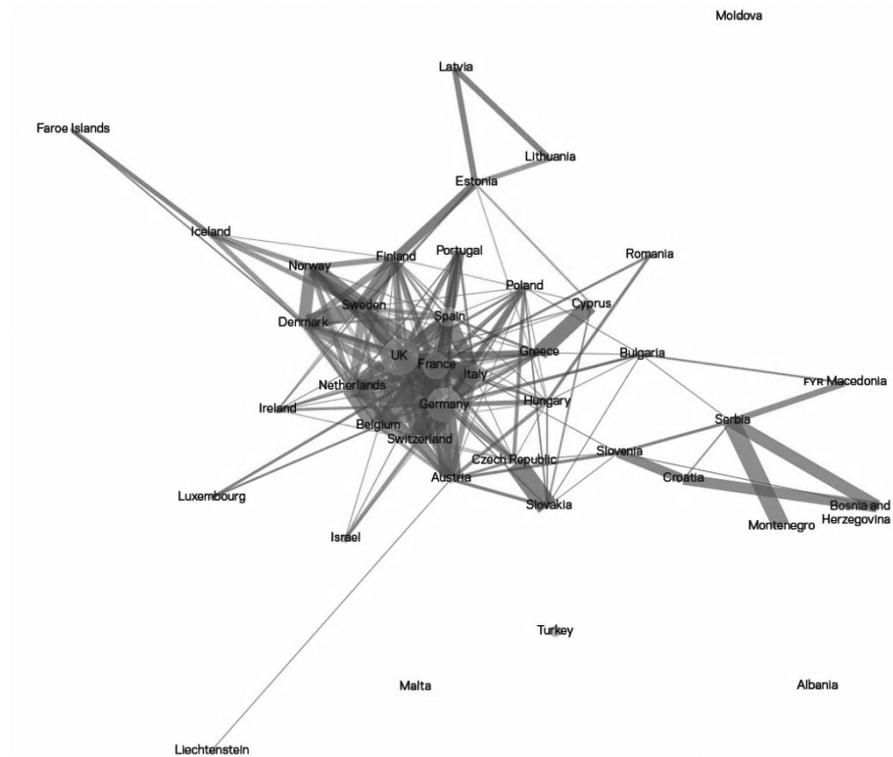


Figure 10. Network map of research collaboration between European countries, 2007-2011 (Kamalski & Plume, 2013⁴)

Process. In terms of the diversity of systems one can conclude that sufficient discretion was given to the participating countries to fulfil the Bologna demands and still keep their own historically and culturally grown versions. The focus has not been on removing obstacles through diminishing differences but through making differences transparent and comparable.

The linguistic diversity in Europe has always been an attractive aspect of the European Higher Education Area and the early Erasmus programs were very much focused on exploiting this linguistic diversity. However, with the global rise of English as the lingua franca of academia, the increase in global mobility and the introduction of the two cycle structure in many European countries, a move towards more English taught courses can be observed. With the two

⁴ Outputs included are articles, reviews and conference papers indexed in sources covered by Scopus, primarily journals, conference proceedings, book series, and trade publications. Collaboration is inferred by the pattern of co-authorship.

cycle structure, it became easier for countries to provide part of their programs in English. Leiden University in the Netherlands, for instance, decided to offer nearly all of its Master programs in English when the two cycle structure was implemented in the early 2000's. Similar transitions have been made at other Dutch universities and universities throughout Europe. Especially the smaller countries – and smaller languages – show a relatively high number of English taught Master programs (Figure 11). Most Bachelor programs are still taught in Dutch, but a selection of courses is provided in English in order to enable international student exchanges in the Bachelor. The last decade we also witness a growth in English taught Bachelor programs, especially in those programs with an international dimension.

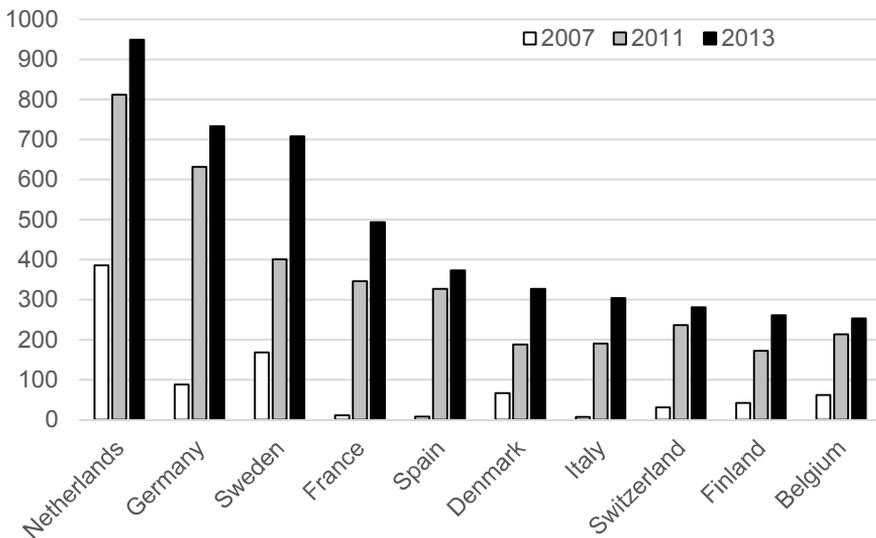


Figure 11. English taught Master programs in Europe 2007-2013 (IIE, 2013)

This new linguistic situation in continental European universities is not without challenges. Teaching staff need to be trained to teach in English, courses need to be converted into English and an international perspective needs to be added. But also support staff will need to deal with international students, communication should be done in English or be bilingual, *etc.* Since an academic education does not end when students set foot out of the classroom, the introduction of English as a language of instruction has wide-ranging effects on all aspects of academic life.

In the frontrunner countries in terms of the relative number of English

taught programs – the Netherlands, Belgium, Finland, Denmark, Switzerland, and Sweden – there might not be a fear that English will take over the local language as such. There are, however, fears for losing the local language as a ‘language of science’. In addition there are worries about the way learning in a second language affects the process of learning. On the other side, these countries all recognize the value of internationalization, cooperation and intercultural interaction. In this regard, the rise of English taught programs should be seen as a pragmatic one. International cooperation and exchange simply needs a common language, and the only real candidate for such a lingua franca in the current world is the English language.

Conclusions: Europe as an exceptional case study?

This paper analyzed how higher education in Europe has become more European and international and what challenges arise from this development. What can be concluded is that Europe has been successful in internationalizing its higher education, in terms of academic activities, but also in terms of the emergence of a European polity and harmonization in Europe’s diverse systems of higher education. This concluding section explores to what extent these developments and challenges are particular for Europe and to what extent they can extrapolated to the global level.

The internationalization of academic activities is a development that can be observed in most regions in the world and is also driven by the process of globalization. The increasing mobility of student and researchers is a phenomenon that can be observed in other places in the world as well. Europe, however, has played a pioneering role in this process because – already at an early stage – internationalization was high on the EU’s agenda.

The harmonization of systems is also a process that extends beyond the European higher education area. The Lisbon Convention on recognition was signed and ratified by many countries outside Europe. What’s more, a process of convergence can be observed throughout the world. This is not driven by international or supranational entities or imposed by certain powerful countries, but it is more a process of educational borrowing and lending (Steiner-Khamsi, 2004) or policy transfer (Dolowitz & Marsh, 2000). Through these processes certain models for higher education spread throughout the world and, even though those models are adopted differently on a local level, this contributes to the global convergence in higher education (Beerkens, 2010). In Europe, however, the process of harmonization has been facilitated by the fact that an

organizational infrastructure to facilitate this process was already in existence. In addition, the EU members of the Bologna participants had a legal and political infrastructure to support certain measures.

This infrastructure has led to the Europeanization of the higher education and research policy domain. In this regard, the developments in Europe are truly different than those in other parts of the world. There are regional blocs where also some limited form of authority transfer can be observed (*e.g.* ASEAN, MERCOSUR, EAC, SADC) but this is politically far less developed than the EU. For now it is the only regional block where one can really talk about a form of supranational government and where nation-states have truly given up autonomy voluntarily to this higher level of governance.

If one looks at the challenges that were identified, one can also conclude that these constitute challenges at the global level, albeit in very different forms. Considering there is no supranational authority coordinating the distribution of higher education as a global public good, the financial arrangements in the international student market are based mainly on free market principles supported by numerous national and international loan or scholarship systems to provide opportunities for those who do not have sufficient resources. The challenge observed in Europe are not apparent in the global market because governments and/or institutions are autonomous in the amount of fees they charge.

The inequity in international student flows and the uneven distribution in research networks is clearly something that can also be observed at the global level. As is the case in Europe, mobility of students is characterized by South-North and East-West flows, and the nodes in the networks of research collaboration are still concentrated in Europe, North America and Japan. Nevertheless, at the European as well as the global level there are signs of emerging knowledge countries. In Europe they are located mainly in the East (Poland, Czech Republic, Baltics), globally they are located mainly in Asia and Latin America (China, Korea, Singapore, Brazil). Yet there are still many parts of Europe and parts of other continents that see too many of their talented people leave and are not able to benefit from the current mobility patterns. Despite of terms like brain exchange and brain circulation, brain drain is still very much a part of the current global knowledge system.

The rise of English as a lingua franca is undoubtedly a global phenomenon. Although languages like French and Spanish are still very influential in determining student flows, these large language systems become more isolated. In order to be truly open to students throughout the world, offering education in

English is almost a *sine qua non*.

Europe has played a pioneering role in the internationalization of higher education and research. This is thanks to the process of regional integration that the EU started at a relatively early stage. This has given Europe an advantage in adapting its universities to this process. At the same time, it has also led to a rather inward looking Europe. While European countries and European universities are busy with the expansion of their activities to the European level, the rest of the world also finds itself in a rapid process of globalization. Here, European universities face many untapped opportunities that they can and should pursue.

References

- Jonathan, A. (2013). Collaborations: The fourth age of research. *Nature*, 497, 557–560.
- Beerkens, E. (2008). The Emergence and Institutionalisation of the European Higher Education and Research Area. *European Journal of Education*, 43(4), 407-425
- Beerkens, E. (2010). Global models for the national research university: adoption & adaptation in Indonesia and Malaysia. *Globalisation, Societies and Education* 8(3), 369 - 391.
- CPB (2012). *De economische effecten van internationalisering in het hoger onderwijs* (The economic effects of the internationalisation of higher education). The Hague: CPB.
- De Witte, B. (Ed.) (1989). *European Community Law of Education*. Baden-Baden: Nomos Verlag.
- DiMaggio, P.J., & Powell, W.W. (1983). The iron cage revisited: Institutional isomorphism and collective rationality in organizational fields. *American Sociological Review*, 48, 147-60.
- Directorate-General for Education and Culture. (2004). ECTS Users' Guide. Retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/education/tools/docs/ects-guide_en.pdf
- Dolowitz, D.P., & Marsh, D. (2000). Learning from Abroad: The Role of Policy Transfer in Contemporary Policy-Making. *Governance: An International Journal of Policy and Administration*, 13(1), 5–24.
- European Commission. (1999). *Directory of European Associations in the Field of Education*. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities.
- European Commission. (2012a). *Development of Community research – commitments 1984 – 2013*. Retrieved November 19, 2013, from http://ec.europa.eu/research/fp7/pdf/fp-1984-2013_en.pdf
- European Commission. (2012b). *Outgoing Erasmus students from 1987/1988 to 2010/2011*.

- Retrieved November 19, 2013, from
<http://ec.europa.eu/education/erasmus/doc/stat/table1.pdf>.
- European Commission. (2013). *Erasmus programme in 2011-12: the figures explained*. Retrieved from http://europa.eu/rapid/press-release_MEMO-13-647_en.htm.
- Eurydice (2012). *The European Higher Education Area in 2012: Bologna Process Implementation Report*. Brussels: EACEA.
- Huisman, J., & van der Wende, M.C. (2004). The EU and Bologna: are supra- and international initiatives threatening domestic agendas?. *European Journal of Education*, 39, 349-357.
- IIE. (2013). *English-Taught Master's Programs in Europe: A 2013 Update*. New York: IIE
- ISOC. (2007). Socrates projects database. <http://www.isoc.siu.no>
- Kamalski, J., & Plume, A. (2013). *Comparative Benchmarking of European and US Research Collaboration and Researcher Mobility*. Elsevier.
- McMahon, J.A. (1995). *Education and Culture in European Community Law*. London: The Athlone Press.
- SER. (2013). *Make it in the Netherlands! Advies over binding van buitenlandse studenten aan Nederland* (Make it in the Netherlands! Recommendations about linking foreign students to the Netherlands). The Hague: SER
- Steiner-Khamsi, G. (Ed.) (2004). *The Global Politics of Educational Borrowing and Lending*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Tudor, G.R.J. (2005). *Higher Education Law in the European Union*. Ph.D. Dissertation, Kent State University.
- UNESCO (n.d.). UNESCO Institute of Statistics. Retrieved from
<http://www.uis.unesco.org/>
- Union of International Associations. (2005). *Yearbook of International Organisations 2005 Edition*.
- Westerheijden, D.F., Beerkens, E., Cremonini, L., Huisman, J., Kehm, B., Kovac, A., et al. (2010). *The Bologna Process Independent Assessment The first decade of working on the European Higher Education Area. Volume 1 Detailed Assessment Report*.

Postcard from the United States: Policy perspectives and practical concerns for the internationalization of American higher education

Laura E. Rumbley*

Introduction

Policymakers and leaders of higher education institutions across the United States, as in many corners of the globe, are increasingly concerned with the issue of internationalization¹, as a matter of both policy and practice. The reasons for this growing interest – which turns broadly on questions of quality, relevance, and competitive positioning in the highly globalized environment of the early 21st century – are not unique to the United States, necessarily. What *is* unique for the US experience with internationalization, however, is that the discussion around – and approaches to – internationalization are evolving in several ways that reflect an interplay with the specifics of the US context. A mixed record of outcomes accompanies these processes.

First, there is the notable emergence of what might be considered the beginnings of a national “agenda” for internationalization. This is apparent in the language and focus of a series of official government documents issued, and federal initiatives undertaken, in recent years, along with positions *vis-à-vis* internationalization articulated by key national-level organizations. At the same time, signs indicate that the “conversation” around internationalization is expanding (beyond the traditional domain of international student advisors and

* Associate Director, Center for International Higher Education(CIHE), Boston College, USA, mail: laura.rumbley@bc.edu

¹ The definition of “internationalization” for the purposes of this paper is taken from Knight (2003): “the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education.” Throughout, the term “international education” is also used somewhat interchangeably with “internationalization”.

study abroad coordinators at four-year institutions), and is now being taken up more widely across the higher education community. Evidence of this widening conversation can be seen in the now fairly ubiquitous coverage of internationalization issues in the US higher education press, which is also increasingly visible in the mainstream media. These developments provide a sense that internationalization “matters more” – and to more and different kinds of stakeholders connected to the higher education enterprise – than it did in the past (although by no means has internationalization surpassed other high-level priorities weighing heavily on the higher education community, including such issues as access, graduation rates, learning outcomes, employability of graduates, tuition levels and student debt, and financial sustainability for institutions).

As policies and ideas about internationalization evolve, so, too, do the approaches US colleges and universities take to formulating and operationalizing their international agendas. Increasingly, internationalization is understood more broadly as a strategic and “comprehensive” (Hudzik, 2011) undertaking that demands a deeper and more meaningful commitment to an expansive understanding of “global engagement” (Helms & Rumbley, 2012). Some data provide a picture of enhanced performance and commitment to internationalization, while other indicators raise questions about the strength of that commitment and the quality of the results obtained from the efforts being undertaken.

US higher education, at the level of both individual institutions and a national community, is paying attention to the notion of internationalization as never before, and colleges and universities currently demonstrate both optimism and activism when it comes to advancing their internationalization activities and objectives (ACE, 2012). However, in practical terms, work remains to be done to equalize rhetorical enthusiasm for internationalization with its actual widespread diffusion across the American higher education landscape, into the lived experiences of students, faculty, and staff, and as an accepted core element of postsecondary content and delivery.

A national “agenda” for internationalization of US higher education

Although there are clear interests in higher education at the federal level, there is no national “ministry” of higher education in the United States. Most aspects of postsecondary planning and oversight reside at the level of the individual states. Still, the federal government does exercise influence in

several key areas, most notably (although not exclusively) *via* research funding – through mechanisms administered by cabinet-level departments and agencies such as the National Science Foundation – and student loans and grants – which, because they can only be issued to students attending accredited higher education institutions, serve to steer the vast majority of colleges and universities to comply with the conditions of the relevant accrediting bodies. The federal government also engages the higher education community directly through the Office of Postsecondary Education (OPE), situated in the US Department of Education. Specifically, OPE advances its work through three units focused, respectively, on Higher Education Programs (HEP), Policy, Planning and Innovation (IPP), and International and Foreign Language Education (IFLE) (US Department of Education, 2013b).

