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Contents

Editorial Board

Editorial

Changing Internationalization Regimes and Transnational Student Mobility in East Asia:
Policies, Strategies and Practices

The main theme of this special issue for *Asia Pacific Journal of Educational Development* is to explore how governments and universities in East Asia manage and organize the trend of internationalization, and examine the transnational movement of students under this new framework. The articles particularly focus on policies, strategies or practices that are adopted or employed at the national and institutional levels.

This special issue is a joint effort of an international symposium, entitled *Shifting Patterns of University Governance in East Asia: Challenges and Prospect*, held by the Chinese Taipei Comparative Education Society on November 9, 2012. Scholars from Japan, Hong Kong, China, Korea and Taiwan were invited to present their papers. Surprisingly, most of them paid greater attention to the issue of internationalization of higher education and the recent development of student mobility in East Asia. In recognizing the importance of internationalization of higher education in East Asian, the Journal organizer begins to commission this special issue.

A wide range of rationales have been proposed to promote a greater level of internationalization in higher education. Eminent Canadian scholar Jane Knight (2008) once classified these rationales and motives into four different categories including social/cultural, political, economic and academic. Viewing the issue from this perspective, people might wonder what is the mainstream approach currently adopted in East Asia and what are the side effects of these policies, strategies and practices might occur. The issues of exploring how international students are treated under the dominant discourses and how they effectively adjust themselves into the foreign environment academically and socially need to cover under this issue.

Echoing the central idea of this issue, the first paper by Li-Chuan Chiang indicates that further development of transnational higher education (TNHE) has the potential to profoundly change our basic understanding of the role of the university when higher education, like other commodities, is bought and sold across borders. Without a larger social purpose that underpins its existence, the survival of TNHE is no longer certain, particularly faced with the challenges of the massive not-for-profit open online courses (MOOCs) movement across the globe. The survival paradigm is dominant but volatile when market needs shift or higher education capacity in importer countries is mature. She argues that the issues that moving TNHE in the Asia-Pacific region beyond survival paradigm into public sphere should be further put into the debate arguing for TNHE sustainability.

Taking Hong Kong as an example, William Yat Wai Lo and Felix Sai Kit Ng reveals that a neoliberal driven approach prevails in policy-making and institutional practices of internationalization of higher education. The need of political motive for further integration between Mainland China and Hong Kong becomes an essential rationale for internationalization. However, Lo and Ng warns that these developments, against the idea of Cosmopolitan end, may prevent the pursuit of "diversity consciousness, planetary citizenship and the enhancement of intercultural competence."

Adopting a similar stance, Naomi Okada and Akito Okada examine the updated development of internationalization of higher education in Japan. Although more emphases on internationalization activities for the past decade has been noted, they observe that the traditional "co-operation and mutual understanding approach' in Japan has been weakened by new approaches such as 'skilled migration approach" and "revenue-generating approach." Their paper also addresses the critical issues faced by Japanese universities in increasingly internationalized context.

While internationalization of higher education is viewed as a kind of economic activities or commercial product, more relevant information is needed for international students in deciding where to go for studying abroad. Taking Mainland China students as an example, Shengli Zhan analyzes the determining factors of choices for overseas higher education programs. In her study, crucial factors include internet, media, family and relatives' opinions and suggestions.

Investigating the academic and social integration of Chinese students in Italian universities, Gilsun Song argues that the academic achievements and the social network of these interviewed students are substantially conditioned by the Italian language proficiency, communication skills and preparation for studying abroad, etc. Although Chinese students have motivation to learn, their academic achievements are not high as their peers. In order to enhance Chinese students' better integration into local culture and social life, governments and universities in Italy are encouraged to provide extra effective assistance through various activities.

This special issue observes a shift of higher education internationalization regime. Empirical evidences in Singapore, Malaysia, South Korea, Hong Kong and even Japan reveal a clear and strong message that economic/financial rationales

are taking a lead in such moves. Warning are given away. Certain initiatives with stronger intentions in emphasizing public sphere and cultivating the literacy of planetary citizenship and intercultural competence are proposed. Finally, this issue does not purport to provide a ready-to-use-recipe for better managing such a regime shift in internationalization of higher education, but empirically aims to provoke more balanced discourses regarding its further development.

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Beyond Survival Paradigm for Sustainability: Moving TNHE in the Asia-Pacific Region into the Public Sphere[+]

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Abstract

Further development of transnational higher education (TNHE) has the potential to profoundly change our basic understanding of the role of the university when higher education, like other commodities, is bought and sold across borders. Without a larger social purpose that underpins its existence, the survival of TNHE is no longer certain, particularly faced with the challenges of the massive not-for-profit open online courses (MOOCs) movement across the globe. The survival paradigm is dominant but volatile when market needs shift or higher education capacity in importer countries is mature. This study aims to empirically examine whether the current TNHE development in the Asia-pacific region reflects the survival paradigm, and whether a dominant scenario with the entrenched image of TNHE intertwined with profit-making is diminishing the traditional prestige given to university as an idea to serve the broad public good. A qualitative research approach is adopted to collect data. The main findings include (1) contextual factors in understanding the current development of TNHE; (2) TNHE offering greater choices but for fees; (3) positive but limited impacts on local higher education; (4) playing the role as sub-contract manufacturer or OEM for Western knowledge; and (5) business-oriented over educational considerations. Thus, the paper argues that the issues that moving TNHE in the Asia-Pacific region beyond survival paradigm into public sphere[1] should be further put into the debate arguing for TNHE sustainability.

Keywords: transnational higher education (TNHE), Asia-Pacific region, survival paradigm, sustainability, public sphere

1 Introduction

Because of globalization, the world is becoming smaller and closer, trade and business increasingly global, people increasingly mobile, and ideas globally circulatory. Governments, educational consortia and learning companies, and higher education institutions worldwide are increasingly finding opportunities to broaden their scope, footprint, and brand to new geographies. Among them, the rise of transnational higher education (TNHE) is a notable phenomenon. Although TNHE has various definitions, we refer to transnational higher education as arrangements in which degree programs offered by an institution based in one country are delivered to students located in a different country, similar to the suggestion by Ziguras (2003). TNHE offers alternatives for students to acquire a foreign degree without studying abroad for the entire period (Bashir, 2007).