In practical terms, while the federal government’s direct reach into the higher education community is somewhat limited, government at the national level can and does serve an important role as a stimulator of policy conversations and agenda-setting. When it comes to internationalization, the federal government has traditionally been relatively restrained in its vision and input. The landmark establishment of the Fulbright exchange program in 1946 is a notable exception to this rule in terms of symbolism and prestige. Nonetheless, it is important to note that Fulbright’s reach in terms of actual number of participants is quite small in scope: “Approximately 325,400 ‘Fulbrighters’, 122,800 from the United States and 202,600 from other countries, have participated in the Program since its inception more than sixty years ago.” (US Department of State, n.d.b)

In the late 1990s, a more vocal call for a national policy for international education began to emerge, led principally by professional organizations working in this area, such as NAFSA: Association of International Educators. At the urging of stakeholder groups such as NAFSA, in April 2000, President Clinton issued a memorandum on international education policy (Clinton, 2000). This step was certainly encouraging to the international education community, but did not provide enough of a stimulus for a sustained or widespread national-level focus on the issue of international engagement for the higher education community, nor did it dramatically expand the internationalization profile of US higher education provision. NAFSA itself followed up in 2007 and 2009, respectively, with two key position papers in an effort to frame the national conversation on international education and galvanize political support for this agenda. Among other things, these documents called for a restoration of the United States’ “international legitimacy” by way of thoughtful, informed,

and compassionate leadership in the global community, achieved principally through:

- an expansion of US study abroad to 1 million students per year;
- foreign language proficiency and fundamental levels of knowledge about the rest of the world for all college graduates;
- access to American higher education for foreign students and scholars and enhanced appreciation and support for these individuals in our midst; and
- expanded international exchange and service opportunities, in the spirit of the Peace Corps and similar programs (NAFSA, 2009).

NAFSA's documents synthesize several key themes running through much of the discourse around a (potential) national agenda for internationalization in the United States: global competitiveness, global engagement, and outward mobility of students.

Global competitiveness

It is difficult to overstate the extent to which the United States understands its role in the world as one of political, economic, and global leadership. That sense of leadership has been sorely tested in the last decade. Economic crisis, deep domestic political divides, and extended controversial military engagements in Iraq and Afghanistan, along with the simultaneous expansion of economic and political influence of other countries and regions of the world, have challenged the country's understanding of its historically privileged role as a world leader. A shifting global context and the challenges this has presented to US leadership in the world are a key issue underpinning conversations about a need to commit to a national agenda for international education. This is evidenced in the Clinton (2000) memorandum, which begins:

To continue to compete successfully in the global economy and to maintain our role as a world leader, the United States needs to ensure that its citizens develop a broad understanding of the world, proficiency in other languages, and knowledge of other cultures. America's leadership also depends on building ties with those who will guide the political, cultural, and economic development of their countries in the future. A coherent and coordinated international education strategy will help us meet the twin challenges of preparing our citizens for a global environment while continuing to attract and educate future leaders from abroad. (Clinton, 2000)

Leadership and competitive concerns are also apparent in NAFSA's primary documents on this subject, through the very titles of their key position papers on this issue: "An International Education Policy for US Leadership, Competitiveness, and Security" (NAFSA, 2007) and "Renewing America's Global Leadership" (NAFSA, 2009).

More recently, the US Department of Education (2012) has taken up the question of internationalization and released its first-ever international strategy document, "Succeeding Globally Through International Education and Engagement." This publication takes as its starting point "two strategic goals: strengthening U.S. education and advancing our nation's international priorities" (p. 1). Further, the Department highlights "economic competitiveness and jobs" as well as "national security and diplomacy" among its four key contextual drivers for this unprecedented international focus in its strategic thinking. More recently, the US Department of Education's (2013c) "Draft Strategic Plan 2014-2018" articulates a mission statement including the aim "to promote student achievement and preparation for global competitiveness by fostering educational excellence and ensuring equal access", with a reminder that

dramatically boosting completion rates for bachelor's and associate degrees is essential for Americans to compete in a global economy. The President thus set a goal in 2009 – that, by 2020, the US will have the highest proportion of college graduates in the world. (p. 7)

To the extent that one can speak of an emerging notion of a national "agenda" for internationalization of US higher education, *competitiveness* (particularly economic competitiveness) in a global context stands as a key component of this agenda.

Global engagement

It is clear that the US orientation towards internationalization in terms of what might be considered a national-level agenda is focused on how to leverage the phenomenon to advance economic and political leadership in the world. At the same time, it is relevant to note that there is also a concern with the notion of *engagement* as a key principle of a national orientation towards internationalization. Perhaps the most notable example of this sensitivity can be found in work recently done by the American Council on Education (ACE).

In 2010, ACE convened a Blue Ribbon Panel on Global Engagement, consisting of 19 high-level US higher education leaders, and several

international experts. Following a year of meetings and consideration of expert input, the panel produced a report (ACE, 2011) designed to provide a state-of-the-art overview of the key global issues framing the US higher education context, and suggestions for ways that ACE itself might serve to support its members in negotiating this complex and evolving landscape. A principal starting point for ACE's understanding of "the challenge of a new era" (ACE, 2011, p. 6) is that

The success of American colleges and universities in the coming years will be based upon their capacity to access and navigate global networks and to identify and develop modes of being both competitive and collaborative simultaneously. To be competitive today, virtually all institutions will have to collaborate to leverage scarce resources, broaden possibilities, and extend impact. (ACE, 2011, p. 7)

This will require that US higher education recognize the "imperative of engaging strategically and substantively with a globalized higher education environment and interconnected world" (ACE, 2011, p. 7).

Engagement in this context means that US higher education institutions must "adopt new strategies and develop new perspectives" (ACE, 2011, p. 27), and in doing so pay specific attention to six key considerations:

1. Defining core principles and practices in advance of international engagement
2. Balancing pragmatism with idealism in the process of engaging internationally
3. Delineating comprehensive institutional strategies
4. Aligning local and global interests
5. Identifying possible models of global engagement
6. Integrating technology in globalization efforts. (ACE, 2011, p. 17)

The global engagement paradigm as outlined by ACE situates US higher education connections with the rest of the world as a *must* – the challenges and opportunities of a new era cannot be ignored or avoided if the sector seeks to remain relevant and competitive. Furthermore, thoughtful, innovative, and nuanced approaches are necessary in order to manage the complexities of the global landscape in which US institutions operate.

Engagement as a guiding principle is also in evidence in the language of the US Department of Education's (2012) international strategy. It not only

mentions “engagement” in the title of the document, but also articulates an understanding of an achievable “win-win” situation in a world in which countries collaborate to improve education for all. As Peterson (2012) notes

Global engagement of institutions across national borders holds the possibility of improving higher education worldwide. Engagement, if done well, is a tide that can lift all ships and is important well beyond individual institutions. The potential outcomes are a compelling global prospect. (Peterson, 2012, p. 2)

The hint of a US national agenda for internationalization of (higher) education makes clear space for the elaboration of engagement alongside the central concern for global competitiveness. Indeed, the notion of a necessary dynamic between cooperation and competition is made explicit and is an important consideration for policymakers and higher education leaders in the US context.

Mobility

Consistent with national agendas for internationalization in other parts of the world – notably Europe (Wächter, 2012) – the policy conversation around international education at the national level in the United States (such as this exists) places heavy emphasis on student mobility as a key policy mechanism. Particularly in the last decade, there has been an increasingly sophisticated awareness of the “high stakes” nature of the global market for international student recruitment and talent retention. At the same time, there has been growing consensus that there is a pressing need for US students to acquire knowledge, skills, and awareness through periods of study outside the United States in order to enhance graduates’ employability in a globalizing economy and ability to navigate an increasingly diverse domestic cultural landscape.

Awareness has been evolving into concrete initiatives both to promote the United States as a destination of choice for international study, but perhaps more notably, to encourage US students to study abroad. The US Department of State’s Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs supports inbound mobility via a network of advisers in 170 different countries around the world (EducationUSA, 2013), primed to provide prospective international students with unbiased information about US higher education institutions and study opportunities. In 2013, nearly 820,000 international students enrolled in US higher education institutions, an all-time high, and “there are now 40 percent

more international students studying at US colleges and universities than a decade ago” (IIE, 2013b). The national interest in welcoming international students ranges from the educational

...Americans benefit substantially from the presence of international students who bring their own unique perspectives and knowledge to the classroom and the wider community (IIE, 2013b)

to the diplomatic

International education promotes the relationship building and knowledge exchange between people and communities in the United States and around the world that are necessary to solve global challenges (IIE, 2013b)

to the economic

International students’ spending in all 50 states [in 2012/2013] contributed approximately \$24 billion to the US economy (IIE, 2013b).

On the outbound side, the United States has launched several high-profile efforts in recent years to encourage US students to include study outside the US as part of their degree studies. Leading this charge was the groundbreaking proposal set forth in November 2005 by the Commission on the Abraham Lincoln Study Abroad Fellowship Program in its report, *Global Competence and National Needs: One Million Americans Studying Abroad*, to get one million US undergraduates studying abroad by 2016/2017 through an innovative fellowship and scholarship program to be organized and funded by the federal government. Unfortunately, this proposal has to-date not been approved by the US Congress. Just under 284,000 US students studied abroad for credit in 2011/2012 (the latest year for which figures are available). This is an increase of 3.4 percent over the previous year, and more than three times the number of US students were studying overseas in 2011/2012 than studied abroad 20 years ago (IIE, 2013a). Still, these upbeat statistics must be set against the fact that

...fewer than 10 percent of all US undergraduate students (including community college students) will study abroad by the time they graduate. With more than 2.6 million undergraduate degrees awarded each year, the proportion of students that study abroad is not increasing. (IIE, 2013b)

And, although for the second year in a row China was the fifth most popular destination for US students, the number of US students in China – 14,887 as of 2011/2012 (IIE, 2013a) – is nowhere near the stated goal of the “100,000 Strong in China” initiative launched by the Obama administration in 2009 (US Department of State, n.d.a). The “100,000 Strong” family of initiatives also includes efforts to raise interest among American students to study in Latin America, as well as to foster partnerships between US and Latin American colleges and universities (US Department of State, 2012).

A notable feature of these efforts is the drive to craft public-private partnerships to provide the necessary funding base for these activities. In line with the growing overall privatization of American higher education’s funding sources (Lyal & Sell, 2006), this is perhaps a natural development. Another characteristic of the federal efforts to stimulate mobility is the fact that programming is focused on very specific countries or regions of the world. Regional emphases are also apparent in other dimensions of federally-guided engagement in the higher education sphere; for example, in the context of the US-India Higher Education Dialogues (US Department of State, 2013) and the Association of Public and Land-Grant Universities’ partnership initiative focused on Africa (APLU, 2008). Regional or country-specific activities point clearly towards strategic, national-interest rationales for engagement, as well as responsiveness to external opportunities initiated by partner countries.

Multiple agendas – or none at all?

The preceding discussion highlighting some of the key elements of an emerging US “policy” for internationalization points to concrete actions taken, specific interests delineated, and a range of priorities articulated. However, it remains impossible to say that the United States has a clearly defined national agenda for internationalization (or international education). Given the long history of institutional autonomy in the United States, and the federal model of governance by which the states exercise considerable authority over the higher education agendas in their jurisdictions, this is perhaps unsurprising. Indeed, in keeping with this framework of decision-making and agenda-setting, some US states have themselves taken steps to craft international education roadmaps and action plans (NAFSA, n.d.).

For those with an appreciation for the profound potential for internationalization to empower positive transformation of the higher education enterprise in the United States in this “global century” – and the sense that our

national economic and foreign policy interests are at stake – the overall effect of this piecemeal approach is less than satisfactory. However, the current prospects for a fully articulated national agenda for internationalization are exceedingly slim. This is in no way a politically opportune moment. Indeed, it is questionable if there will ever be a moment when the advantages of a robust and comprehensive national agenda for internationalization will outweigh the decentralized tradition of strategic planning for the US higher education (non)system. Thoughtful guidance from trusted national organizations, such as the American Council on Education and others, in concert with targeted federal government activities, may be what ultimately guides the US “agenda” for internationalization.

The national “conversation” around internationalization of US higher education

With or without a national agenda to guide efforts, the US higher education community is actively forging ahead with a dynamic and increasingly broadly-based conversation about where internationalization is (and should be) taking the country’s colleges and universities. Of particular interest here is the question of where that conversation is occurring, among whom, and around what key topics of concern.

Once mostly the domain of the small number of professional organizations catering to international education practitioners, and an even smaller number of scholars and researchers interested in the phenomenon from a more academic standpoint, internationalization has become a prominent topic in both the higher education news media and, not infrequently, the mainstream media. The *Chronicle of Higher Education* and *InsideHigherEd.com* feature regular coverage of stories related to internationalization, as well as pieces on trends in higher education outside of the United States. They provide space for blogs dedicated to these topic areas, and send reporters and editors to conferences and meetings outside of the United States in order to cover these developments for their largely US audiences.

News outlets such as *University World News* and *Times Higher Education*, all provide extensive coverage of internationalization and non-US higher education news, and are read by increasing numbers of US readers.

Blogs and other online news sources, such as The PIE News², International

² The PIE News can be found at <http://thepienews.com/>.

Higher Education Consulting (IHEC)³, and GlobalHigherEd⁴ are also relevant. Likewise, *International Higher Education* – the quarterly newsletter of the Boston College Center for International Higher Education (CIHE) – and *International Briefs for Higher Education Leaders* – an occasional publication co-produced by ACE and CIHE and targeted at US college and university presidents – add to the wealth of information, opinion, and ideas circulating about internationalization.

Americans are also actively subscribing to, as well as contributing material and citing articles from, the *Journal of Studies in International Education*, perhaps the premier peer-reviewed publication focused on this and related topics. News about internationalization trends, and higher education news stories from around the world with implications for the United States, appear with some regularity in such mainstream publications as the *New York Times* and the *Wall Street Journal*.

The topics addressed across these multiple sources of information and analysis span the full spectrum of trends and concerns related to internationalization. Although based on an unsystematic analysis of this output, several key topics stand out as particularly salient and indicative of developments of note in the US “conversation” around internationalization. Among other issues, stakeholders seem to be particularly interested at the moment in:

- the concept and practice of “comprehensive” internationalization,
- making better sense of the outcomes of internationalization, and
- exploring the ethics of internationalization.

Comprehensive internationalization

In 2011, NAFSA released a publication authored by former NAFSA president John Hudzik, titled *Comprehensive Internationalization: From Concept to Action*. Building on work previously done by the American Council on Education⁵, Hudzik’s treatment of the topic aimed to synthesize and amplify

³ International Higher Education Consulting (IHEC) can be found at <http://ihec-djc.blogspot.com/>.

⁴ GlobalHigherEd can be found at <http://globalhighered.wordpress.com/about/>.

many of the key messages that have evolved from the exploration of this notion. Hudzik (2011) defines comprehensive internationalization as

...a commitment, confirmed through action, to infuse international and comparative perspectives throughout the teaching, research, and service missions of higher education. It shapes institutional ethos and values and touches the entire higher education enterprise. It is essential that it be embraced by institutional leadership, governance, faculty, students, and all academic service and support units. It is an institutional imperative, not just a desirable possibility. (p. 6)

Although Hudzik neither coined the term “comprehensive internationalization” nor introduced groundbreaking new perspectives in relation to this concept, this publication has spurred interest in considering the value of deep, broad, strategic, and sustained commitment to internationalization. Taken in conjunction with the large (and growing body) of literature on what “serious” internationalization means and requires, agreement seems to be coalescing around a series of “key ingredients” for its implementation. These core elements include working authentically and consistently from institutional mission, thinking “comprehensively” (Hudzik, 2011), acting methodically and strategically, planning realistically, investing strategically, and evaluating critically and regularly.

Orchestrating these many aspects of a comprehensive approach to internationalization is exceedingly difficult, particularly when colleges and universities have many competing priorities to manage. But, it is becoming equally difficult for higher education institutions in the United States to claim they are unaware of this kind of list of “ideal” factors in relation to internationalization. Whether it is possible for an individual institution to act on an ambitious agenda for comprehensive internationalization (Hudzik, 2011) is a key question, but Hudzik argues that not acting in this area inevitably exacerbates the “consequences of the unlevel playing field” that exists when there is ineffective participation “within a global reconfiguration of markets, systems of trade, research and discovery, communications and quality of life” (Hudzik, 2011, p.17).

In short, wide awareness about the notion of comprehensive

⁵ Examples of these ACE publications include *A Handbook for Advancing Comprehensive Internationalization* (2006), *Building a Strategic Framework for Comprehensive Internationalization* (2005), and *Promising Practices: Spotlighting Excellence in Comprehensive Internationalization* (2002).

internationalization may not be moving all institutions to take up this mode of engagement with the phenomenon, but it does seem to have established a point of reference for many conversations about internationalization in the United States.

The outcomes of internationalization

A core assumption embedded in the vast majority of literature and policymaking around internationalization is that efforts to internationalize unquestionably yield positive results for those individuals involved and those institutions implementing these policies and engaging in these practices. Increasingly, however, pressure to validate these assumptions is being registered – and rightly so. What do we really know about the effects of our institutions’ initiatives to internationalize? Do increasing numbers of international students ensure an effective international/intercultural and overall learning experience for US domestic students? Do US students who study abroad gain the skills necessary to live and work effectively in a globalized economic, social, and political environment? To what extent and in what ways are these effects realized? There are, of course, many other outcomes-related questions to pose.

Educators and policymakers are challenged to make sense of what is happening and how/why. Examples of US efforts to facilitate greater understanding of assessment of internationalization include the ACE’s “Global Learning for All” project, as well as the American Association of Colleges and Universities’ “Global Learning” initiative. There are a multitude of institutional “quality enhancement plans” that can also be referred to (Deardorff & van Gaalen, 2012).

Assessment also implies issues of accountability and transparency. Regional accrediting bodies as well as discipline-specific accreditors “are incorporating standards on global competence development for students”. The Lumina Foundation-supported “Tuning USA” project endeavored to provide several US states with an introduction to the European model of developing a shared understanding of “degree program profiles” within specific disciplines – although “given the great decentralization of higher education in the United States, Tuning proved a challenge” (Deardorff & van Gaalen, 2012, p. 179).

Particularly if US colleges and universities take up the call of “comprehensive internationalization” – which implies a significant commitment of time, energy, and resources – the results of these investments will require tangible evidence of acceptable outcomes. Here, it will be important for the US

higher education community to carefully weigh the difference between “outputs” – often easily quantifiable yet one-dimensional indicators of activity – and “outcomes”, which should tell a much more relevant story about performance and lasting impact (Deardorff & van Gaalen, 2012). Outcomes assessment is an issue with rising currency in the United States, but much work lies ahead in this area.

The ethics of internationalization

The conversation around internationalization, although generally exceedingly upbeat and apt to highlight exciting and positive new developments, also brings with it ethical concerns. Three key issues are highlighted here in relation to this evolution in the way that the some within the higher education community understand and relate to the phenomenon of internationalization: concerns with the commercial aspects of internationalization, concerns with the top-down approach to decision-making around internationalization at some universities, and the challenges of carrying out collaborative international activities in the face of very different cultural values and assumptions.

Commercialization within higher education and within the context of internationalization can be understood in a variety of ways. One of the key concerns, however, can be seen in the heated debate around the use of agents to recruit international students to study in the United States (Altbach, 2011; Cunnane, 2011). Relying on assistance from third-party recruiters to promote institutions and programs, identify potential students, and facilitate applications and administrative assistance, makes it much more manageable (indeed, *possible*) for some US institutions to purposefully expand the presence of international students on their campuses – hopefully to the satisfaction of all concerned. However, “with revenue as a primary motivation” for many of these kinds of service providers (Reisberg & Rumbley, 2013, p.129), grave concerns are raised around the question of whose interests are really being served by agents. Establishing standards of good practice for agents has emerged as the next step, but many remain skeptical of the ability of US higher education institutions to regulate these actors, who often work in a highly independent manner and are often located at great physical distance from the US institutions they are serving (Reisberg & Rumbley, 2013). US colleges and universities have much to consider from an ethical standpoint about the agent/recruiter question – not to mention their own motivations for seeking to recruit international students, which often include revenue generation objectives.

Meanwhile, leadership issues may also raise ethical concerns. The comprehensive internationalization model, which serves as a benchmark for much discussion in the United States, implies deep and widespread involvement in the international agenda at any given institution. However, there have been some high profile cases in which the key decision-making with regard to internationalization strategies and actions has been taken (or has been perceived as such) unilaterally by the institution's top leadership. Here, the case of John Sexton at New York University, and the NYU faculty's concerns about the way Sexton led the institution's move to establish "NYU Abu Dhabi", has been widely cited (Krieger, 2008; Kaminer, 2013). Faculty unhappiness with university leadership in another venture abroad has also been documented at Yale (Lewin, 2012). The ethical dimensions of these situations turn on two axes. The first has to do with issues of institutional governance and internal decision-making – who should be involved in high-stakes decision-making with regard to internationalization, and in what ways? The second relates to fundamental questions of taking core institutional values overseas – to what extent, for example, can US notions of academic freedom, or equity and access in hiring and enrollment, be transferred to international outposts or partnerships with foreign institutions (Lewin, 2013). As the trend among US institutions to expand their institutional presence overseas grows, figuring out how to frame and manage these key types of ethical issues will continue to be a concern.

The “report card” for internationalization of US higher education

There is no question that the US higher education community is interested in internationalization. There is a national-level conversation occurring across many dimensions and involving many different kinds of stakeholders. There is a sense that the stakes are high enough to warrant something resembling a national agenda or list of priorities in relation to internationalization – although politically this is unlikely to occur anytime soon. Does all of this “talk” mean anything? Are colleges and universities really acting on the ideas and understanding circulating around them? And if so, what are they doing, what are their aspirations, and how well are they achieving objectives for work in this area?

Mobility, still a standard benchmark for internationalization, provides one indication. The statistics presented previously show growth in terms of both inbound and outbound activity, but also reveal challenges and gaps. International study is not an experience undertaken by the vast majority of US

students, and this holds true for both undergraduate and graduate students. When US students go abroad, they tend to cluster in Europe (where 54.6 percent of American students opted to study in 2011/2012). They also go abroad for very short periods of time – 58.9 percent of US students abroad in 2011/2012 were overseas for “short term” stints (for the summer or for just 8 weeks or less). Meanwhile, nearly 30 percent of the international students in the United States now hail from just one country (China), and a mere four countries account for 54.5 percent of the international students enrolled here. In 2012/2013, 40.6 percent of all international students in the United States were clustered in just two fields: business management and engineering (IIE, 2013b).

On the face of it, numbers are rarely “good” or “bad”, and no one knows for certain what the “ideal” statistics are or should be for mobility. But imbalances and lack of representativeness across the figures do raise important questions about “mobility for whom” and “mobility for what”. Given the enormous financial and (we are told) political and educational stakes that seem to be involved with international mobility as a key component of internationalization, is the United States paying close enough attention to the who, how, and why of this phenomenon? Is it investing sufficiently in understanding what different levels of participation could yield in terms of positive outcomes for the institutions and the country as a whole? Are all students who would like to study internationally able to access the resources they need in order to do so? These are just a few questions that would need to be addressed in order to better assess how the country should “score” on a report card in this area.

The ACE’s 2012 report, *Mapping Internationalization on US Campuses*, provides other important insights into understanding institutional performance with regard to internationalization. Here, ACE works from its own definition of comprehensive internationalization, which relies on six main criteria:

1. An articulated institutional commitment
2. Administrative structure and funding
3. Curriculum, co-curriculum, and learning outcomes
4. Faculty policies and practices
5. Student mobility
6. Collaboration and partnerships.

The data collected by ACE for this analysis “present a mixed picture as to whether institutions’ general optimism about the progress of internationalization reflects the reality on campuses” (ACE, 2012, p. 23). Positive developments

are seen in such areas as the incorporation of “internationally focused goals” into mission statements and strategic plans; faculty hiring practices; student mobility numbers and support; and collaborative engagement and outpost establishment overseas. Funding has also remained steady (or increased) among a not insignificant number of institutions surveyed (ACE, 2012).

However, there seems to be less progress visible in terms of internationalization of curricula that apply to all (not just a select group of) students; faculty tenure and development processes; and international student support (particularly in light of their growing numbers). There is also a concern about the broad divergence in internationalization activity and investment discernible between institutions offering associate degrees (typically two-year community or junior colleges) and colleges and universities offering bachelor, master’s or doctoral degrees. To this end, the ACE report (2012) urges that new thinking be applied to how non-traditional students can best be served by an internationalization agenda designed to meet their needs.

Concluding thoughts

The US higher education system has long been regarded as the “gold standard” for postsecondary performance, its dominance of global university rankings often cited as evidence of its quality and dynamism. The high visibility of a select number of superlative research universities should not cloud the fact that not all of our colleges and universities excel in all areas – and this is most certainly true when it comes to internationalization. A large, decentralized country, with many regional differences, we have evolved in our own *American* way, which has arguably been somewhat schizophrenic historically when it comes to international engagement. We are alternately grand visionaries, then myopic isolationists. We rally readily around the flag, then forge ahead as staunch individualists. We love to lead, and we don’t always care to listen.

These are gross stereotypes, of course, but they do say something about the US approach to things, and can shed some light on the internationalization of higher education as it is unfolding in this country. The bottom line is that awareness of internationalization is expanding, and is finding its way into both national “agenda” considerations, as well as all manner of practical conversations about how higher education operates and what purposes it serves. Furthermore, a concept of “comprehensive internationalization” seems to be taking root in the US discourse around this phenomenon, and anchoring

understanding both of what could be possible and what is likely a desirable trajectory (even if only in the long-term) for many different kinds of institutions.

The notion of comprehensive internationalization is bounded, however, by an understanding of the very real challenges facing the US higher education system today, including access and persistence concerns; runaway tuition costs and student indebtedness; and a heavy reliance on part-time, contract faculty in institutions that once invested more heavily in full-time, tenured academic staff; among other concerns. Making the case for how internationalization fits into this complex panorama, and helping institutions find workable ways to build a commitment to internationalization into their modus operandi, is a task not yet completed in the US higher education context. This effort, however, is thoughtfully underway in many quarters.

References

- Altbach, P.G. (2011). Agents and Third-Party Recruiters in International Higher Education. *International Higher Education*, 62, 11-14.
- American Council on Education (ACE). (2011). *Report of the Blue Ribbon Panel on Global Engagement. Strength through Global Leadership and Engagement: US Higher Education in the 21st Century*. Washington, DC: ACE.
- ACE. (2012). *Mapping Internationalization on US Campuses: 2012 Edition*. Washington, DC: ACE.
- Association of Public and Land-Grant Universities (APLU). (2008, April 30). *Africa-U.S Higher Education Initiative to Launch Competitive Grants Program*. Retrieved November 25, 2013, from <http://www.aplu.org/page.aspx?pid=937>
- Clinton, W.J. (2000, April 19). *Memorandum for the Heads of Executive Departments and Agencies. Subject: International Education Policy*. Retrieved November 24, 2013, from <http://www.presidency.ucsb.edu/ws/?pid=58389>
- Commission on the Abraham Lincoln Study Abroad Fellowship Program. (2005). *Global competence and national needs: One million Americans studying abroad*. Washington, DC.
- Cunnane, S. (2011, January 20). American recruitment body rejects 'naive' calls to 'eliminate' the agents. *Times Higher Education*. Retrieved November 25, 2013, from <http://www.timeshighereducation.co.uk/414906.article>
- Deardorff, D.K., & van Gaalen, A. (2012). Outcomes assessment in the internationalization of higher education. In D.K. Deardorff, H. de Wit, & J. Heyl (Eds.), *The SAGE Handbook of International Higher Education* (pp. 167-189). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

- EducationUSA. (2013). Retrieved November 25, 2013, from <https://www.educationusa.info/>
- Helms, R.M., & Rumbley, L.E. (2012). A “primer” for global engagement. *International Briefs for Higher Education Leaders*, 2, 6-7. American Council on Education and Boston College Center for International Higher Education.
- Hudzik, J.K. (2011). *Comprehensive internationalization: From concept to action*. Washington, DC: NAFSA.
- Institute of International Education (IIE). (2013a, November 11). *Open Doors 2013: Fast Facts*. Retrieved November 25, 2013, from <http://www.iie.org>
- IIE. (2013b, November 11). Press Release. *Open Doors 2013: International Students in the United States and Study Abroad by American Students are at All-Time High*. Retrieved November 23, 2013, from <http://www.iie.org>
- Kaminer, A. (2013, March 9). N.Y.U.’s Global Leader Is Tested by Faculty at Home. *New York Times*. Retrieved November 25, 2013, from <http://www.nytimes.com/2013/03/10/nyregion/john-sexton-is-tested-by-nyu-faculty.html>
- Kinser, K., & Lane, J. (2012). Foreign outposts of colleges and universities. *International Higher Education*, 66, 2-3.
- Knight, J. (2003). Updating the definition of internationalization. *International Higher Education*, 33, 2-3.
- Krieger, Z. (2008, April 13). The Emir of NYU. *New York*. Retrieved November 25, 2013, from <http://nymag.com/news/features/46000/>
- Lewin, T. (2012, April 4). Faculty Gives Yale a Dose of Dissent Over Singapore. *The New York Times*. Retrieved November 25, 2013, from <http://www.nytimes.com/2012/04/05/education/singapore-partnership-creates-dissension-at-yale.html>
- Lewin, T. (2013, December 11). Colleges Finding Ideals Tested Abroad. *The New York Times*. Retrieved March 23, 2014, from http://www.nytimes.com/2013/12/12/education/american-colleges-finding-ideals-are-tested-abroad.html?ref=us&_r=1&
- Lyall, K.C., & Sell, K.R. (2006). The De Facto Privatization of American Public Higher Education. *Change: The Magazine of Higher Learning*, 38(1), 6-13.
- NAFSA. (n.d.). *Advancing International Education at the State Level*. Retrieved November 25, 2013, from http://www.nafsa.org/Explore_International_Education/Advocacy_And_Public_Policy/State_Level_Initiatives/Advancing_International_Education_at_the_State_Level/
- NAFSA. (2007). *An International Education Policy for US Leadership, Competitiveness, and Security*. Retrieved November 24, 2013, from http://www.nafsa.org/_/File/_/neip_rev.pdf
- NAFSA. (2009). *Renewing America’s Global Leadership*. Retrieved November 24, 2013, from

http://www.nafsa.org/uploadedFiles/NAFSA_Home/Resource_Library_Assets/Public_Policy/global_leadership.pdf

Peterson, P.M. (2012). Introduction. *International Briefs for Higher Education Leaders, No. 2*, 2. American Council on Education and Boston College Center for International Higher Education.

Reisberg, L., & Rumbley, L.E. (2013). Redefining academic mobility: From the pursuit of scholarship to the pursuit of revenue. In A. Maldonado-Maldonado, & R. M. Bassett (Eds.), *The Forefront of International Higher Education* (pp.121-132). Dordrecht, the Netherlands: Springer.

US Department of Education (ED). (2012). Succeeding Globally Through International Education and Engagement. *US Department of Education International Strategy 2012-16*. Retrieved December 1, 2012, from

<http://www2.ed.gov/about/inits/ed/international/international-strategy-2012-16.pdf>

US Department of Education (ED). (2013a). *Coordinating Structure*. Retrieved November 18, 2013, from <http://www2.ed.gov/about/offices/or/index.html?src=ln>

US Department of Education (ED). (2013b). *Office of Postsecondary Education*. Retrieved November 18, 2013, from <http://www2.ed.gov/about/offices/list/ope/index.html?src=oc>

US Department of Education (ED). (2013c). *US Department of Education Draft Strategic Plan for Fiscal Years 2014-2018*. Retrieved September 23, 2013, from <http://www2.ed.gov/about/reports/strat/plan2014-18/draft-strategic-plan.pdf>

US Department of State. (n.d.a) *100,000 Strong Initiative*. Retrieved November 24, 2013, from http://www.state.gov/p/eap/regional/100000_strong/index.htm

US Department of State.(n.d.b). *Fulbright Program History*. Retrieved November 24, 2013, from <http://eca.state.gov/fulbright/about-fulbright/history>

US Department of State. (2012) *100,000 Strong in the Americas*. Retrieved November 24, 2013, from <http://www.state.gov/p/wha/rls/fs/2012/184264.htm>

US Department of State. (2013). *U.S.-India Joint Fact Sheet: U.S.-India Cooperation In Higher Education*. Retrieved November 25, 2013, from <http://www.state.gov/r/pa/prs/ps/2013/06/211019.htm>

Wächter, B. (2012). European mobility policies. In I. Ferencz, & B. Wächter (Eds.), *European and national policies for academic mobility. Linking rhetoric, practice and mobility trends* (pp.10-31). Bonn: Lemmens.

Zook, G.F. (1950, March). The American Council on Education. *The Phi Delta Kappan*, 31(7), 312-318.