As Chiang (2012) identifies, whereas internationally mobile students have grown dramatically in numbers, a total in excess of 3.3 million in 2008, the bulk of students in higher education, considerably in excess of 100 million, according to Ennew (2011), continue to study at home. This creates massive demands and opportunities for transnational programs and institutions. If this estimation is proved to be correct, TNHE will become more widely influential. As McBurnie and Ziguras (2007) observe, TNHE is "at the leading edge of the most fundamental changes taking place in higher education today" (p. 1).

TNHE represents a wide range of opportunities and challenges. The opportunities lie in the need to generate incomes, to enhance reputation, and to meet the demand for a more global education experience. However, for transnational programs and providers, searching for business survival to serve the economical rationale, such as recruiting enough students and offering courses popular in the market, becomes powerfully dominant. We refer to commercialized-based TNHE as the survival paradigm, under which the issue of TNHE diminishing the traditional prestige given to universities as an idea to serve the broad public good is under-recognized. Thus, as Altbach (2000) reminds, "everyone who cares about the future of higher

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[1] The study borrows the term "public sphere" from Habermas; however, for the purpose of the study, the meanings elaborated in higher education by Marginson (2011) are employed.

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education and the broader public interest, worldwide, needs to step back and see the problems here, not just the promises" that transnational education might arise (p. 31).

The Asia-Pacific region, with significant buying power and emerging markets for transnational providers, is recognized as "a laboratory in the development and regulation of TNHE" (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2001). The countries in this region use the imported transnational programs not only to keep students stay home for foreign degrees, but also to "export" them to attract international students. We refer to this method of using TNHE as the import-for-export model. The countries, particularly Singapore, Malaysia, and South Korea, are our main focus because of their commonality and diversity in developing TNHE. For commonality, they have all responded to the Asian financial crisis and the emerging knowledge economy to grow TNHE, to establish clear goals in foreign student recruitment targets and a regional hub for higher education, and to invite foreign universities to set up branch campuses. For diversity, they offer examples from English (e.g., Singapore and Malaysia) and non-English countries (e.g., Korea), and mature and beginner markets in importing TNHE.

Extensive literature (see, e.g., McBurnie & Ziguras, 2001, 2007, 2009; Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD], 2004a, 2004b; Shams & Huisman, 2012) has focused on state-of-the-art TNHE development and trends, marketing strategies, and quality challenges in managing transnational programs and institutions. We do not purport to provide a ready-to-use-recipe for better managing TNHE, but empirically examine whether the current TNHE development in the Asia-pacific region reflects the survival paradigm, and whether a dominant scenario with the entrenched image of TNHE intertwined with profit-making is diminishing the traditional prestige given to university as an idea to serve the broad public good. We identify the following four research questions:

1. What is the current development of TNHE in the Asia-Pacific region?
2. How does TNHE impact on local higher education in TNHE importer countries?
3. What position do countries take that seek to import-for-export TNHE in the world knowledge system?
4. What are the sustainability implications for treating TNHE as a public good?

2   Literature Review

The backgrounds and current TNHE development in the Asia-Pacific region through literature review have been done by Chiang (2012). Based on this foundational work,

in this section, we primarily review two aspects of literature relevant for informing the research design and forming the argument for this study. One aspect refers to the TNHE and public goods, and the other refers to reflections on the rise of TNHE dominated by economic rationales.

2.1 The TNHE and Public Goods

Higher education as public goods mainly derives from the idea of university. Jaspers (1965) believes that the secret to the university's longevity is a commitment to free intellectual communication, but he also recognized that "university as an institution" is the only means by which the idea might become "incarnate" (pp. 83-88). Scott (1993), a leading scholar of higher education, maintains that the idea of university should be interpreted as the concept of university as idea and university as institution that mutually enhance each other and work out the continuity of the university over centuries. Universities have long been given multiple roles as a means of nation-building, a storehouse of knowledge and ideas for pursuing the truth and wealth, the vehicle to transmit culture and language for humanistic views and the prerequisite for innovation and change.

Because notions of what are public and private goods change over time and do not necessarily remain either public or private, it is more often a matter of policy design and decision to determine whether a good is public or private (Marginson, 2007a). For example, although private education is produced and distributed based on market exchange, it is still capable of creating externalities whereby the education of one person augments the productivity of others. Likewise, the sale of international education on a commercial basis may be associated with cross-border relationships that augment tolerance and cultural sharing. Under such a context, however, one thing cannot be denied, that is, public goods are under-produced in economic markets.

As McBurnie and Ziguras (2007) comment, different from for-profit institutions that hold a clear economic rationale to seek profits, public and not-for-profit educational institutions have primary responsibilities to the public-good aspect of their mission (p. 44). Then the question arises. While universities are involved in the international marketplace through TNHE, why idea of higher education to produce public goods is no longer the focus of discussion? Therefore, the capacity of policymakers in transnational higher education is not to simply augment market competition, but to take counter-actions to expand the externalities of its private benefits.

According to the definition of global public goods given by (Kaul, Grunberg, & Stern, 1999) and elaborated by Marginson (2007a), the public sphere created by TNHE is rather limited compared to global public goods, such

as international financial stability, various communicable infectious diseases, and global climate change. These goods have "a significant element of non-rivalry and/or non-excludability" and are "made broadly available across populations on a global scale affecting more than one group of countries" (Marginson, 2007a, p. 324). Instead of using the concept of global public goods, we maintain that TNHE as part of higher education and international education should bear a role in producing public goods because its externalities are produced through people educated in the transnational programs and institutions for its societal development.

Another paradoxical situation occurs for developing countries with small higher education capacity. Lien (2008) identifies two countering effects of international branch campus on developing countries. A low-quality branch campus is likely beneficial in simply satisfying an excess demand for college education, whereas a high-quality branch campus may cause severe brain-drain problems because its graduates have greater capacity to emigrate and work abroad, which is harmful to a developing country. The situation for enhancing the social welfare of developing counties is changed until developing countries have quality domestic university available to students.

The dilemmas following TNHE are to go anywhere, regardless of how it is operated. Although TNHE is treated as a vital means for enhancing greater educational opportunities and study choices, its economic-oriented approach to education provision is a topic of concern. Whereas TNHE "serves to build educational capacity selectively in areas in which local providers are constrained or unwilling to respond to the market demand," its marketized and foreign characteristics pose "potential threats to traditional conceptions of education as a public good" (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007, p. 21).