Exploring Effective Strategies to Implement EMI: Case studies of two Korean universities¹

Kiyong Byun^{*}, Jae-Eun Jon^{**} and Young Ha Cho^{***}

Introduction

Over the last 20 years, Korea's internationalization of its universities has been elevated to the utmost level of importance under the banner of enhancing its international competitiveness as well as upgrading the quality of its higher education. The most typical strategies employed by many universities for internationalization have been attracting international students; hiring foreign faculty; increasing the number of student exchange programs; and increasing the number of English-Medium Instruction (EMI) courses. With strong government drives and aggressive institutional efforts to attract more international students since the early 2000s, many universities in Korea have been able to achieve a substantial increase in the number of foreign students enrolled as well as the number of EMI courses offered in domestic universities. For instance, foreign student enrollment at Korean universities and colleges increased from 4,682 in 2003 to 86,878 in 2012. As a corollary to this trend, in some universities (*e.g.*, Kyunghee Univ., Han-Yang Univ.), the proportion of English-Medium courses out of the total courses offered has also been drastically increased from around 5% to over 40%, particularly within the past five years.

However, despite the drastic expansion of the number of EMI courses, there

* Associate Professor, College of Education/ Director, Higher Education Policy Research Institute(HEPRI), Korea University, e-mail: byun0905@korea.ac.kr

** Research Professor, Higher Education Policy Research Institute(HEPRI), Korea University, e-mail: jejon@korea.ac.kr

*** Associate Professor, The Graduate School of Education, Kyung Hee University, e-mail: youcho@khu.ac.kr

¹ This manuscript is based on Byun, Jon, & Cho (2012), a Report published by Higher Education Policy Research Institute (HEPRI), Korea University. [Original in Korean]

have been resounding voices of criticism and self-reflected concerns about EMI within the Korean higher education community. The most critical concerns have, so far, centered around a fundamental issue of the efficacy of EMI, which has a far-reaching implication on students' learning outcome. Recently, many people, both inside and outside the higher education community, frequently argue that EMI, as a new pedagogical method, would really contribute to the betterment of student education (e.g., Airey, 2003; Kang & Park, 2004). In line with these concerns, indeed, previous research (e.g., Beckett & Li, 2012; Tong & Shi, 2012; Webb, 2002; Kang *et al.*, 2007; Kim, 2007; Kim, 2011) also presented an array of problems, primarily arguing that the linguistic and pedagogical benefits of EMI courses come at the expense of students' academic achievement. These studies mainly focus on ways to make EMI courses more effective in a class room setting. However, as Byun *et al.* (2011) pointed out, many problems and issues associated with EMI in Korean higher education primarily originate from the implementation method of EMI (e.g., mandatory and unilateral nature of EMI implementation at most Korean universities) rather than the efficacy of EMI itself. Except for a few studies (e.g., Byun *et al.*, 2011), the implementation problems of EMI policy at individual universities have been largely overlooked by previous studies, which is an important limitation in and of itself.

The purpose of this study is to closely examine the issues surrounding EMI within the Korean higher education context, particularly with a special emphasis upon the effectiveness of its implementation method. Based on the results of the analysis, the study aims to draw policy recommendations for the government; higher education institutions; and other important stakeholders associated with EMI.

Methodology

This study utilized in-depth interviews in order to collect data. The interviewees consisted of forty-one domestic and foreign professors who had taught EMI courses and domestic and foreign students at Korea University and Kyunghee University, both located in Seoul.

EMI has been made compulsory at these two universities and has also been actively implemented. The interview questions, which were developed through an extensive literature review, include the purpose of the EMI policy; level of achievement; advantages and difficulty of EMI; and problems of and suggestions for EMI courses. The interview data were analyzed in terms of several topical

categories which surfaced while coding the interview data of each university. These categories include the EMI policy and its institutional aspect; efficacy and equity of EMI courses; and aspects of EMI classes which need improvement along with the interviewees' experience of EMI courses according to their majors and English proficiency. The implications were drawn after compiling and comparing the findings of the two universities. They were also based on the topics discussed: change of perception; purpose of the EMI policy; negative views on policy formation and implementation; motive behind participating in EMI, and equity and efficacy of EMI.

Findings

Paradigm shift in the perception toward EMI

This study focused on the changes in the attitude of university constituents (*e.g.*, professors, students) toward EMI classes. When EMI classes were first implemented in domestic universities in the beginning and mid-2000s, it was not ushered in with fanfare and confetti, thereby not being welcomed into the Korean higher education. Rather, it was often faced with cynicism, casting doubts on its necessity. The change in the perception toward EMI classes, which rose out of the general recognition of the economic and societal needs requiring English proficiency for students and professors, resulted in turning the debate over to the necessity of it, forming a discussion on ways to improve EMI. This paradigm shift is now punctuated with the university constituents, delving into what they could do to better implement EMI policy. From the point of the new paradigm, the legitimacy of EMI classes and the need for the EMI policy are recognized. Further, directions for developing EMI policies along with more specific strategies to implement them can be extrapolated.

Purpose and impact of the EMI policy

When asked, "What would be the purpose of the EMI policy?", most interviewees from Kyunghee and Korea Universities gave answers somewhere along the lines of the internationalization of universities; improvement of university status in evaluation and ranking; and increase of students' English proficiency.

First, the participants at both universities answered that the internationalization of universities was the main purpose of the EMI policy, but

with a focus on different aspects motivated by the cultural differences of individual institutions. For instance, the professors and students of Korea University assessed EMI classes as part of the university's effort to revamp their image at the global stage through globalization. They also pointed out that rather than increasing the number of EMI classes, the emphasis should be placed on increasing the quality of them. Second, the interviewees regarded the purpose of EMI policy as a tool to enhance university evaluation and increase its ranking, both domestically and internationally. It was a reflection of the universities' intention to boost their ranking by increasing the number of EMI classes. Third, the view which observes the purpose of the EMI policy *vis-a-vis* increasing students' English proficiency was expressed with a great deal of criticism. In the case of Kyunghee University, a fixed number of EMI classes is allotted to each major; the interviewees asserted that this was an example of the problem rooted in the absence of an education philosophy in the university. They feel that universities are leaning toward producing graduates with high English proficiency rather than developing high caliber graduates with expertise in their majors.

Aside from the three aforementioned answers, in the case of Korea University, some voiced that EMI classes were necessary in order to attract foreign students; using EMI classes to attract foreign students resonated in the answers of foreign students. However, there were a number of opinions against attracting foreign students through offering EMI classes. One of the reasons for such negative opinions was based on the fact that the absolute majority of foreign students in Korean universities come from China who cannot speak English well.

Lastly, Korea University interviewees stated that the purpose of the EMI policy is both unrealistic and ambiguous. In particular, student participants are pessimistic about EMI classes and therefore questioned if they should have priority over students' overall learning in a university under the current practice of EMI classes. The findings suggest that universities need to clearly present the purpose of offering EMI classes and open a dialogue with different university constituents in order to find ways to provide high quality EMI classes that meet the needs of the students.

Process of EMI policy formation and implementation

Many professors and students who participated in the interview tend to criticize the current EMI policy at Korean universities. First, they referred to it

as a cookie cutter policy without taking into account a specific situation in different academic disciplines and/or institutions. It might have been unavoidable to have a cookie cutter policy at the onset of implementing EMI classes as most faculty members and students did not want to introduce EMI to their own universities. To teach and to take EMI courses are after all very burdensome, which require additional time and effort for both professors and students alike. Nevertheless, Korean universities have operated EMI for over 10 years now. With this situation in mind, the study participants argue that this is a right time for policy makers to seriously consider if they should pursue a new direction to substantiate EMI classes. The lack of a systematic evaluation mechanism for EMI policy as well as efforts to improve it engenders the policy makers to overlook the crucial elements, such as the purpose of education in higher education. Finally, in the case of Kyunghee University, the inconsistent EMI policy caused a great deal of confusion to its students, resulting in failing to form positive attitudes toward EMI classes. This observation is particularly relevant to Kyunghee University's partial policy, which will be discussed further in the subsequent section.

Motives for participating in EMI classes

The motive for participating in EMI classes clearly demonstrates the coercive nature of the policy. For professors, teaching EMI classes is about carrying out either their contractual requirement or obligatory tasks thrust upon them by the university. In the same vein, for students, their motive for taking them was to fulfill one of the graduation requirements. This coercive nature of EMI classes could account for reducing student interests in taking EMI classes. Other than for the fulfillment of graduation requirement, some students took EMI classes in order to increase the level of their interest and proficiency in English. Some took them for student-centered class management or for a less constrained class atmosphere, which is often the case in classes taught in Korean, and others who are more comfortable using English than Korean took EMI classes.

Efficacy of EMI classes

Regarding the efficacy of EMI classes, there were both positive and negative opinions; yet, the negative opinions were dominant with a cluster of negative opinions presented. From the professors' perspective, the positive

effects of EMI classes are primarily the improvement of students' communication and learning ability in English, obtaining knowledge relevant to their major, increasing test scores on English tests, and boosting one's confidence in using English. These opinions were attested in the students' opinions. Particularly in social sciences, such as psychology, which traditionally follow the footsteps of Western academia, taking EMI classes can help students learn the terminology much more easily as well as enhance their reading skills. Additionally, the students mentioned that they felt more encouraged and motivated to learn English after taking EMI classes, where they were exposed to an English-speaking environment. Another positive aspect of EMI classes is the fact that while many non-EMI classes are held in a lecture-centered environment, in EMI classes, discussions and participation of students are promoted.

These positive effects of EMI classes were, however, accompanied by a quite lot of negative opinions. First, as Kyunghee University students pointed out in the tone of self-deprecation, the ability to memorize English vocabulary by rote or reading comprehension might have been enhanced, but the knowledge relevant to the studies of their major did not increase. Second, English is merely a tool to learn; thus, one can improve English skills only so far by taking EMI classes. It is more so when either a professor or students or both have a limited English proficiency. The students, therefore, admitted that communicative English classes taught by native speakers of English are useful. Third, taking EMI classes hardly leads to improving one's English skills but rather, it puts more stress on the students. The last factor to note is that students, who benefit from taking EMI classes, are the ones who are already proficient in English. Interestingly, professors mentioned that teaching EMI classes helped them retain their English skills from being rusty. One professor gave a scathing criticism to those professors who were using EMI classes as a personal gain.

As expounded, there were positive opinions regarding EMI classes as useful for improving both professors and students' English skills; yet, an overwhelming number of negative aspects of EMI classes were also presented. The limitation in the delivery of the course content due to professors' insufficient English proficiency was pointed out as one of the most negative aspects of EMI classes. On a more serious note, it was pointed out that some professors intentionally reduced the amount of lecture and filled most of the class time with student presentations and course projects. One student's trenchant criticism was reserved for the fact that students did not end up receiving the quality education that they deserve, and that it is unreasonable to force professors into teaching

EMI classes. Along the same line, few of the professors concurred that even when a professor is equipped with sufficient English proficiency to deliver the course content effectively, if students' English proficiency is not up to par, it restricts students' comprehension of the lecture. Further, the professors pointed out that there was insufficient time for students to develop their ability to take EMI courses along with adapting to the environment that the EMI courses require. Putting these reasons together, EMI breaks down the two-way communication that is essential for an effective learning process.

The students interviewees expressed their deep concerns over the aforementioned situations, which could "infringe on students' right to learn" and eventually lead to "the collapse of education". In a similar vein, to the professors, it could be considered "a neglect of duty", and for some, it could turn to something more serious, such as negligence of duty caused by moral relaxation; a feeling of helplessness and a pang of conscience. Worse yet, in EMI courses, what professors could communicate to their students is nothing more than what they prepared for the lecture. The essential elements of good teaching, such as introducing social issues, sharing personal experiences, or making spontaneous jokes, are out of the question. The professors confessed that "under these circumstances, the quality and level of lectures of EMI courses often turn out to be of a junior high-school level".

The second problem raised was that EMI courses require more time and effort from both professors and students, and in turn, this takes away the time reserved for student advising and research from professors. Students utilize all sorts of ways available to catch up with what has been taught in EMI courses. For instance, one of the problems caused by having to take EMI courses was that students have to retake the same course in Korean. In some classes, the professors had to explain in Korean what he had already explained because many students could not understand much of what the professor said in English; this exemplified an ineffective class management. On the students' side, students from Kyunghee University stated that in class, they were under the impression that most students saw no meaning in taking an EMI course, and the professors seemed to have given up on trying to get the students' interest in class.

The third problem that surfaced was the lack of interaction between the professor and the students during class time. It is difficult to share impromptu information in order to elaborate what was explained in class or to tell jokes to build rapport that could be formed between the professor and the students during the course of the semester. The similar difficulty lies with the students as well in that students feel awkward to interact with the professor in an environment

where all communication is conducted in English. In relation to this, students' sense of isolation and self-withdrawal in EMI classes were also considered as a serious issue, where most of the students generally tend to be passive participants. Students' sense of isolation quickly turns into low-self confidence, and low-self confidence often leads to the feeling that they have been deprived of what they rightfully deserve. However, when the feeling of being deprived is accompanied by self-guilt and helpless compliance to the reality that the school could only help so much, they came to understand that there is nothing more to be done except for studying as hard as they could. A situation as such provides students with a reason to avoid EMI courses, which can be interpreted as the so-called in-college stratification (Jon & Kim, 2011) or stratification of EMI courses (Park, 2008).

Finally, the efficacy of EMI courses varies depending upon an academic discipline. In general, majors such as business or psychology are ideal candidates for EMI courses; however, even in such majors, certain elements like case studies and counseling sites are not necessarily a good fit for EMI.

Equity problems in EMI courses

All interview participants unanimously agreed that EMI classes go against the principle of equity in education. First, EMI classes do not produce the same effects all across the board, but according to the individuals' English proficiency. For both professors and students who have higher English proficiency, EMI courses can be used to their benefit; professors do not have to put much effort in preparing for lectures to challenge students, and students can obtain good grades without working hard. In accordance, some saw it unfair that students' English proficiency determined their final grades, although not all professors concurred with that view.

Similarly, the educational privilege that some students had prior to coming to college exacerbated inequality problem in EMI courses. Professors expressed their concerns that EMI could perpetrate and accentuate inequalities among students. Students, who graduated from a foreign language high school or studied abroad, have an inherent advantage in the game of EMI courses, compared to students without such privilege. Regarding this, one professor made an interesting comment, that EMI classes were initiated against the backdrop of elitists' unbridled desire to maintain their world of privilege.

The last problem that was brought to attention was students' equal right to learn. When a course is offered only as an EMI course exclusively, it can

deprive some students who are not proficient in English with the equal opportunity to learn. The interviewees were critical in that and this invades students' right to choose classes of their choice.

Partial EMI policy

The most noticeable trait of EMI classes at Kyunghee University is that there are two formats of EMI courses: full-pledged EMI classes vs. partial EMI classes. Unlike the full-pledged or regular EMI classes, in partial EMI classes, both English and Korean are used. However, with the absence of systematic guidelines to implement partial EMI classes in place, it begs the question of how much each language could be used. The under defined set of guidelines generated a variety of intentional misinterpretations of what constitutes a partial EMI class. For instance, some professors would use an English text and call their class an EMI class.

Surrounding the partial EMI policy, the agreement is scant. While conceding to the notion that using Korean in part would help students obtain knowledge required for their majors, opponents of the partial EMI policy argue that some of the practices engendered the vague nature of the partial EMI policy would detract from the intended purpose of EMI classes. In such an environment, in an extreme case, some professors and students “compromise” not to use English as a medium of instruction in the classes which are supposed to be taught in English by an official curriculum.

Conclusion and recommendations

Conclusion

The findings of this study reveal that in Korean universities, EMI classes have made headway to some degree while at the same time, there are a number of limitations which need to be addressed. The study confirmed that most of the limitations were primarily rooted in the forced and inflexible nature of implementing the EMI policy at individual universities. What should be highlighted is that the EMI policy needs to be applied flexibly and selectively according to the preparedness of individual universities, characteristics of academic disciplines, professors and students' English proficiency and needs. It is of vital importance that the EMI policy needs to be implemented in stages rather than across the board of all disciplines and universities. Thus, for the

successful implementation of the EMI policy, (1) the individual gap amongst EMI participants and their requests need to be further taken into consideration; and (2) the focus of the EMI policy needs to shift from quantitative expansion to quality assurance. Ultimately, the core of the policy shift should focus on students' academic achievement or learning outcome. More specifically, what students need to acquire from EMI classes must be the main premise of the EMI policy. In this sense, current EMI policies at Korean institutions should be placed under close scrutiny in order to ensure that the main premise is being upheld. Based on what the scrutiny reveals, a future EMI policy needs to focus on what more should be done to assure the main premise. Such effort must be accompanied by a mechanism that can protect students (or professors, for that matter), whose right to learn (or teach) have been systemically ignored in the midst of the uniform application of EMI. More substantiated recommendations will be discussed subsequently.

Recommendations for universities

First, universities that offer EMI classes need to bring different university parties (*e.g.*, administrators, professors, students) to an agreement after making the purpose of EMI clear to them. The interviews brought to light that the purpose of EMI begs a variety of definitions, such as internationalization of HE institutions, university rankings, improving students' English skills, and developing global human resources. However, as a result of the policy that chased after a quantitative expansion of EMI classes, many criticized that the education for students could demand little attention. Thus, it is necessary that universities carrying out the EMI policy should include a process of establishing a consensus on the purpose as well as a need behind the implementation of the EMI policy by discussing them openly and assisting the university constituents in understanding them.

Second, to encourage participants' active involvement in EMI, the principle decision-making process of the EMI policy needs to be re-formulated using the bottom-up approach, which by definition is to listen to professors' and students' voices. To operate EMI classes that recognize the characteristics of each discipline, the authority to diagnose the need of EMI and to what extent EMI is needed should be delegated to each department or college. For instance, it is necessary to delegate the authority to decide the number of compulsory EMI classes to individual departments or colleges, so that professors can consider the characteristics of different academic disciplines. Following these

recommendations could better serve students' needs as well as enhance the quality of EMI classes.

Third, conferring a right to choose EMI classes on both students and professors deserves consideration. Both professors and students have been vocal about criticizing the forced nature of the EMI policy. Students' right to choose classes that they want to take should be guaranteed by making courses available in both languages, Korean and English. Moreover, it is much more beneficial for universities to allow professors to choose a medium of instruction in which they feel adequate in giving lectures. This will assure them to teach in their best way. In addition, it is advised to employ professors or lecturers whose first language is English when there is need for EMI in certain areas that demand EMI. A shift from the EMI policy that applies to the general population of professors indiscriminately to the one that calls for having a group of professors specialized in EMI should be put in place. Coupled with this, to encourage professors' participation, offering them an incentive for teaching EMI courses and providing them with proper support and assistance in the form of reducing the number of classes to teach should be seriously considered.

Fourth, some aspects need to be considered with regard to the opening of EMI courses and how to operate them. Some interview participants suggested dividing EMI classes according to students' English proficiency. In other words, unlike the current EMI policy that does not acknowledge an individual gap, offering EMI classes in different levels and stages will provide students with more options to choose from as well as assist them in learning more effectively. The student participants in the study also suggested a variety of opinions with regard to opening EMI courses and how to operate them. For example, the interviewees expressed their wish of having more classes that could help students improve their English skills, such as communicative English courses. Additionally, Pass/Fail classes (1or 2 credit unit courses) were suggested, which students could take without having advanced English skills, instead of offering classes that only allow students with high English proficiency. Some wished that the use of Korean were allowed in EMI classes, and professors should be more understanding and considerate toward students in EMI classes. Upon recognizing the lack of communication between professors and students in English, it is imperative to provide support in various aspects in order to create an environment where the interactions between professors and students can be facilitated without much difficulty caused by the language. Another important point for making EMI courses more effective is that individual universities need to provide a set of guidelines for individual professors on how to run EMI

classes. For example, as was seen in the partial EMI policy of Kyunghee University, if the use of Korean was to be officially allowed in EMI classes by an institutional policy, it should concurrently need to be defined by what principle and manner Korean should be used with English with its educational purpose in mind. Aside from these, there was an opinion that more courses should be offered in different languages along with EMI courses.

Lastly, it has been pointed out a couple of times that the EMI policy is blind to the characteristics of each academic discipline. Therefore, it is applied to all across the board indiscriminately. Implementing the EMI policy differently between the college of science and engineering and the college of liberal arts could be one way to fix the problem. For instance, in science and engineering, building a strong academic foundation in the first couple of years of college is important, which would require EMI courses to be designed for students in different college years. For freshmen and sophomores, there should be Korean-Medium Instruction courses (KMI) for the core courses of their majors rather than EMI ones. The core courses should include the required general education courses which are important in studying the core courses within their discipline. In addition, to help students of science and engineering understand the course content, not only a general English vocabulary list for any EMI courses, but also a basic English terminology of science and math can be listed and distributed to students. For instance, course resources of science and math classes written in American junior/high school level English could be helpful for students taking EMI classes dealing with more advanced knowledge of their discipline. In liberal arts, it seems necessary to focus on improving English skills starting in the freshmen and sophomore years. As communicative English classes at Korea University (*e.g.*, English for academic purpose, practical English, English for discussion) have gained popularity, opening more English classes to serve the purpose of helping students improve their English ability calls for immediate attention.

Recommendations for government and media outlets

As the study indicated, the extant problems which transpired in implementing EMI in the two universities are linked indirectly and directly to the government policy and evaluation methods of media outlets. This implies that improving EMI and the implementation of the EMI policy involve changes in the environment outside the university as well. As an in-depth discussion on this issue will be out of the scope of this study, we offer some general guidance

for further consideration.

First of all, as previously examined, the number of EMI classes has grown rapidly over the past few years. This could be explained by the fact that the number of EMI classes offered became an important evaluation indicator for the internationalization of universities in the evaluations conducted by Joongang Daily Newspaper and other media outlets. In tandem with this, the government still regards EMI classes as a significant element to measure the internationalization of a university, as manifested by the recently launched government funding projects, such as the BK 21 Plus project, which began in 2013. In the midst of this, with no mechanism to assure the quality of EMI classes in place, it was much easier for universities to exhibit the level of internationalization by increasing the number of EMI classes.

In order to reduce the harmful consequences generated in the policy, which promotes near-blinded quantitative expansion of EMI, it is essential to have either an internal or external monitoring mechanism that can help ensure at least the minimum quality of EMI courses offered at universities. As emerged in the present study, it is not uncommon that some EMI classes did not fulfill the initial purpose of EMI courses in terms of either academic achievement or improving English competence. Presently, the Korean Council for University Education (KCUE) and a few government approved accreditation agencies (e.g., Accreditation Board for Engineering Education for Korea: ABEEK) run accreditation programs in two tracks: one on an institutional level and the other on individual academic discipline level, such as business management, architecture and medicine. Through such accreditation mechanism, it is imperative to disclose the quality of EMI and how fulfilling the bona fide purpose of EMI is.

The second aspect worth noting is the efficacy of the implementation method of EMI at Korean universities compared to that of other countries. In the process of conducting this study, with experts from neighboring countries (China, Japan, and Taiwan), we discussed the effectiveness of EMI policies in these countries and how they were implemented. The results of these discussions revealed that in those countries, the target group that the EMI aims at includes primarily foreign students. As opposed to the Korean situation, where newly-hired professors in every academic department are forced to teach classes in English regardless of students' needs, universities in these countries often set up a separate program offering new curriculum taught entirely in English for foreign students, but not exclusive to domestic students who wish to take EMI courses. As Byun *et al.* (2011) points out, it is ironic that EMI classes are made

available not to meet the demands of students or fulfill the academic purpose, but because there are professors who can teach in English or because they are new hires.

It has already been 10 years since EMI was first introduced in Korea. However, as this study reveals, we cannot help but to wonder if a matter of great significance, such as implementing EMI, has been put to practice with no overarching rationale behind it. It is time that the government and academia together take the responsibility to come up with answers by launching a comprehensive study that examines the validity of the EMI practice stemming from a different locus of understanding. It calls for a more thorough investigation to find the most adequate way to implement EMI within the Korean context, where English is not its first language.

References

- Airey, J. (2003). *Can you teach it in English? The language choice debate in Swedish higher education*. Conference paper at integrating Content and Language: Meeting the challenge of a multilingual higher education at Maastricht University, Netherland, October 23-25, 2003.
- Beckett, G.H., & Li, F. (2012). Content-based English education in China: Students' experiences and perspectives. *Journal of Contemporary Issues in Education*, 7, 47-63.
- Byun, K., Jon, J.-E., & Cho, Y. (2012). *Exploring effective strategies to implement EMI: Case studies of two Korean universities*. Report published by Higher Education Policy Research Institute (HEPRI), Korea University. [Korean]
- Byun, K., et al. (2011). English medium teaching in Korean higher education: Policy debates and reality, *Higher Education*, 62(4), 431-449.
- Jon, J.-E., & Kim, E.Y. (2011). What it takes to internationalize higher education in Korea and Japan: English-mediated courses and international students. In J. D. Palmer, A. C. Roberts, Y. H. Cho, & G. Ching (Eds.), *Globalization's influence upon the internationalization of East Asian higher institute*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Kang, S.-Y., & Park, H.-S. (2004). Student beliefs and attitudes about English medium instruction: Report of questionnaire study. *Yonsei Review of Educational Research*, 17(1), 33-53.
- Kang, S.-H., Suh, H., Shin, S.-K., Lee, J., Lee, H.-J., & Choi, J. (2007). Pre-service teachers' evaluation on English-medium lectures. *Journal of curriculum in Instruction*, 11(2), 637-656. [Korean].
- Kim, K.R. (2011). Korean Professor and Students perceptions of the efficacy of English

Medium Instruction. *Linguistic Research*, 28(3), 711-741.

Kim, M.-J. (2007). Employing the HPT process model to solve some problems of an English medium instruction. *Journal of Educational Technology*, 23(3), 31-57. [Korean].

Park, S.-Y. (2008). Exploring on the experience of learners in English Mediated Instruction(EMI). *Journal of Higher Education Policy*, 1(2), 21-38. [Korean].

Tong, F., & Shi, Q. (2012). Chinese-English bilingual education in China: A case study of college science majors. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 15(2), 165-182.

Webb, V. (2002). English as a second language in South Africa's tertiary institutions: A case study at the University of Pretoria. *World Englishes*, 21(1), 49-61.

Japanese Universities and their Internationalization: Is paradigm shift feasible?

Yuichi Kondo*

Introduction

As part of his trip to Kyushu to highlight his administration's key policies on the economy and education for the revitalization of Japan, Prime Minister Shinzo Abe on May 13, 2013 visited Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University (APU) and stated that "We (Japanese government) are moving ahead with university globalization and aim to make Japan an easier place to live and study for foreign students. By providing an environment where students from all around the globe can interact and learn more about the world, I believe that APU is a successful example of global human resource development." (Translation by APU). Even though APU was established only in 2000, it has come to receive national attention as a new model of higher education. Mr. Abe again specifically mentioned APU's name in his 2014 Policy Speech at the Diet and said the programs APU offers can prepare Japanese youths for the global age. By utilizing APU as a benchmark for the discussion of the internationalization process provide some critical insights into the future course of Japanese universities.

The purpose of this paper is to review and assess the progress of Japanese universities in terms of internationalization at the time of this writing. It will consider the depth and width of fundamental changes required for this internationalization process. In short, previous effort of internationalization at Japanese universities were analogous to "cosmetic surgery". Now it is quite apparent that they will have to undergo a rather radical "artificial organ

* Dean (Admissions) & Professor, Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University, Japan
e-mail: yuichi58@apu.ac.jp

transplant operation” much more fundamental and serious surgery that changes the basic structure of university education and management.

This paper’s scope is limited mostly to undergraduate program. There has been much confusion in the categorization of universities in Japan since there is no common categorization such as the Carnegie Classifications. Only recently, the Japanese Central Education Council¹ (2008) has proposed the differentiation of universities by their functions. Moreover, most of the previous discussions on the internationalization of Japanese universities have been mainly centered around, consciously or unconsciously, graduate program or large research universities. This paper re-focuses on the undergraduate program because it has the absolute mass of students enrolled and it has the critical impact on the future of Japanese society. Re-examination of undergraduate programs is the key for change.

I. Mirage of internationalization

In order to examine the internationalization of Japanese universities, it is necessary to briefly review its history with a few significant milestones. The first of them is the 100,000 International Student Initiative. Some scholarly works (*e.g.* Horie, 2003) have reviewed and evaluated its impact on the Japanese universities. Prime Minister Nakasone proposed the scheme in 1983 to increase the number of international students tenfold. It was the first scheme with the specific goal of recruiting 100,000 students from developing countries to study in Japan so that they would eventually return to their home countries to improve regional development. The paradigm of this scheme resembled that of the United States Government’s initiatives after the World War II such as Government Appropriation for Relief in Occupied Area (GARIOA) and Fulbright scholarships.

The 100,000 scheme indeed impacted many universities. For example, some universities had to support it by increasing the number of international students. If a university wished to increase a student quota when opening a new faculty or department, the MEXT (then *Monbusho*²) required the university to set the target number of international students and the quota was given for international students when seeking an approval from the *Monbusho*. In some

¹ Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT)’s consultative body.

² Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, merged and reorganized into MEXT in 2001.

national universities, new teaching positions, Foreign Student Advisor, were created. Moreover, some grants were given to national universities to create a “Foreign Student Center” with Japanese language programs. *Monbusho* also encouraged the establishment of undergraduate and graduate programs to train students to become Japanese as a Second Language teachers. This is the time when an infrastructure to receive international students was gradually formed.

Monbusho’s international education arm, the Association of International Education, Japan (AIEJ), slowly expanded its operation within Japan and overseas. Also, this is the time when a professional organization for international educators, Japan Association for Foreign Student Affairs (JAFSA) added a number of individual members.

In 2006, the number of international students in Japan reached the target of 100,000. MEXT with the leadership of Prime Minister Fukuda then announced the 300,000 International Student Scheme. In part, it was an extension of the 100,000 scheme but with a few critical and fundamental differences. The former scheme was based on the development aid paradigm; where as the latter was to retain as a valuable workforce the highly trained talents in Japan. The population of Japan is predicted to decrease considerably in a few decades, and the debates on the possibility of receiving foreign workers or immigrants were taking place. A controversial 10 million immigration plan proposed by Sakanaka (2009) was published, and it coincided with the 300 thousand plan. Sakanaka’s argument was to make up the population loss by the highly talented foreign workers, meaning those who are receiving a university degree in Japan.

To further reinforce the university infrastructure to receive more international students, MEXT announced the Global 30 initiative (G30) in 2008. It was to designate 30 universities to increase the number of international students by establishing overseas offices to recruit students, to offer courses or degree programs in English, and other measures. For the first round, thirteen universities were selected. The schools are all comprehensive and large universities that seem to be able to increase the number of international students from 16,000 to 50,000 by year 2020. The year 2015 is the last year of this grant initiative, and the result of this initiative with its huge budget will then be seen. The number of international students at those 13 universities as of 2013 was only 22,883. The question is whether those 13 universities can continue the current scholarship or recruitment without the grant. It was expected that the second group of universities will be added to make the total 30; however,

because of the change in the ruling party, the G30 had never reached to full 30 universities.³

Comparison of the 100,000 and 300,000 schemes reveals a few basic commonalities. Use of the word internationalization is deliberately avoided in describing the schemes described above because the “internationalization of campus” was equal to the increase of international students on campus up to this time. Furthermore, design of the policy and implementation were to create an “island” on campus that segregates international students or international education related operations from the rest of campus activities and management. Because the number of international students, even with the G30 universities, was still small and those international students were mostly postgraduate students living in an enclosure of their laboratories or classrooms. It seems that most of the G30 programs were carefully crafted not to disturb the regular academic and business operation. The choice of large institutions was good as they have more room to grow in number; however, the large and traditional universities have more operational complexities and are resistant to change. MEXT and G30 universities seem unaware that real challenge of internationalization lies in a completely different area.

II. Hard reality of internationalization

While many Japanese universities focused on the intake of international students as an internationalization initiative, outside of the ivory tower, Japanese business sector was finding it difficult to find a young Japanese workforce for their global business activities. Many Japanese companies had accelerated their off shore business expansion; however, the lack of Japanese university graduates with command of a foreign language who could work in an intercultural setting was significantly limiting their business. The number of Japanese students who choose to go overseas to study was declining and also the increase of “inward-looking” youngsters had become a social concern. The project for Promotion of Global Human Resource Development announced and implemented in 2013 is another cornerstone for the international education in Japan. For this new initiative, the target is not the international students but the Japanese ones. MEXT now wishes to send a large number of Japanese students overseas for short- or long-term programs. Another change in focus is a shift from postgraduate to undergraduate programs because the main new recruits for

³ Content of the current programs are found in <http://www.uni.international.mext.go.jp>

Japanese companies are undergraduate students. There is a direct link between study abroad and job placement. This strong demand from the business sector, and consequently from the government, was indeed a wake-up call for Japanese universities. The question was whether Japanese universities had awakened and responded immediately and appropriately to the call.

During the last half of the 2000s and the early 2010s, the government agencies, think-tanks and universities proposed various ideas. Akita International University and Waseda University created English only degree programs. The University of Tokyo suggested that they would discuss beginning their academic calendar in September in line with other countries, not mentioning when their academic calendar ends. The chief reason was to internationalize the academic and research programs. They also suggested a gap-term program prior to enrollment so that students will not have any gap or wasted time between high school graduation and university matriculation times. Waseda University had proposed to implement a “Quarter System”, where they split one regular semester into two “quarters” and they start the new system from their language program. APU’s fifteen-year experience now clearly suggests that those system changes are not the key to internationalization; they are rather superficial and peripheral changes which will not change a university for internationalization. APU has two language track system where students can complete their B.A. program only in English or a combination of English and Japanese. APU had also introduced the Quarter System as early by the early 2000s. Fall intake has been introduced by APU, but other international universities such as International Christian University have had the system since 1950s. It seems to be a mistaken belief that cosmetic surgery of the system will help university to internationalize. On the contrary, Japanese universities will have to go through a substantial paradigm shift if they wish to truly internationalize their system.