Further development of TNHE has the potential to profoundly change our basic understanding of the role of the university when higher education, like other commodities, is bought and sold across borders. The implications of TNHE bring for higher education as public goods are immense and deserve greater investigation.

2.2 Reflections on the Rise of TNHE Dominated by Economic Rationales

Globalized enterprises are seeking employees with global competency, skills, and experiences that lead to fueling the demand for TNHE. Universities involved in offering TNHE programs are experiencing reputational benefits and increased potential for revenue growth and institutional brand, benefiting their ability to draw worldwide funding and research capabilities. The growing commercialization of TNHE reflects marketplace values where users pay for this service as they would for any other service. Providing knowledge across borders has become another commercial transaction. Obviously, for survival, TNHE providers have had to think more like businesses and less like educational institutions.

Leading scholars in the TNHE field have issued numerous warnings regarding these situations and trends. As Altbach (2000) observes, the following six aspects related to the crisis for multinational higher education are also valid for the crisis of economic-dominated TNHE. They are: (1) TNHE always has elements of inequality; (2) the motive for TNHE enterprises is almost always to make money; (3) institutions involved in TNHE are more likely training agencies and companies but not real universities; (4) TNHE movements do not really contribute to the internationalization of higher education worldwide because of a lack of mutual exchange of ideas or knowledge, of students or faculties; (5) TNHE institutions operate in a largely unregulated environment; and (6) TNHE is viewed as demand absorbing to provide access at an affordable price to those who seek it (Altbach, 2000, pp. 30-31). Mcburnie and Ziguras (2007) also offer similar warnings. They observe that "the prestige of the university is generated at the core by its research activities and traditional academic values, while its commercially oriented transnational activities diminish this traditional prestige" (Mcburnie & Ziguras, 2007, p. 150).

TNHE exporter countries plan certain actions to go beyond the survival model to pursue TNHE sustainability. Current developments in the U.K. identified by the International Unit (2012) are as follows: (1) the number of students studying for British degrees wholly overseas is 503,595, significantly exceeding the number of international students studying in the U.K. of approximately 405,805; (2) the number of branch campuses established by British universities worldwide has doubled since 2009; and (3) the economic value of the higher education export market worth more than £5.3 billion is considerable and increasingly recognized by its government. However, the emerging issue that 12 of 24 U.K. branch campuses are operated in countries where poor records on academic freedom and human rights are recognized, has caused concern that their engagement in these countries is to be agents of change or merely a means of legitimization for authoritarian regimes (International Unit, 2012). Although operating branch campuses can be a high-risk ventures and costly, British universities believe that they would benefit from such transnational collaborations within those countries to ensure TNHE as the foundation for innovative and long lasting partnerships for its sustainability (International Unit, 2012).

Among the aggressive countries that export their

education services, Australia should be recognized as a critical case for study. From the mid-1980s, following the shift from aid to trade under the full-fee policy for international students, most Australian universities actively recruit international students to compensate for budget cuts and for generating income (Universities Australia, 2009). Although the critique of the academics on the trade-driven internationalization that threatens the academic freedom is often made, Chiang (2008, 2010) argues that the trade-driven internationalization policy has had its positive impact on Australia to successfully become a world leader in international education, and has pushed the internationalization of higher education (IHE) to become the core issue in managing higher education institutions. Since universities are recognized as central to the development of this export industry by the Bradley Review of Australian Higher Education in December 2008, they win themselves to have a greater voice in government trade policymaking forums to find innovative solutions to help international education move to mature long-term growth (Universities Australia, 2009). Growth success allows for reflecting on the position taken by Australia compared to its counterparts such as the United States and the United Kingdom. Marginson (2007b) urges Australia to seek deeper curriculum innovation and cultural encounters.

National governments in newly industrialized and developing economies also recognize the benefits of hosting transnational programs and institutions. Some have attempted to attract foreign institutions to their countries through certain incentives including tax exemptions, educational grants, and land concessions. The positive aspects are more often mentioned, including enhancing levels of human capital for economic development, upgrading interaction with advanced knowledge for innovation, transforming the image from education import to export, and meeting demand for high quality education at home. The concerns regarding the position taken by East Asian countries in trading on the strength of Western-dominated TNHE in capacity building are addressed by Chiang (2012). She offers an alternative analysis to identify possible hurtful aspects that might be treated as "the Trojan Horse" hidden in the import-for-export model that might aggravate rather than minimize student mobility and brain-drain and deepen rather than alleviate the influence of Western culture on East Asian countries. Chiang suggests that the overwhelming discourse of capacity building in importing TNHE should be critically re-visited by paying attention to the foreign providers' money-making motives, the market-value characteristics of TNHE programs, and the reality of the partnership process and arrangement.

Most issues related to TNHE, whether they are positive or negative, conclude with market-oriented development that characterizes the survival paradigm. The market advantages of TNHE include greater opportunity, flexibility, and efficiency. The disadvantages of TNHE include enlarging social inequities, restricting access to public knowledge and innovation, and breeding opportunistic risky society. Obviously, TNHE is driven by trade and business that are dominated by a single ideology as an economic rationale. How to secure a space for TNHE free from domination by a single ideology seems unrealistic. The question may arise as to why public goods are needed to cover the range of issues for debate in the field of TNHE. When higher education is provided across borders, only business aspect of higher education is emphasized instead of public goods. This has caused a crisis for TNHE sustainability in the knowledge intensive age. TNHE as research universities could play an important creator of public goods. However, the aspect of public goods for TNHE is often under-recognized.

Because of increased transnational programs and institutions and the rise for demand for offshore education in the Asia-Pacific region, trading on the strength of importing TNHE for export (the import-for-export model) is highly supported and recognized; however, more in-depth critical analyses and reflections are needed. Although Chiang (2012) has critically analyzed the TNHE development in East Asia, a need exists to empirically understand whether the current development of TNHE in the Asia-Pacific region reflects the survival model and the entrenched image of TNHE intertwined with profit-making. Our study results offer certain implications for the university as an idea and an institution to be carried out in the TNHE field.

3   Research Method

Scholarly literature has increasingly recognized the need to study the sustainability and effectiveness of TNHE in the global higher education context. For collecting rich data from experts and people with rich experiences in the TNHE field, a qualitative research approach is adopted to conduct an exploratory investigation of whether the image of TNHE activities dominated by economic rationales in exporter countries continues in countries seeking to import-for-export TNHE.