III. Contexts of internationalization

Prior to discussing the new paradigm, this paper outlines some of the contextual changes that require Japanese universities to introduce fundamental changes. First, but rather a minor issue, is the increasing competition among Japanese universities. Although the number of high school students is constantly declining, the number of universities or enrollment quota approved by the MEXT has not changed or is even increasing. This incompatible situation will soon lead to the closure of a few if not two to three dozen universities.

Japanese universities compete for the right number of fee-paying students to make their financial balance.

The second change is created partly from the shortage of high school students but it is a quality issue. After 1945 with the introduction of the American idea of higher education, Japanese higher education shifted from education for the elites to for the masses. With the condition where the quality of general high school students' academic achievement held constant, universities had little choice but had to recruit less qualified students. Yet, the blame should not be only on the student side because the universities had changed little and did not depart from the elite education model. Changes in Japan for the last 50 years alone show that the country's industrial structure had drastically transformed from manufacturing to service/knowledge industry. The locus and focus of business operations had shifted from primarily domestic to international. Nevertheless, knowledge and skill training provided by the universities seem to have stayed the same while the external factors, both domestic and international, had changed significantly. Japanese students may have been ill-equipped with the "old style" of university education and have not been ready to function in an ever-changing society.

Dominance of English in the world is the third change. A good example is the use of English as a medium of instruction. Japanese companies now have no choice but expand their business activities overseas. This modification requires them to hire a large number of employees who can handle business in languages other than Japanese. Command of English should be a higher priority than the level of daily conversation. Many business corporations set a TOEIC score 750 for the standard when they dispatch their staff to overseas. Students are required to have a good score in TOEIC or any English test. Universities are primarily responsible for language education; and traditional English language program are no longer sufficient, and they may have to train students outside of the language program. One of the alternative or additional training component is the regular class in English to train students in a more cognitively-complex mode.

Dominance of English does not end only in business. Even within the academia, specially after the introduction of Erasmus in Europe, English became the main language of instruction and research. Japanese universities that could enjoy the relative solitude in terms of language will no longer to do so or they will be left behind in the global competition, *e.g.* raking system. It is a logical consequence that MEXT and Japanese universities wish to increase the number of English base program or the number of courses offered in English. The

point is that it is not the English that matters most, but the design of the course and the delivery of education.

Japanese universities are in crisis. No critics will disagree with this statement. The question here is why then Japanese universities are not changing sufficiently rapidly. There are three main reasons why Japanese are not making sufficient amount of changes with appropriate speed.

First is the lack of vision. Most Japanese universities have vague mottos or slogans to illustrate their education and research goals. However, those ambiguous visions are not able to differentiate one university from others. Without a clear vision that can identify an institution, it will not be able to create mission statement and strategy. This particular combination of vision, mission, and strategy has not been widely shared by university executives even at the time of this writing. For Japanese universities, this line of thinking was not necessary for a long time. They were only categorized as national or private, old or new, or by competitiveness with the high school students' test scores called "*Hensachi*". Universities had become cookie-cutter universities in one large group, called "university". Lack of vision will obscure the future course of university administration and education. Additionally, many universities critically lack leaders who can articulate vision, mission and strategy. The absence of good leadership could be attributed to little professional training for university executives. In most Japanese universities executives, both faculties and administrators, are amateurs in running the university in the time of global competition.

An insufficient sense of crisis among university personnel is the second factor. Japan now has a little over one hundred million population with over 700 universities. Until now, although the discussion of the appropriate number of universities in Japan against the declining population has been on the news, not many university officials paid serious attention. Unlike Korea, Japanese MEXT may not directly intervene and control the student quota given to each university. The number of student quotas given to universities is more than the number of high school students who wish to study in higher education already. Some drastic measures must be taken by the MEXT or by universities to avoid landslide closure of universities and to avoid deteriorating education quality. Creation of simple international programs will not able to reverse the situation. Rather, the uncontrolled expansion will further worsen the financial basis of a university. In the past the number, quantity, was the key for success. Streamline the university by closing colleges or department has been taboo; yet it is time to reorganize the system to provide quality education. Furthermore,

the copycat approach used by many universities will only diminish their university identity; it consequently minimizes their educational value to high school students.

Lastly, the majority of Japanese universities have been shielded from international competition. Currently, some research oriented institutions are under great pressure to be listed in the world ranking of universities; however, they are quickly losing ground to other universities in the world. Competition in terms of research quality is not only the competitive arena for a university. Competition to recruit the best quality students, faculty members, staff members is on another layer of university operation; moreover, competition for the quality of education is another layer. International recruitment is a good example. If the number of Japanese students is not sufficient to fulfill the student quota, natural direction of a university is to recruit non-Japanese students from overseas to make up the number. The fact is that few Japanese universities seriously have recruited students from overseas while major English speaking countries are pouring resources into recruitment of foreign students to maintain the quality of their education and to keep the finances of university sound. Unfortunately, the brand name of “Japan” will not go beyond anime cosplay and Japan being the industrial giant in the world is not sufficient to attract international students as many Japanese university officials wish to believe. As explained in the previous section, the Japanese government has implemented numerous projects, yet the money seemed to have been spent ineffectively.

In Japan, we often use the term, “Galapagos-ation”, meaning that the Japanese system has been left out of the evolution. Japanese universities are not an exception. We now can see only a few changes such as the ideas mentioned in the previous section, *i.e.* those superficial changes. When discussing the internationalization of the university, Mestenhauser (2011) clearly pointed out that the internationalization of a university is a system change. The whole paradigm of university education and administration needs to be re-examined and changed to meet the challenge. The main advocates of internationalization of higher education, for example, Knight (2008) emphasize the change in education; however, as an organization education alone will not be able to change. Governance as a whole needs to change. This paradigm shift is a fundamental change and not all universities will be able to complete or even begin the shift. Simply put, internationalization is equal to leaving the Galapagos where universities enjoy the status-quo.

This paper’s focus is on the internationalization of universities; yet, if we take Mestenhauser’s system perspective, internationalization is a system change.

We will have to rethink the goal of university education, that is what we teach and how we teach. Even the basic term “teaching” will need serious attention. Is teaching the main educational activity at a university? Transfer of knowledge has been the main purpose of a university. However, we now have to answer questions like how we teach social or global communication skill, or how we teach value formation for the global and multicultural society where our students will live in the future.

At APU, close to half of the student body is Japanese while another half is non-Japanese students from over 80 countries and regions. The ratio is similar for faculty members where about a half are internationally educated and taught in many different education systems. The medium of instruction is both Japanese and English offering courses on the quarter system. Students can enroll either in Spring or Fall and all the first-year international students will be housed in the on-campus international dormitory with a few hundred Japanese students. This international dorm is functioning as a basic living, learning community. APU also offers many overseas learning opportunities from a pre-enrollment study abroad program, a four-day intensive intercultural program for freshman, many short to medium term overseas study programs to two-year double-degree programs. We can safely conclude that APU has most of the above-mentioned components of a “superficial” system of internationalization. What APU has been trying to focus upon after completing cosmetic surgery is the very basic purpose of a university education: what our students will know upon graduating from APU and how we can guarantee the quality. This is parallel to Knight’s(2008) idea of internationalization of a university claiming a university needs to revisit its purpose, function, and delivery.

With a half dozen Good Practice Grants from the MEXT, APU could design and implement some innovative programs such as the first year student program, faculty and staff development, and other international programs. At the same time APU has been working on the American Association of Colleges and Schools of Business (AACSB) accreditation for its College of International Management, both undergraduate and MBA levels. Ideas like “mission-driven” curriculum and faculty hiring; assessment of learning based on the learning goal; rubrics; and e-portfolio were quite new to our system while these ideas are the “standard” in the United States’ universities. This paper is not advocating that the global standard is found in the United States system; rather, after a thorough research, APU has consciously chosen the United States standard practice for good reasons. In some parts, it was an “organ transplant”. Introduction of rubrics to APU’s international programs or business program will redesign the

way we evaluate our students and the way students will learn. APU is testing VALUE rubrics by the Association of American Colleges and Universities to examine if they match with a university in a different socio-cultural context. Some APU faculty members are also testing our own version of rubric use. Another major “organ transplant” is its faculty development program with the use of Fink’s Significant Learning scheme (Fink, 2013). For one-year faculty development program for newly hired teaching staff, APU has worked with The University of Minnesota to design a course where our new hires will receive training on the use of language, that is English, intercultural classroom management, and redesigning their courses with the idea of significant learning. This is a clear departure from the regular way of course design that a professor teaches what s/he thinks is important. The new way of course design is intended to give students a significant learning experience for their lives. This new “transplanted organ” will expand as the year progresses; and APU hopes to have about 20 to 25 teaching staffs who will be able to design their courses on the same idea of education in four years. To have more than 20% of faculty members on a new scheme of university education clearly change the landscape and the students’ educational experience. This new faculty development program is just one example to indicate that change at a fundamental level is critical to staying competitive globally.

IV. Can Japanese universities change?

This subtitle is possibly misleading when compared to the main theme of this short paper. Perhaps it should be restated as “Japanese universities have no choice but change”. Moreover, they have to be further internationalized if they wish to remain in business and to provide quality education for their students.

The change that will transform the education and governance of a given university will require the combination of wise and strong leadership and the clear vision. In terms of the university governance and leadership, MEXT has clearly directed universities to give the director of the board or the university president more power (Central Education Council, 2013). In many universities, each school or college still has some autonomous and strong power for any system-wide decisions. A university-wide decision such as “vision statement” will not easily reach consensus because the negotiation among the schools or colleges will take an inordinately long time, and power politics among the colleges may hinder effective decision making. Along with the leadership, the vision and mission of a university must be re-formulated so that one university is

different from others. The mission statement in turn will determine priorities in the allocation of resources and even curriculum. To be internationally competitive, any university will have to clearly identify its strength and uniqueness to be selected by students. Or, it will soon be categorized as “others” and sink into oblivion. Many Japanese universities are trying to internationalize so that they will not be one of the “others”; however, if they all employ the similar cosmetic surgery, the end result is quite apparent. Those universities will inevitably look the same to prospective students and the business sector; and below the surface they share the same old university education legacy. To repeat, this mode of change will not equip a university with a strong competitive position.

The next point is redesigning the undergraduate program. In the past, Japanese universities were criticized as an “amusement park”. Japanese universities are very competitive when selecting students, but once students are in the undergraduate program it is very easy for them to graduate. As pointed out above, the number of seats prepared for high school students is larger than the actual enrollees. Many universities are even non-competitive in receiving students. Students’ academic aptitude is quite diverse. On top of this, the amount of study time by Japanese university students is significantly shorter than that of the United States (Suzuki, 2012). Do Japanese universities offer a good education to their students? Similar to the issues raised in the United States universities (Fink, 2013), Japanese universities mainly use lecture as the primary means of education. APU’s new initiative to redesign courses and their delivery could be a way to create an educational environment where students learn something significant rather than simply completing the requirement and obtaining some knowledge on the major field.

In redesigning their undergraduate programs, Japanese universities will have to choose if they wish to become research-oriented or education-oriented depending on their vision and mission. Moreover, even within an institution, a new categorization of faculty members should be introduced. Those who will mainly place his or her efforts on education should have a different selection procedure, evaluation for promotion, and faculty development scheme from those who are mainly in research. Division of labor by functions among universities or faculty members should be in place as MEXT has suggested in their paper (Central Education Council, 2008).

The last requirement for the change is the administrators. While professors may be in charge of the content and delivery of academic programs, in many Japanese universities, administrators are simply the clerical supporters.

Yet, if they do not know the current trend in higher education, they will not be able to allocate funds appropriately nor can they plan a campus facility to maximize the student's learning experience. Students not only meet with the faculty members but they also have some interface with the administrators. There may be a case where any given communication administrators have with the students is providing education in a larger sense. The student services section and job placement offices are critically important as the officer can change students' lives. Furthermore, university education will not end in the classroom or in the laboratory. In most cases, faculty members are not concerned with non-academic activities while the administrators are. Design of any on- and off-campus student activities or programs in the dormitory has the same education quality as the academic programs. In this sense, the administrators are the educators, too. The university system must be designed to meet the wholeness of the students' learning; accordingly, administrators must be a professional in students' learning to complete the wholeness of a university education. Constant training such as student advising, crisis management, program design and assessment are crucial for the creation of a new educational environment and continuous improvement.

V. Summary and conclusion

This paper has discussed the paradigm change that Japanese universities should consider and implement. The main argument is that the current form of internationalization is too superficial and will not bring about the very change that Japanese universities need to make. APU, because of its design, was destined to face the forefront of undergraduate education quality and competition with universities abroad. Its experience clearly illustrates that the "cosmetic surgery" type internationalization will not equip Japanese university international competitive edge. Only with the redesigning of the whole undergraduate program including academic and non-academic along with various rather technical changes will transform Japanese universities to become international. This paradigm shift is a must even though it may be a "mission impossible". A University's mission after all is to meet the students' needs for education for their life and to meet the global society.

References

- Central Education Council. (2008). *Promotion of Functional Differentiation of Universities and the Development of Inter-University Network*. Retrieved from http://www.mext.go.jp/b_menu/shingi/chukyo/chukyo4/gijiroku/08121809/002.pdf
- Central Education Council. (2013). *Promotion of Reformation of University Governance*. Retrieved from http://www.mext.go.jp/b_menu/shingi/chukyo/chukyo4/houkoku/1343468.htm
- Fink, L.D. (2013). *Creating Significant Learning Experiences: An Integrated Approach to Designing College Courses*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Horie, M. (2003). *International Students and Internationalization of Higher Education in Japan: Interpretive Study with Policy Makers and International Educators*. Ph.D. Dissertation (University of Minnesota)
- Knight, J. (2008). *Higher Education in Turmoil: The Changing World of Internationalization*. Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.
- Mestenhauser, J.A. (2011). *Reflections on the Past, Present, and Future of Internationalizing Higher Education*. Minneapolis: Global Programs and Strategy Alliance at the University of Minnesota.
- Sakanaka, H. (2009). *Plan for Japanese Style Migrant Country*. Tokyo: Imin Seisaku Kenkyujo.
- Sternberg, R.J. (2010). *College Admissions for the 21st Century*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Suzuki, N. (2012). *Why Japanese Students Do Not Study Compared to the Students in the West?* Retrieved from http://www.mext.go.jp/b_menu/shingi/chukyo/chukyo4/siryo/attach/1324009.htm

The Internationalization of China's Higher Education: Foci on its transnational higher education

Futao Huang*

Introduction

Since the implementation of economic reforms and the open-door policy in 1978, huge changes have happened to the internationalization of China's higher education. Prior to the late 1990s, international activities involved with personal mobility and the internationalization of university curriculum in China had constituted major forms in the internationalization of Chinese higher education. Namely, over the period, the internationalization of higher education in China was mainly concerned with sending Chinese faculty members and students to foreign countries for further study or research; the introduction of English products into Chinese campuses; and a growing adaptation of the English language as the medium of instruction.

As an integral part of the internationalization of Chinese higher education and closely connected with the internationalization of university curriculum, since 1995, there has been transnational educational institutions and programs in earnest on Chinese campuses. Based on earlier research and national statistics, this study discusses the emergence of and changes in the transnational higher education (TNHE) in China since the late 1980s. The study begins with an analysis of the definition of transnational higher education in the Chinese context, then it examines distinguished characteristics of the transnational higher education in different phases since the late 1980s; its role in China's higher education system and issues. The study concludes with a discussion of the implications for policy, institutions, practice and research.

* Professor, RIHE, Hiroshima University, e-mail: futao@hiroshima-u.ac.jp

This study will focus on the following questions:

- What changes have happened to China's transnational higher education?
- What are the most important characteristics of it? and
- What issues and effects have resulted from its development?

Key concepts

There are several definitions of transnational higher education. For example, according to UNESCO, the term "transnational education" is generally defined as that "in which the learners are located in a country different from the one where the degree-granting institution is based" (UNESCO-CEPES, 2000). Accordingly, if "transnational higher education" is regarded as a part of post-secondary and tertiary education and training, it may take any of the forms listed below (GATE, 1999).

- *Branch Campuses*: campuses established by an institution in another country to provide its educational or training programs to foreign students.
- *Franchises*: an institution (A) approves provision by an institution (B) in another country of one or more of A's programs to students in B's country.
- *Articulation*: the systematic recognition by an institution (A) of specified study at an institution (B) in another country as partial credit towards completion of a program at institution A.
- *Twinning*: agreements between institutions in different countries to offer joint programs.
- *Corporate Programs*: programs offered by large corporations for academic credit from institutions, which often involve credit transfer across national borders.
- *Online Learning and Distance Education Programs*: those distance education programs that are delivered through satellites, computers, correspondence, or other technological means across national boundaries.
- *Study Abroad*: a student from institution (A) travels to take courses at institution (B) in a different country and to live there for a fixed period of time.

Moreover, Knight believes that "transnational" and "borderless" as well as "cross-border" education are terms that are being used to describe real or virtual movement of students, teachers, knowledge, and educational programs from one

country to another. While there may be some conceptual differences between these terms, they are often used interchangeably (Knight, 2002).

However, special mention should be made that as the definition of transnational higher education varies widely, it can take different forms according to individual countries and regions. For example, in Australia the term “transnational higher education” is defined in a much broader sense. It denotes any education or training at the higher education level provided beyond national or regional borders through mobility of people, program or institution. Accordingly, this definition includes the so-called international education (often referred as “onshore education” in Australia) provided to international students coming to Australia and it also covers distance learning or e-learning delivered to students living outside Australia. Furthermore, a variety of terms similar to “transnational”, such as “offshore”, “cross-border” and “borderless”, are sometimes used interchangeably.

In this study, though there exist slight differences from existing interpretations, the concept of transnational higher education is defined as having two dimensions: a real and a virtual. At the real dimension, it basically refers to three primary transnational or cross-border activities: the movement of foreign teaching staff, academic programs and institutions in the receiving countries. While at the virtual dimension, it is mainly concerned with distance education and the investment on the education in the receiving countries from foreign corporate.

Although in many non-English speaking countries there is no accurately equivalent term for transnational higher education, some of these countries adopt other usages to denote the similar meaning. It is true of China, too. The English term transnational education is literally translated into the Chinese language as 跨国或跨境教育 (*Kuaguo or Kuajing jiaoyu*); however, since 1995 when the Chinese government issued the first regulation on *Zhongwai hezuo banxue* in Chinese, meaning Chinese-foreign cooperation in running schools, or the joint operation of higher education institutions and collaborative delivery of educational programs with foreign partners and universities of Hong Kong and Macao, instead of transnational higher education, *Zhongwai hezuo banxue* is officially employed in almost all occasions. Perhaps it is simply because no matter how many forms transnational education may take, no entirely independent foreign institutions or degree-awarding programs are permitted in China, it should be jointly established and provided in collaboration with local Chinese universities or other higher educational institutions. For example, in the first document “Contemporary Regulation on Operation of Higher Education

Institutions in Cooperation with Foreign Partners” which was issued by the former Ministry of Education on January 26, 1995, the term *Zhongwai hezuo banxue* is defined as occurring when

Those foreign corporate, individuals, and related international organizations in cooperation with educational institutions or other social organizations with corporate status in China, jointly establish education institutions in China, recruit Chinese citizen as major educational objectives, and undertake education and teaching activities. (Chapter 1, Provision 2)

In this study, the term transnational higher education is employed to denote the Chinese expression *Zhongwai hezuo banxue* in the Chinese context.

Changes in China's TNHE

The growth of and changes in the Chinese TNHE can be practically identified into three phases since mid-1980s in accordance with its forms and characteristics in each phase.

Phase One (late 1980s-1994): Movement of teaching staff and training programs

Even before the issue of the first promulgation of contemporary regulations on *Zhongwai hezuo banxue* in 1995, some Chinese universities had already cooperated with foreign partners to invite their teaching staff and to offer joint programs. These programs were essentially conducted in the form of *twinning*, based on partnership agreements between the Chinese institutions and their foreign partners. Most of the joint programs during this phase were concerned with foreign languages and foreign culture, with the objective of promoting mutual understanding between China and foreign partners. Although in some cases certificates or diplomas could be awarded to students after they had finished these joint programs, none of these institutions or joint programs was approved to confer foreign degrees or even Chinese degrees. One example is provided by the Johns Hopkins-Nanjing University Center for Chinese and American Studies, which was set up in September 1986 and financed by both Chinese and American governments. Another was the Goethe Institute, Beijing, which was an outcome of cooperation between Beijing University of Foreign Studies with the Goethe Institute in Germany, conducting German language

training for Chinese faculty members and students as well as introducing aspects of German culture. In 1988, the MBA class in Tianjin College of Finance and Economics (now the International Center of MBA Education of Tianjin University of Finance and Economics) became one of the first joint programs in China. This university received approval to run an MBA program in partnership with Oklahoma City University, USA and with the right to award a foreign degree. With the approval of the Committee on Academic Degrees under the State Council and Education Department, China and based on agreement with the American partner, students who passed the examinations can be awarded an MBA degree of Oklahoma City University, USA. All these activities were basically conducted at an institutional level without involvement of any national specific regulation or documentation (Huang, 2006).

Phase Two (1995-2003): Emergence and rapid expansion of both degree-conferring programs and institutions

The significance of the promulgation of “Contemporary Regulation” in 1995 cannot be overestimated, for it is not only the first national document to regulate the operation and provision of both institutions and programs in collaboration with foreign partners and universities of Hong Kong and Macao, but also has stimulated the rapid growth of China’s TNHE. For example, in 1995, there were only two joint programs that could lead to a foreign degree; by 2004, the number of joint programs provided in Chinese higher education institutions in collaboration with foreign partners had reached 745, and joint programs qualified to award degrees of foreign or Hong Kong universities amounted to 169 by June 2004 (MOE, 2005). Among the newly-accredited joint programs from 1995 to 2002 alone, the top two foreign countries which undertook collaboration with Chinese universities are Australia and the United States, followed by growing numbers of universities in Hong Kong after the return of Hong Kong to China in 1997. With regard to discipline, almost all of the joint programs offered with foreign degrees over the decade are concerned with international management of trade, finance, and information science; that is, a focus on newly developed and popular subjects similar to that found in some Western countries. Furthermore, nearly half of the joint programs lead to an MBA degree. About 90 of the joint programs are delivered at postgraduate level and award master’s degrees (Huang, 2003, 2007, 2008).

Phase Three (2004-present): Establishment of jointly-operated independent campuses in China

Like many Asian countries, the establishment of independent branch campuses solely owned by foreign universities or corporations is still not permitted unless they undertake collaboration with local Chinese universities or education groups. Essentially differing from the importation of foreign programs and jointly-offered programs in the previous phases, in 2004 the University of Nottingham, Ningbo China in partnership with the private Zhejiang Wanli Education Group, a key player in the education sector in China was established, with the full approval of the Chinese Ministry of Education. It was the first Chinese-foreign University to open its doors in China. This case shows that the Chinese government agreed to allow Chinese universities to conduct a partnership with a foreign institution to create a higher education establishment with the status of a corporation in China.

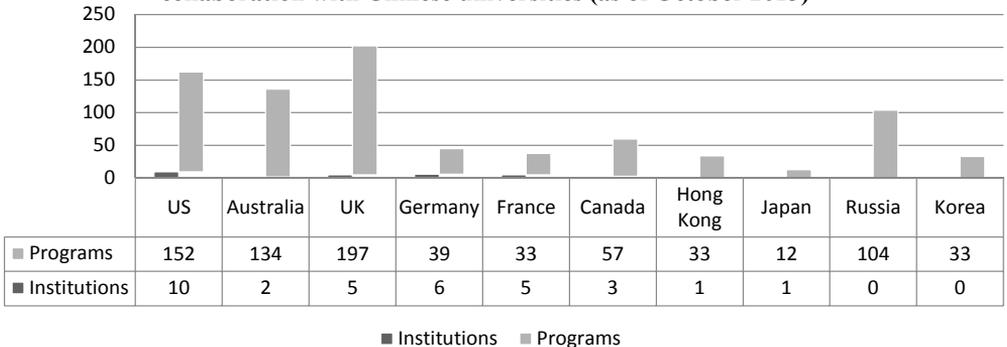
In fact, after the University of Nottingham, Ningbo China, in 2006 a new international university jointly founded by Xi'an Jiaotong University China and the University of Liverpool United Kingdom as a joint venture came into being. As an independent Chinese-Foreign cooperative university, it captures the essence of both prestigious parent universities and is the first Chinese leading national university which was approved by the Ministry of Education to operate an independent university with a foreign university in China. The University offers undergraduate degree programs in the fields of science, engineering and management, and awards both its own Chinese degree and a degree from the University of Liverpool (Xjtlu, 2013). Following the university, in 2011 and 2012 another two new universities with an independent corporate status were founded between Chinese leading national universities and foreign universities. One is Duke Kunshan University which is jointly established and operated by Duke University in the United States, and Kun Shan municipal government in Jiangsu province and Wuhan University in China. The other is New York University Shanghai which was collaboratively founded by New York University (NYU), East China Normal University (ECNU), the Shanghai Municipal Education Commission (SMEC), and the Pudong New Area Government in Shanghai. In these newly-established universities, both administrative and academic arrangements are basically modelled on foreign mother universities, yet some Chinese characteristics are still emphasized. For example, the president of the governing board or the board of trustees in any of these universities should be a Chinese national; Chinese is also encouraged to be one

of two instructional languages. To illustrate, in order to graduate from NYU Shanghai, students are required to complete 128 points of coursework, distributed among core general education requirements, major requirements, and electives. Typically, students are advised to complete the core curriculum during their first two years and the bulk of their major requirements their second two years. While English is the language of instruction at NYU Shanghai, proficiency in Chinese is also required of all students by the time they graduate.

Additionally, the number of jointly-operated institutions and programs within local universities expanded significantly. However, differing from what happened in the second phase in which a vast majority of joint programs in collaboration with foreign universities and universities of Hong Kong and Macao were provided at a master's level, as of October 2013, according to the national data, there are 702 undergraduate programs and only 169 programs at a graduate level. Similarly, the number of the Chinese universities which provided undergraduate programs was 40 while the number of the universities which delivered graduate programs in partnership with foreign universities and these from Hong Kong and Macao was only 16.

With respect to the foreign partners by country origin, as suggested in Table 1, a huge majority of them are English-speaking countries, especially the share by the United Kingdom, the United States and Australian universities is considerable and evident in terms of both programs and institutions. However, it is noteworthy that the number of Russian universities which offered jointly-operated programs with Chinese universities had had a remarkable growth by 2013.

Table 1. Numbers of foreign universities and universities of Hong Kong in collaboration with Chinese universities (as of October 2013)

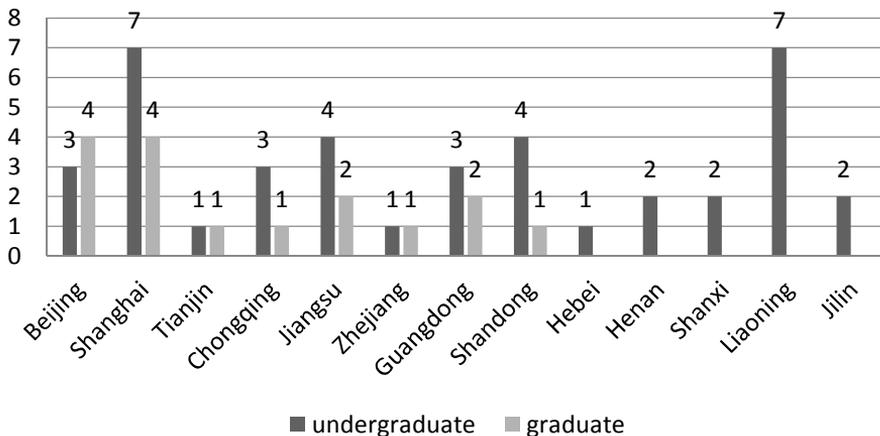


Source: More information is available at <http://www.crs.jsj.edu.cn/index.php/default/index> with author's modifications

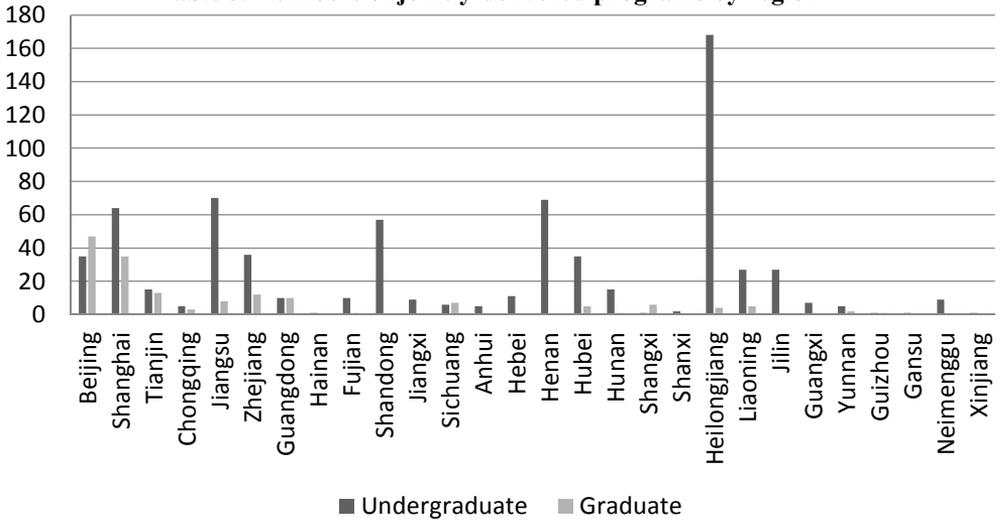
Further, it is interesting to note that there exists a clear imbalance in the distribution of both institutions and programs at undergraduate and graduate levels. As indicated in Tables 2 and 3, both these jointly-operated institutions and jointly-delivered programs were densely established and provided in big cities, such as Beijing, Shanghai and the economically-advanced provinces. One of the major reasons for this is that in these cities and provinces there are more higher education institutions and a quickly-growing demand for higher education. However, there is an exception for Heilongjiang province which is located in the northeast part of China adjacent the Russian Federations. It is neither a big educational nor a wealthy province like Jiangsu or Guangdong province, because of the geographic factor, its cooperation with the Russian Federation in operating both jointly-operated institutions and programs has progressed quickly.

In relation to the disposition of educational programs, no fundamental changes have been found in all these Chinese-foreign cooperative delivery of educational programs by discipline since the mid-1990s. According to the data, the proportion of programs at both undergraduate and graduate programs in economics, management, law, medicine, science, engineering, including information science, still accounted for a predominant share of the total (MOE, 2013). This pattern reflects the great demand in China for training manpower equipped with advanced knowledge of international economics, management, information science, and law.

Table 2. Numbers of jointly-operated institutions by region



Source: More information is available at <http://www.crs.jsj.edu.cn/index.php/default/index> with author's modifications

Table 3. Numbers of jointly-delivered programs by region

Source: More information is available at <http://www.crs.jsj.edu.cn/index.php/default/index> with author's modifications

Drivers and issues

As pointed out by some existing research, key drivers for the rapid growth of the TNHE in China can be identified as follows:

Firstly, compared with Japan, Korea, and many advanced western countries, higher education in China is still in the early “mass” phase since its rate of enrollment in higher education at the aged group is only 25 as of 2012. The increasing demand for higher education and the inability of the limited number of higher education institutions to meet this demand has become a more and more serious issue as China's economy rapidly expands. Development of the TNHE which largely based on existing institutions and joint programs is considered as a response to the growing demand for higher education.

Secondly, the traditional higher education patterns which are modelled on the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics between the mid-1950s and the mid-1980s merely focus on the production of professional manpower specialized in engineering and science. This model cannot graduate talents or manpower who are needed in the labor market since the introduction of market mechanisms and the delegation of more responsibility and autonomy to institutions after 1992. Therefore, importing TNHE service in educational ideas, curricula, and delivery of programs has been viewed as an effective way to improve academic quality

and standards, as well as to facilitate the general internationalization of Chinese higher education.

Thirdly, these TNHE programs which cannot be solely provided by local institutions are not only attractive, but also much cheaper than the expense which Chinese students have to pay for while studying for the same degree programs or qualifications abroad.

Finally, it is evident that the TNHE service provided by foreign partners is profit-based and driven by commercial interests. By charging much higher tuition and other fees in the transnational branch campuses and joint programs than they do at home, the foreign partners or providers can increase the income available to their home campuses. This is one of the most important reasons why there has been a continuous and fast expansion in the TNHE since the mid-1990s.