3.1 Participants

The study participants were identified by purposive sampling from those with the study focus on globalization and internationalization of higher education in the Asia-Pacific region. Scholars and experts were sent an email invitation to participate in interviews. Our interviews found that the data collected for understanding the current

situation in South Korea case was limited. Thus, seeking more participants who worked in Korea universities was done for this study. We obtained another 4 participants from South Korea. Thirteen semi-structured interviews were conducted during the period from February 2012 to March 2013 (see Table 1). These included 3 from Hong Kong, 2 from Japan, 3 from Malaysia, 1 from Australia, and 4 from South Korea. In total, 11 of 13 participants were academics, and 2 quality agency officers.

While conducting interviews, the study hoped to enhance the understanding of recent developments in branch campuses in the Inchon Free Economic Zone (IFEZ). In addition to face-to-face interviews, we also attempted to obtain written responses from people in South Korea through personal networking. Finally, we obtained one written response. Although the results as expected were not good enough, it might reflect that the issue of TNHE may be not yet a priority policy for those working in higher education.

For preserving anonymity, all participants were given a code with a shortened code for their country where they work instead of their nationalities. The first participant HK1, for example, worked in Hong Kong and the first to be interviewed. We used AUS for Australia, JP for Japan, MA for Malaysia, and KR for Korea

3.2 Interview Questions

Based on the extensive literature and our study purpose, the interview questions were open-ended and semi-structured to allow interviewees to reconstruct their views and experiences within the study topic. To address each research question (given in the Introduction section), the interview questions were designed as Table 2.

Table 1 Participants' Profile

	Code	Position/Title	Research field/Professional background	Date/Time
1.	HK1	Senior Instructor	Education and higher education in Singapore	Feb. 23, 2012 17:00-18:30
2.	HK2	Professor	Globalization and internationalization of HE in East Asia	Feb. 25, 2012 13:00-13:30
3.	HK3	Professor	Globalization and internationalization of HE in East Asia, especially on China	Feb. 25, 2012 14:00-15:30
4.	JP1	Professor	Globalization and internationalization of HE in East Asia, especially on Japan and Malaysia.	Feb. 25, 2012 16:00-17:30
5.	MY1	Professor	Globalization and internationalization of HE in Asia, especially on China	Sep. 6, 2012 16:15-17:15
6.	MY2	Officer	Malaysia Quality Agency (MQA)	Sep. 10, 2012 16:15-17:20
7.	MY3	Officer	Malaysia Quality Agency (MQA)	Sep. 10, 2012 17:20-18:10
8.	KR1	Researcher	Higher education	Sep. 12, 2012 19:30-20:30
9.	KR2	Researcher	Higher Education	
10.	JP2	Professor	Globalization and internationalization of HE in East Asia, especially on Japan and China.	Oct. 19, 2012 13:00-14:10
11.	AUS	Professor	Comparative education and TNHE	Oct. 19, 2012 14:10-15:10
12.	KR3	President	International business study	(informal talk) March 18, 2013 11:20-12:00 (formal interview) March 18, 2013 17:20-18:00
13.	KR4	Professor	International business study	March 18, 2013 16:30-17:20
14.	KR5	Professor	Medicine	Written response. Jan. 15, 2013

3.3 Data Analysis

All the interviews were audio recorded and verbatim transcribed. The transcripts were used as the main source of data analysis. Coding was done through repeatedly reading transcripts until themes began to emerge and occurred repeatedly in the text. To facilitate data analysis process, the study created a codebook, with a list of codes after analyzing the first round reading of interview transcripts. The recurrent themes were identified, including West-dominated TNHE, offering greater choices but for fees, demand absorbing, preference to western degree, economic-oriented survival model etc. Due to the rich data and its diversity, the study used these themes to go back to the transcripts again to check and seek anything meaningful. The data analysis work was done once no more new theme was identified.

Due to most interviews mainly done with faculty members and from particular Asian countries, a small sample might limit the generalizability of the study findings. However, these interviews offered the possibility of identifying new issues and allowed us to gain a better understanding of the actions taken and the arguments for promoting TNHE as public goods.

4   Research Findings

Based on the interview data analysis, several key themes are selected to address the research questions. They are: (1) contextual factors in understanding the current development of TNHE; (2) TNHE offering greater choices

but for fees; (3) positive but limited impacts on local higher education; (4) playing the role as sub-contract manufacturer or OEM for Western knowledge; and (5) business-oriented over educational considerations.

4.1 Contextual Factors in Understanding the Current Development of TNHE

The current situation of TNHE in each Asian country is associated with its historical background and its higher education development. Due to different contextual factors, TNHE development is more prosperous in certain countries than others. Malaysia is given as example by most interviewees (e.g., HK2, MA1, MA2, MA3, JP1, and JP2). Several contextual factors to contribute to the growth of TNHE in Malaysia should be kept in mind: (1) a high demand for HE places for those students excluded by its ethnic policy; (2) a desire to partner with foreign universities due to no awarding power of local private colleges; (3) many people staying home not studying overseas due to 1997 financial crisis; (4) a desire to compensate for budget cuts in universities in Australia and the United Kingdom to generate income through international education, and (5) Malaysia as a Muslim-developed society to attract Muslim students seeking education abroad following the 911 event. All these factors have made TNHE workable in Malaysia.

Differing from Malaysia, Singapore has enough places for all the Singapore students who are qualified and who want to go to university. One of the reasons for Singapore to import TNHE is to "attract global talents" (HK1 and

Table 2 Interview Questions Designed to Address Research Questions

Interview Questions	To Address Research Questions
1. What is your view regarding the current development of TNHE in the Asia-Pacific region and its possible impacts on local higher education?	
2. What is your view on introducing Western-dominated TNHE to export to students in this region as an educational export strategy and to play as a regional higher education hub?	1; 2; 4
3. What are the advantages and disadvantages countries in this region have to achieve their goals as an HE hub?	
4. Is the import-for-export TNHE model in this region good for capacity building to work out its own model to enhance its competitiveness, or merely the copy of Western higher education to deepen culture dependence and Western academic hegemony?	3; 4
5. Does the possibility exist to shift from Western-dominated to mixed West-East TNHE programs and branch campuses in this region?	
6. What is your view regarding the relationship between TNHE and internationalization of higher education?	2; 4
7. Because studying abroad was previously conceptualized as a brain-drain for sending countries, would introducing TNHE to keep students home for foreign degrees change the situation from brain-drain to brain-gain for TNHE host countries?	3; 4

MA1) to enlarge its talent pool by awarding scholarships to international students and retaining good ones to stay on for jobs (e.g., MA1, HK1, and HK3) through partnering efforts with quality providers such as MIT, John Hopkins, and the top ones. Interviewee MA1 used the "cherry-picking" term to describe the efforts by Singapore government. The factors contributing to the success for Singapore are, as interviewee HK1 analyzed, a powerful government and with clear policy without oppositional resistance in transforming education as an industry, and enhancing attractiveness for Singapore to recruit international students. The branch campus has failed, however, due to high tuition fees, resulting in an inability to recruit enough students. Originally such a case was planned as a case for promotion purposes. After its failure, the Singapore government did not mention it at all (HK1).

Different approaches in introducing TNHE in this region are also identified. For example, interviewee HK2 said,

> Some countries, like Malaysia, use TNHE originally for meeting local demand for higher education, but further use it as educational market to attract international students. For Singapore, it uses TNHE more for national building to become more powerful in this region. For Korea, the TNHE is for internationalization of higher education instead of making money. (HK2)

Because of different backgrounds, JP1 and JP2 provided examples of branch campuses. They identified that setting up branch campus was related to the trade deficit between the United States and Japan. Branch campuses in Japan acted as recruiting agents instead of being treated as part of higher education in Japan. Thus, they were not optimistic about the development of other forms of TNHE in this region.

4.2 TNHE Offering Greater Choices but for Fees

Because of a high demand for higher education, the Asia-Pacific region is an attractive market for TNHE providers. However, most interviewees (e.g., HK1, HK2, MA1, JP1, and JP2) observed the primary motive for TNHE providers in this region is for nothing but profit-making, income compensation and generation for their home institutions.

Among the benefits related to introducing TNHE, greater choices and cheaper cost for a foreign degree were the most emphasized. Interviewee AUS provided an explicit figure regarding cheaper cost and its attractiveness. He said,

> The cost is one-fifth of the cost of going abroad and the degrees are all in English. For those who cannot afford

to go overseas, the branch campus is a wonderful option and fulfills a strong need. Students also have really no problems getting jobs after graduation. Most of them work with multinational corporations. (AUS)

Studying at home for foreign degrees is cheaper than going abroad, but the tuition fees are relatively high compared to that of local HE institutions. The issue of who can afford TNHE has surfed as a focus of concern for inequality. For example, interviewee MA1 analyzed the Malaysian case as follows,

> If I am not a Malay and cannot go into the public (universities). What choice do you have but to go to private, and you have to pay. So the question is you can pay or not. If I am rich, no problem I will go the private sector. The private sector they do offer choices but for fees. So the question is that you can afford it or not……They have no choice they have to go to the private colleges if their parents can pay. (MA1)

4.3 Positive but Limited Impacts on Local Higher Education

TNHE has certain positive impacts on local higher education. As interviewee MA1analyzed,

> Some private college, when they start to develop a program, they have no clue how to develop a program so they twin. They twin with Australian university. And then is 1 + 2, 2 + 1, 3 + 0…… The colleges are upgraded to university, full university now. (MA1)

Compared to other interviewees, those from Malaysia are familiar with their national policy to become an educational hub. The QA officers, MA2 and MA3, believed that Malaysia has competitive advantage in terms of the cost for obtaining foreign degrees. They also recognized that TNHE helped Malaysia to internationalize because competition would make the local institutes or colleges more motivated to become better.

Based on his former experience in charge of and research on branch campus, interviewee AUS believed that TNHE is positive for capacity building. He analyzed that the average time for branch campus to become full-fledged university, independent from its home university, is approximately 15 years. He believed this to be the method for capacity building.

Other positive impacts have occurred. TNHE has provided Asian countries with more capacity in offering English-taught programs (JP2) and to generate income from its five-fold higher tuition fees than that of local counterparts (HK2). For South Korea, introducing

branch campuses enhances "pressures for Korean higher education to be more internationalized" (HK3). Similar observations were made by Korean interviewees. While not truly knowing the recent development in the Incheon Free Economic Zone, interviewees KR1 and KR2 thought that having branch campuses in Korea would positively impact internationalization of Korean higher education. Why is it positive for IHE in Korea? Interviewees KR2 and KR5 gave a similar reason, that is, it's better than nothing. Competition between local and foreign universities in Korea will be increasing because the population is decreasing year by year (KR2).

However, the overall level of impacts of TNHE on local higher education is identified limited since the scale of transnational programs and institutions is relatively small (e.g., JP2 and HK3). Compared to the capacity of local higher education in most Asian countries, students and programs in TNHE, even though increasing, are still too small.

4.4 Playing the Role as Sub-Contract Manufacturer or OEM for Western Knowledge

To be a hub has become a policy slogan more than a reality. Although Singapore is recognized as a successful case, Asian countries are attracting more international students from their neighboring countries instead of those from Western countries (e.g., HK1, JP2, and MA1). HK1 also thought that Singapore has "a long way to go for attracting students from Western countries."

Although TNHE enhances the educational level and generates more incomes, the role of Asian countries is more similar to a sub-contract manufacturer or OEM for Western knowledge. As HK3 analyzed, the Western degrees in this region have higher "market value." Using China as an example, he held a pessimistic view regarding the TNHE in China because the transnational programs and institutions are not truly good ones or top ones. He stated,

The ones coming to China are those at the middle or lower level. Partnering with foreign providers, local institutions change their original status from a slight to a greater attractiveness for students and make the money they originally cannot have earned. What educational resources they really invest in their programs, the answer is nothing only for making money. (HK3)

The issue of brain-drain is identified. For example, most students in TNHE look forward to further education abroad. For Japan, interviewees JP1 and JP2 indicated that even though branch campuses in Japan do not award degrees for students, students come to study because the

learning experience in such a branch campus paves the way for a smooth transition to home institution in America.

Although each country has its own rationale for importing TNHE for export, interviewee HK2 commented that the governments in Asian countries do not fully and thoroughly consider whether they should integrate certain Eastern elements, culturally and historically, into Western knowledge introduced through TNHE. Even though Singapore is highly recognized as successful, HK2 further questioned whether Singapore is exporting the same as its Western TNHE providers rather than providing something with Singaporean characteristics. This situation reflects that Asian countries do not value what they have.