As every coin has two sides, key issues concerning the TNHE in China should also be mentioned. Similarly to many other countries in the region, they include the following aspects:

Firstly, no clear evidence shows that the incoming foreign education activities have played a substantial part in expanding student enrollments or accelerated the pace of ongoing massification of higher education. Perhaps one of the most important reasons for this is that expensive tuition fees make it extremely difficult for many students to be enrolled either in branch campuses of foreign institutions or in jointly-operated programs. For example, in general, these joint programs, and in particular programs leading to a qualification of conferring a degree of a foreign or of a Hong Kong university charge tuition fees close to or even greater than five times those of local institutions. In the case of New York University Shanghai, tuitions and fees are charged from international students at the same standard as in the mother university in the US. Even for local Chinese students, they are required to pay for more tuition and fees than normal Chinese students are charged in local Chinese universities by nearly twenty times. This is surely a huge burden for local Chinese students from poor families if they want to be admitted to study in the New York University Shanghai.

Secondly, it is still unclear whether or how significantly importation of TNHE services can eventually enhance the quality of teaching and learning in another country if it is mainly involved in profit-making activities. For some countries, it is true that foreign education provision has the potential to offer host nations cost-effective access to transnational higher education of a high quality, but except for a growth in numbers of imported programs concerning English

language training, MBA, information science, and so on, very few examples exist to suggest that the incoming transnational higher education activity has resulted in improvement of teaching and learning quality at either institutional or national level (Huang, 2010).

Thirdly, there seem to be consumer protection problems associated with lack of adequate and transparency information available to potential students, employers and competent recognition authorities. Much worse is that some Chinese-foreign cooperation in operating institutions and offering programs are even not subject to national quality assurance frameworks and stay outside monitoring and regulating regimes on either side, consequently, it is extremely difficult to understand what the quality of these transnational programs are, how good they are, and how they differentiate from their mother universities in terms of teaching quality.

Fourthly, a special mentions should be made that, among various issues to be tackled, no much achievement has been accomplished in facilitating the development of TNHE at a virtual dimension. Namely, in China it is still not permitted for any large foreign or transnational corporations to offer educational programs or qualifications which do not belong to any national higher education systems; neither is distance learning arrangements and virtual universities, which do not belong to the higher education systems of a particular country, are officially allowed to cooperate with any Chinese universities to award their degrees or diplomas. Seemingly, this two forms not only constitute an important part of the TNHE as noted previously, but also will inevitably grow in a rapid way worldwide with the further globalization and the advancement of information technology.

Finally, the imported TNHE activity in China is characterized by Chinese-foreign partnerships in educational programs as part of national higher education. Because these joint programs are normally provided in the public sector, especially those programs awarding foreign degrees, they are primarily offered in leading institutions and incorporated into the internationalization of China's higher education.

Concluding remarks

While being rigidly regulated and monitored by the central government and local authorities, due to the fact that it benefits the development of China's higher education, local authorities, students, and foreign partners, China's TNHE has achieved a great deal of progress. As discussed earlier, there has not only

been a steady and noticeable expansion of its numbers, but also an increasingly diversification in its forms. More importantly, it has transformed from the informal, incidental and laissez-fair stage to the more structured, systematic, and well-regulated and more transparent stage.

Although not much evidence shows how many students have been recruited and studied in these institutions and programs since the mid-1990s, neither could many examples be found to reveal how significantly the quality of either individual institutions or the entire higher education system in China has been improved because of the quick development of the TNHE since the mid-1990s, in practice the TNHE service, especially both jointly-operated institutions which are affiliated to Chinese universities and several Chinese-foreign campuses in China, has provided a totally new model of running and managing higher education institutions for China's higher education reforms. This study clearly shows that they have played a more and more important role in stimulating the internationalization of China's higher education and gradually become an indispensable part of the Chinese higher education system.

References

- GATE (Global Alliance for Transnational Education). (1999). *Trade in Transnational Education Services*. Washington D.C.: Global Alliance for Transnational Education.
- Huang, F. (2003). Transnational Higher Education: A Perspective from China, *Higher Education Research and Development*, 22(2), 193-203.
- Huang, F. (2006). Transnational higher education in Mainland China: A focus on foreign degree-conferring programs. In F. Huang, (Ed.), *Transnational Higher Education in Asia and the Pacific Region* (pp. 21-33). Hiroshima: Research Institute for Higher Education, Hiroshima University.
- Huang, F. (2007). Internationalization of Higher Education in the Developing and Emerging Countries: A Focus on Transnational Higher Education in Asia. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 11 (3/4), 421-432.
- Huang, F. (2008). Regulation and Practice of Transnational higher Education in China. In L. Dumn, & M. Wallace (Eds.), *Teaching in Transnational Higher Education: Enhancing Learning for Offshore International Students* (pp.23-33). New York and London: Routledge Taylor & Francis Group.
- Huang, F. (2010). Transnational Higher Education in Japan and China: A Comparative Study. In D.W. Chapman, W.K. Cummings, & G.A. Postiglione (Eds.), *Crossing Borders in East Asian Higher Education* (pp.265-282). Springer, Comparative Education Research Center,

The University of Hong Kong.

- Knight, J. (2002). Trade in higher education services: The implications of GATS. *The Observatory on Borderless Higher Education*. Retrieved 11, October 2011, from <http://www.obhe.ac.uk/>.
- MOE. (2005). List of joint programs awarding degrees of foreign universities and universities of Hong Kong, Retrieved October 2013, from <http://www.chnedu.net> [Chinese]
- MOE. (2013). Retrieved October 2013, from <http://www.crs.jsj.edu.cn/index.php/default/index> [Chinese]
- UNESCO-CEPES. (2000). *Code of Good Practice in the Provision of Transnational Education*. Bucharest, Romania: UNESCO-CEPES.
- Xjtlu (Xi'an Jiaotong-Liverpool University). (2013). Retrieved October 2013, from <http://www.xjtlu.edu.cn/en/about-us/> [Chinese]

Appendices

Appendix 1: Seminar Program*

The Internationalization of Higher Education: Realities and Implications

Date: December 5-6, 2013

Venue: Hiroshima University

Thursday, December 5

12:30 - Registration

*** Opening Remarks ***

13:00 - 13:15 Masashi Fujimura, Director & Professor, Research Institute for Higher Education (RIHE), Hiroshima University, Japan

Orientation

Futao Huang, Professor, RIHE, Hiroshima University

*** Presentations ***

MC: Satoshi P. Watanabe, Professor, RIHE, Hiroshima University, Japan

13:15 - 14:00 **Presentation 1**

“40 Years of Internationalisation in Europe: Accomplishments and Challenges”

Eric Beerkens, Senior Advisor for International Affairs, Leiden University, the Netherlands

14:00 - 14:45 **Presentation 2**

“Internationalization of American Higher Education: Policy Perspectives and Practical Concerns ”

Laura E. Rumbley, Associate Director, Center for International Higher Education (CIHE), Boston College, USA

14:45 - 15:30 **Presentation 3**

“English-Medium Teaching in Korean Higher Education: Policy Debates and Reality”

Kiyong Byun, Associate Professor, College of Education, Korea University/ Full-time Policy Advisor, The Ministry of Education, Republic of Korea

* As of December, 2013

15:30 - 15:45 Coffee Break

15:45 - 16:30 **Presentation 4**

“Japanese Universities and their Internationalization: Is Paradigm Shift Feasible?”

Yuichi Kondo, Dean (Admissions) & Professor, Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University, Japan

16:30 - 17:15 **Presentation 5**

“The Internationalization of China’s Higher Education: Focused on its Transnational Higher Education”

Futao Huang, Professor, RIHE, Hiroshima University

17:15 - 18:00 Q & A

Friday, December 6

MC: Fumihiro Maruyama, Professor, RIHE, Hiroshima University

***** Panel Discussion *****

9:30 - 12:00

Panelists:

Eric Beerkens

Laura E. Rumbley

Kiyong Byun

Yuichi Kondo

Futao Huang

Commentator:

Motohisa Kaneko, Professor, Research Center for University Studies, University of Tsukuba/ Professor Emeritus, The University of Tokyo, Japan

Appendix 2: List of Participants*

OVERSEAS PARTICIPANTS

Invited Experts

Eric Beerkens	Senior Advisor for International Affairs, Leiden University, The Netherlands
Laura E. Rumbley	Associate Director, Center for International Higher Education (CIHE), Boston College, USA
Kiyong Byun	Associate Professor, College of Education, Korea University / Full-time Policy Advisor, The Ministry of Education, Republic of Korea

and another 7 overseas participants

JAPANESE PARTICIPANTS

Invited Expert

Yuichi Kondo	Dean (Admissions) & professor, Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University
Motohisa Kaneko	Professor, Research Center for University Studies/ Professor Emeritus, The University of Tokyo

Research Institute for Higher Education (RIHE)

Masashi Fujimura	Director and Professor
Futao Huang	Professor
Tsukasa Daizen	Professor
Yumiko Hada	Professor
Fumihiko Maruyama	Professor
Satoshi P. Watanabe	Professor
Jun Oba	Associate Professor

and another 34 Japanese Participants

* As of December 5-6, 2013

R.I.H.E. PUBLICATION IN ENGLISH

RIHE International Publication Series

- No. 1: Kaneko, M. (1987). *Enrollment Expansion in Postwar Japan*.
- No. 2: Guocai, Z. (1989). *Higher Education Research in China: An Annotated Bibliography*.
- No. 3: Abe, Y. (1989). *Non-University Sector Higher Education in Japan*.
- No. 4: Kaneko, M. (1989). *Financing Higher Education in Japan: Trends and Issues*.
- No. 5: Kaneko, M. (1992). *Higher Education and Employment in Japan: Trends and Issues*.
- No. 6: Morgan, J. Keith (1999). *Universities and the Community: Use of Time in Universities in Japan*.
- No. 7: Arimoto, A. (ed.) (2001). *University Reforms and Academic Governance: Reports of the 2000 Three-Nation Workshop on Academic Governance*.
- No. 8: Arimoto, A. (ed.) (2002). *University Reforms and Academic Governance Reconsidered: Report of the Six-Nation Higher Education Research Project*.
- No. 9: Arimoto, A., Huang, F., and Yokoyama, K. (eds.) (2005). *Globalization and Higher Education*.
- No.10: Huang, F. (ed.) (2006). *Transnational Higher education in Asia and the Pacific Region*.

Higher Education Forum

- Higher Education Forum* Vol. 1 (2003).
- Higher Education Forum* Vol. 2 (2005).
- Higher Education Forum* Vol. 3 (2006).
- Higher Education Forum* Vol. 4 (2007).
- Higher Education Forum* Vol. 5 (2008).
- Higher Education Forum* Vol. 6 (2009).
- Higher Education Forum* Vol. 7 (2010).
- Higher Education Forum* Vol. 8 (2011).
- Higher Education Forum* Vol. 9 (2012).
- Higher Education Forum* Vol. 10 (2013).
- Higher Education Forum* Vol. 11 (2014).

Higher Education Research in Japan

- Higher Education Research in Japan* Vol. 1 (2003).
- Higher Education Research in Japan* Vol. 2 (2005).
- Higher Education Research in Japan* Vol. 3 (2006).
- Higher Education Research in Japan* Vol. 4 (2007).
- Higher Education Research in Japan* Vol. 5 (2008).

COE Publication Series

- No. 6: *Construction and Quality Assurance of 21st Century Higher Education* (Reports of the 2003 COE International Symposium) (2003).
- No. 7: *Mergers and Cooperation among Higher Education Institutions: Australia, Japan and Europe* (Reports of the 2003 COE International Seminar on Mergers and Cooperation) (2004).
- No.11: *Organization Reforms and University Governance: Autonomy and Accountability* (Reports of COE International Seminar) (2004).
- No.12: *Enhancing Quality and Building the 21st Century Higher Education System* (Reports of COE International Seminar/Eight-Nation Conference) (2004).
- No.20: *Quality, Relevance, and Governance in the Changing Academia: International Perspectives* (Reports of Changing Academic Profession Project Workshop) (2006).
- No.21: *A Cross-National Analysis of Undergraduate Curriculum Models: Focusing on Research-Intensive Universities* (2006).
- No.22: *Gender Inequity in Academic Profession and Higher Education Access: Japan, the United Kingdom, and the United States* (2006).
- No.23: *Constructing University Visions and the Mission of Academic Profession in Asian Countries: A Comparative Perspective* (Reports of COE International Seminar) (2007).
- No.29: *Changing Governance in Higher Education: Incorporation, marketisation, and other reforms – A Comparative study –* (2007).

RIHE International Seminar Reports

- No. 1: *Perspectives for the Future System of Higher Education* (Report of the Hiroshima International Seminar on Higher Education) (1977).
- No. 2: *Higher Education for the 1980s: Challenges and Responses* (Report of the Second Hiroshima International Seminar on Higher Education) (1980).
- No. 3: *Innovations in Higher Education: Exchange of Experiences and Ideas in International Perspective* (Reports of the Hiroshima/OECD Meeting of Experts on Higher Education and the Seminar on Innovations in Higher Education) (1981).
- No. 4: *Comparative Approach to Higher Education: Curriculum, Teaching and Innovations in an Age of Financial Difficulties* (Reports of the Hiroshima/OECD Meetings of Experts) (1983).
- No. 5: *The Changing Functions of Higher Education: Implications for Innovation* (Reports from the 1984 OECD/JAPAN Seminar on Higher Education), (1985).
- No. 6: *Higher Education Expansion in Asia* (Reports from the 1985 International Seminar on Asian Higher Education) (1985).
- No. 7: *Public and Private in Asian Higher Education Systems: Issues and Prospects* (Reports from the Third International Seminar on Higher Education in Asia) (1987).
- No. 8: *The Role of Government in Asian Higher Education Systems: Issues and Prospects*

- (Report from the Fourth International Seminar on Higher Education in Asia) (1988).
- No. 9: *Foreign Students and Internationalization of Higher Education* (Proceedings of OECD/JAPAN Seminar on Higher Education and the Flow of Foreign Students) (1989).
- No.10: *Academic Reforms in the World: Situation and Perspective in the Massification Stage of Higher Education* (Reports of the 1997 Six-Nation Higher Education Project Seminar) (1997).
- No.11: *Higher Education Reform for Quality Higher Education Management in the 21st Century: Economic, Technological, Social and Political Forces Affecting Higher Education* (Proceedings of the 1999 Six-Nation Presidents' Summit in Hiroshima) (2000).
- No.12: *The Changing Academic Profession in International Comparative and Quantitative Perspectives* (Report of the International Conference on the Changing Academic Profession Project, 2008) (2008).
- No.13: *The Changing Academic Profession over 1992-2007: International, Comparative, and Quantitative Perspectives* (Report of the International Conference on the Changing Academic Profession Project, 2009) (2009).
- No.14: *Producing Qualified Graduates and Assuring Education Quality in the Knowledge-Based Society: Roles and Issues of Graduate Education* (Report of the International Workshop on Graduate Education, 2009) (2010).
- No.15: *The Changing Academic Profession in International and Quantitative Perspectives: A Focus on Teaching & Research Activities* (Report of the International Conference on the Changing Academic Profession Project, 2010) (2010).
- No.16: *Diversifying Higher Education Systems in the International and Comparative Perspectives* (Report of the International Workshop on University Reform, 2010) (2011).
- No.17: *The Changing Academic Profession in Asia: Contexts, Realities and Trends* (Report of the International Conference on the Changing Academic Profession Project, 2011) (2011).
- No.18: *University Management, Present and Future: How and by whom?* (Report of the International Workshop on University Reform, 2011) (2012).
- No.19: *Comparison of University Governance: USA, UK, France and Japan* (Report of the International Seminar on University Governance, 2012) (2013).
- No.20: *The Changing Academic Profession in Asia: Teaching, Research, Governance and Management* (Report of the International Conference on the Changing Academic Profession Project, 2013) (2013).

郵便はがき

739-8512

お手数で
すが切手
をお貼り
下さい。

東広島市鏡山一丁目二番二号

広島大学

高等教育研究開発センター
行



文献受領書

RIHE International Seminar Reports
(No.21, August 2014)

一部

寄贈による上記の文献を受領いたしました。

平成 年 月 日

広島大学 高等教育研究開発センター長 殿

(住所) 〒

(所属部局等)

(氏名)

印

－ アンケート －

次号以降の文献配布について

継 続

を希望する。

非 継 続

(*どちらかを○で囲んでください。)

Post Card



**Research Institute for Higher Education,
Hiroshima University,
1-2-2, Kagamiyama, Higashi-Hiroshima,
739-8512, JAPAN**

Research Institute for Higher Education,
Hiroshima University,
1-2-2, Kagamiyama, Higashi-Hiroshima,
739-8512, JAPAN

Dear, Reader

We have published RIHE International Seminar Reports (No.21, August 2014). We should appreciate it very much if you would return to us the attached card to acknowledge receipt. We also welcome your comments on our journal.

Sincerely yours,
The Editor

Receipt

I hereby acknowledge receipt of RIHE International Seminar Reports (No.21, August 2014).

Date (Day / Month / Year) : _____ / _____ / _____

Signature : _____

Comments : _____