However, Korean interviewees expressed different views. The competition between Korean universities and branch campuses in IFEZ for attracting students is not as high as expected. Interviewees KR3 and KR4 placed considerable confidence in their own universities that are more attractive than branch campuses to attract Chinese students. When asked regarding the future development of IFEZ as a success pattern, more interviewees (e.g., JP1, JP2, HK2, and HK3) held pessimistic views. Interviewee KR3 also suggested that outsiders should be cautious when reading promotional materials about IFEZ because the reality could be the opposite.

4.5 Business-Oriented over Educational Considerations

The pragmatic consideration of exporter countries primarily centers around business, which was also identified by the interviewee MA1. She said,

Why are the foreign provider coming in and not coming in? So the first question is the local market context. Number two, who are your customer, your client? Who are your target students? If you don't have it, you couldn't work. That's the basic question, isn't? (MA1)

Is becoming a regional hub a policy slogan or a realization? Several crucial questions to be asked included what purpose, what driving force, and where to get students (MA1). However, few countries have analyzed these questions (e.g., HK2). Thus, one result is expected, that is, certain countries are more successful than others.

One important matter to be kept in mind is that land developers instead of government in some countries are the main actors in pushing the hub development. In South Korea, for example, 92% gross enrollment, aging population, not enough students, it has more places than it needs. So the question is why do they need TNHE? MA1 analyzed,

From the government perspective, probably not. They even didn't fill in their own university. But the government is not the only actor. There are other actors……some may call land developer. You develop your housing, your traveling, your mall, and…..It's good to have a university……So what happened in Korea, we call it free economy zone. They are duty-free……real attractive for foreigners to come and book here and set up high schools and international schools……Theoretically very good. But question now, if you have a foreign university the program will be taught in English. Will the Korean students come? ……You can build all the facility but you also need the people to come in. (MA1)

Observing the recent development of branch campuses in South Korea, KR3 expressed,

……making any money is very difficult……I found it unusual because it's a State university……why is American money spent overseas……I'm not sure what kind of incentives the central (Korean) government is giving to the American university. I know they offer millions dollars. But millions of dollars is nothing if you start a program overseas because it is costly. (KR3)

The time to evaluate the success of the Songdo Global University Complex is still too early (e.g., KR3, KR4). Based on his rich experience in international finance, KR4 expressed pessimism regarding the future development of branch campuses in Korea. He said the cost invested in managing and maintaining a branch campus is normally under-estimated but its benefits are over-estimated. He also observed that many branch campuses have failed and closed before recruiting enough students to maintain operation. Thus, he recognized that to survive in transnational activity requires recruiting enough students as the priority issue that makes business-oriented considerations overtake educational ones.

5 Discussion

To more clearly understand the realities of TNHE in the Asia-Pacific region, more empirical studies are urgently needed. We used empirical data to reflect the reality of economic rationales overshadowing other possibilities related to arguing TNHE as a public good. While most TNHE studies focus on how to strategically manage and operate TNHE and quality issues, we extend this field by linking the TNHE with public goods for its sustainability.

Based on our research findings, we recognize that there is nothing wrong to argue for the survival paradigm

in the transnational programs and institutions that truly operate in the marketplace. Several issues, identified by interviewees, should be accounted for at the early stage of TNHE development and for the goal to become a hub, such as recruiting enough students and having financial incentives and supports. Business considerations reflected in the survival paradigm dominate. Although McBurnie and Pollock (2000) suggest that 3 key dimensions, strategic, academic and business rationales, should be addressed systematically, universities are more concerned with revenue-raising opportunities when they evaluate transnational activities (cited in McBurnie & Ziguras, 2007).

The overall findings demonstrate one fact, that is, public goods of TNHE are possibly under-produced in economic markets. However, as Marginson (2011) strongly suggests, "the larger enemy of the public good and public sphere is not the economic market but the status hierarchy" because "the play of university self-interest weakens public-good mechanisms" (p. 429). The critical question that arises is, private benefits could be produced elsewhere, why do universities, acting as the general private agents and company, need to involve themselves in the TNHE venture? McBurnie and Ziguras (2007) offer a warning of a two-faced cuckoo-clock effect, that is, in the event of TNHE success, universities might claim themselves as "astute entrepreneurs" but in the event of failure, they might defend strongly that "they are never in it for the money since they are a university, not a company" (p. 46). Obviously, when the TNHE activities are defined simply as the aggregation of private interests and benefits, the rationale for higher education institutions as distinctive social foundations with multiple public and private roles will evaporate, as Marginson (2011) argues.

The implications for TNHE exporter countries and import-for-export countries are futuristic. Governments must recognize that TNHE will not automatically produce social and cultural benefits that might come. However, well-managed transnational programs and institutions that provide a high quality student experience and a wider and deeper education and research integration might ensure TNHE sustainability. Thus, for longer-term development and sustainability, transnational activities should give appropriate priority to the overriding academic and educational values that guide the future of the institution to avoid TNHE development similar to an economic bubble that bursts after a wide range of enthusiastic start-ups (International Unit, 2012). In this highly competitive and ever changing landscape of global higher education, it is vital that TNHE exporter and importer countries should have sustainable development initiatives to think beyond student recruitment and income generation to a

comprehensive way to enhance TNHE linkages to research collaborations, innovation, technology transfer, knowledge exchange and capacity building as suggested by the International Unit (2012).

As one type of international education, TNHE should share its responsibility to produce global citizens who form networks and collaborations to foster wider international engagement and understanding and embrace cultural differences that enrich social experiences for different parts of world, and further develop innovations in science and technology to improve quality of life and environmental sustainability to tackle global challenges (Universities Australia, 2009, p. 8). It becomes an urgent issue to enhance the significance of TNHE beyond economic rationales as public goods to reflect the intrinsic values in higher education itself in terms of the free spread of knowledge and skills and cross-cultural dialogue and understanding.

We recognize that moving beyond its dominant survival paradigm and enhancing its contribution to the public good of higher education, meeting not only local but also global requirements, should be put into the debate arguing for the TNHE sustainability. The issue of how to enlarge the function of knowledge sharing for capacity building via TNHE should be explored by TNHE exporter and importer countries, also important for countries adopting the import-for-export model in managing TNHE.

6   Conclusion

This study adds to the understanding of underlying dilemmas facing with transnational programs and institutions. Although being a part of higher education, TNHE is dominated by a single paradigm of economic rationale instead of ideally acting as a creator of public goods. Countries in the Asia-Pacific region seek to justify their motives for introducing TNHE for capacity building, despite valid concerns exist regarding the cultural and pedagogical controversies in these transnational programs and institutions. For addressing sustainable development challenges for the future, more collaborative transnational initiatives to mutually empower partner universities should be developed beyond those programs merely meet economic demands. Although the scale of TNHE in importer countries is comparatively small and few countries plan to introduce mass foreign programs and institutions constituting a significant proportion of their higher education sector (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2009), the issue of such transnational benefits to make some sense for all and wider community not only for those who can afford to pay is a timely question. The reminder of Altbach (2001) is still valid. He said,

If universities are to survive as intellectual institutions, they must pay close attention to their core responsibilities of teaching, learning, and research. Maintaining loyalty to traditional academic values will not be easy, but the costs of growing commercialization are much greater. (Altbach, 2011, p. 4)

The issue of how universities communicate the wider value of higher education as externalities of education at the core to the periphery through TNHE should receive greater attention. Developing transnational activities in an increasingly complex and competitive market remains a challenging task. Without a larger social purpose that underpins its existence, the survival of TNHE is no longer certain, particularly faced with the challenges of the massive not-for-profit open online courses (MOOCs) movement across the globe. The survival paradigm is dominant but volatile when market needs shift or higher education capacity in importer countries is mature. An emerging paradigm for TNHE sustainability is needed to play a role in pursuing public goods. Identifying TNHE as a kind of public goods would hold its sustainability for both TNHE exporter and importer countries and institutions.

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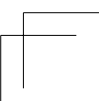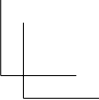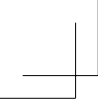
Academic and Social Integration of Chinese International Students in Italy[+]

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Abstract

The increasing mobility of students has supported the internationalization of higher education. Studying abroad brings to the forefront language and cultural issues. In this paper, through interviews and survey data I investigate the academic and social integration of Chinese students in Italian universities. While these students look forward to academic excellence, social integration is also significant in how well students perform academically and how they feel about their studies. I focus on factors that affect students' abilities and behaviors in blending academically and socially in Italy and attempt to bring out the idea that successful academic and social integration translates into better academic achievements. The results should help Chinese overseas students ascertain whether academic and social integration are effective for their studying abroad, what obstacles they may face and how they may be overcome. This research on social blending finds that there is a significant correlation between academic and social factors. This paper also indicates that a lack of Italian language skills, communication skills, and preparation for studying abroad directly influences social integration, academic achievements, and the expansion of social networks.

Keywords: academic and social integration, student mobility, internationalization, communication skills, Chinese overseas students

1 Introduction

UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization) data points out that 165 million students participated in formal tertiary education around the globe in 2009 with an annual increase of 2% (UNESCO Institute for Statistics database, 2011). The flow of students from countries such as China, India, Korea, and other Asian countries is increasing greatly. The most dominant group of international students is from China which has overtaken India with more than 440,000 Chinese students abroad globally (Coughlan, 2011). Chinese students studying abroad in the EU (European Union) in 2010 occupied a quarter of the number of overseas Chinese students in Europe (European Commission and the Ministry of Education in China [ECMEC], 2011). As studying abroad is seen to lead to good opportunities for career development and understandings of global cultural and social experiences at an early age, the number of students seeking to go abroad is increasing dramatically. Increasing social demands and individual career development plans are very important reasons Chinese students are seeking education abroad.

The Chinese government maintains a strict control of higher education enrollment, allowing around 25% of high school students to attend university (Li, Yu, & Li, 2006) in well-developed cities such as Shanghai, Beijing, Hangzhou and Guangzhou. Those students who cannot attend university must look elsewhere. Parents looking for better education for their children may send them to other countries. In addition, for those students who feel they cannot attend famous Chinese universities, studying abroad in international universities comes as an alternative. Study abroad intermediary agencies in China also increase the numbers of Chinese studying abroad in countries such as Italy, Denmark, Germany, France, and many others.

This paper introduces a brief account of education agreements between China and Italy under the development of EU international student policies and investigates the motivation, satisfaction and attitudes of Chinese overseas student and their recognition of their learning and social blending through interviews and surveys. It then discusses the integration of Chinese overseas students in Italian university environments and society. Students' academic integration is connected to academic environments and networks, group work, and various learning meetings inside and out of classrooms. It can be seen that a lack of interaction in school life influences their academic and social integration (Winston, 1990). This study concludes

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that overseas students' attitudes are not optimistic and that there is a perceived lack of connection between school and society.

2   Overview: Integrating Overseas Students in Italy

The EU firstly mentioned the importance of integration in education for European member countries in the Treaty of Maastricht in 1993 and since then has been continuing to set up EU education policies such as the Sorbonne Declaration, the Bologna Declaration and the Lisbon Strategy. EU policies and practices have naturally attracted flows of international students (Żyłkiewicz, 2010). Facing economic pressure, the EU reconsidered education's main value for Europe and pointed it toward the "harmonization" of culture, society, and economy (Falkner, Treib, Hartlapp, & Leiber, 2005).

Italy is one of the most popular study abroad destinations in the EU for Chinese students (Education in China, 2010). China and Italy singed a mutual agreement in 2005, and have rapidly increased study abroad programs. The European Unit Website explained that Italian universities recruited 4.9 million international students from 2007 to 2009 and the number of Chinese students ranked second (China News Network, 2009). In 2011, Chinese overseas students reached 1,420,000, with an increase of 23% in the last 3 years, making China the world superpower for sending students abroad (Jinghua Shibao, 2012). Chinese students in Italy choose many majors, ranging from architecture, engineering, marketing and economics to philosophy, design and arts (Xinhua Net, 2011). The main reason for the increase of Chinese students studying in Italy is the support afforded by the governments of both countries. Italy has 65 public universities and the Italian government officially opened itself to Chinese overseas students with free tuition policies (Study Abroad 51, 2012). Chinese students pay 6,000 Euros per year for living expenses and many of them receive around 4,200 Euros scholarships from local Italian government (Study Abroad 51, 2012).

Chinese students have excellent opportunities to study in Italy and to enter university programs and receive academic degrees. By mutual higher education degree recognition agreement, if Chinese students pass Italian language courses (B2 level) or evaluation examinations of university's own language courses, they can directly enter degree programs, especially B.A. (Bachelor of Arts) and M.A. (Master of Arts) degree programs. For many Chinese students, before they go to Italian universities, they must firstly learn at least a half year of Italian language and pass B2 level (basic 2nd level) in language training schools.

After that, students can apply for degree programs in Italian universities. In 2005, under the support of two programs, the Marco Polo program and the Turandot Program,[1] five hundred Chinese students studied in Italy, 2,000 students in 2006 and around 7,800 in 2011 (Center for Italian Education, 2012). Related data showed that every year nearly 5,000 Chinese students study in Italy (Xinwei Education, 2012) through both programs (Center for Italian Education, 2012).[2] The two programs have provided increasing numbers of students with the opportunity to study in Italy, but have also brought many problems to the forefront such as low language levels, lack of cultural understanding, different learning environments and social skills.

As mentioned above, the Italian government and universities have had an impact on the origins of higher education and have been playing an important role in the integration of European higher education. Italian foreign student policies have been directly attracting Chinese overseas students through free tuition fees, flexible entrance requirements, and the opportunity to work while attending university.

3   Theoretical Background

With the rapidly growing number of overseas students, the issue of academic and social integration has been discussed more and more. The definitions of academic and social integration are varied; however, they mainly point to a process of adaptation. Academic integration can be defined as the degree of academic adaptation which includes learning environments, social adaptation, adaptability of mind and body, degree of learning pressure, and recognition of one's school. Social integration is the degree of adaptability into school life. Social integration includes students' social networks, friends and family relation and economic support. As students move across cultures, challenges of social, linguistic, cultural and academic integration come to the forefront (Tinto, 1975, 1987). In more detail, academic integration refers to the degree of adaptation of students' academic life styles. Specifically, it concerns four aspects. The first is academic adaptation which reflects student's integration into an academic environment and atmosphere (Tinto, 1987). Tinto (1987, 1998) points out students' academic integration should have clear goals, interactions with peers and faculty,

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[1] Generally, China and Italy government have both programs. Of them, Marco Polo program is for social, engineering and humanities fields, and Turandot Program for art and music field. The target students are undergraduate students, graduate students, researchers, and interns.

[2] Italian Education Center (2012). Counseling for oversea students joining Perugia in Italy: http://www.liuxue315.edu.cn/articles.php?id=1509.

and out-of-classroom factors in the learning community. Beil and Shope (1990) also emphasize that overseas students' positive experiences with academic advisors can increase integration in their academic lives, for instance, whether or not the students successfully respond to various learning requirements and are satisfied with their learning environments. Second, social integration asks for group-based cooperation such as making friends, participating in social activities, and small group projects. Third, physical adaptability and how students handle stress or pressure in their academic lives in a foreign society also affect their academic and social integration. Fourth, affiliations or feelings toward their university also influence overseas students' academic integration (Baker & Siryk, 1999).

Social integration refers to the degree of integration in social life. The difficulties overseas students face in social integration range from obstacles in foreign language use, being far away from their parents, having different cultural backgrounds, lacking communication skills, and encountering economic problems. Social integration has been researched in four main areas: satisfaction and recognition of their school through social networking, degree of friend and family support, satisfaction with social life, and economic support (Rienties, Grohnert, Kommers, Niemantsverdriet, & Nijhuis, 2011). In addition, foreign language skills are also very important elements in overseas students' social integration (Academic Cooperation Association, 2006; Ramburuth & McCormick, 2001). Student activities help in social integration, adaptation into new learning environments and lead to better communication abilities in school life (Niles, Sowa, & Laden, 1994). Overseas students are affected by various experiences and challenges of foreign language and cultural environments (Hsu, 2003), academic difficulties, homesickness, racism, and loneliness (Yeh & Inose, 2003).

Previous research (Baker & Siryk, 1999; Severiens & Wolff, 2008; Wilcox, Winn, & Fyvie-Gauld, 2005) found that differences in overseas students' educational and cultural backgrounds affect social and academic integration. Oversea students' academic achievements such as grades, foreign language levels (normally English) and academic degrees also affected the degree of integration. Supports from family and friends have also been known to affect students' academic performance. Related researches on Chinese overseas students have mostly focused on countries such as the UK, the USA, and Australia and have found that there were many differences in Chinese students learning styles (Holmes, 2004), levels of intercultural adaptation (Scherto, 2007), and academic performance compared to other international students (Li, Chen, & Duanmu, 2010). Chinese overseas students studying abroad in western learning environments tend to encounter problems

in learning and communication and face difficulties in listening, understanding, and interacting with the host culture (Holmes, 2004). A case study exploring Chinese overseas students in UK business schools also showed interaction problems between teachers and Chinese students (Currie, 2007) and exposed potential ethnocentrism in teachers' pedagogical approaches. Scherto (2007) also discussed the necessity of intercultural adaptation and the transformation of understanding of learning experiences, self-knowledge, and awareness of the others in British higher education institutions. Li et al. (2010) compared Chinese students and other international students in terms of their academic performance during their overseas studies.

Research results show the education experiences of overseas students and finds students' different cultural backgrounds give rise to the problems of academic and social integration (Baker & Siryk, 1999). The highlight of attention is overseas student's experiences concerning language and their lack of understanding in the broader university community (Sherry, Thomas, & Chui, 2010) and active learning (Braxton, Milem, & Sullivan, 2000). Overseas students need not only to obtain academic degrees and graduate, but also to actively blend with the local cultures. During their stay, this produces a strong impact on their school work (Severiens & Wolff, 2008). Parent and family support also affect their learning outcomes and academic achievements (Wilcox et al., 2005). University and learning environment are two of the important elements in overseas students' study experiences, but universities mostly focus on students' academic results. As a result, social integration is often ignored in the development of their further success (Sherry et al., 2009) and this significantly affects a majority of overseas students' behaviors and motivations for social integration (Rienties, Beausaert, Grohnert, Niemantsverdriet, & Kommers, 2012). At the same time, many a overseas student endures much stress related to language levels. The lack of foreign language skills impacts students' abilities to integrate socially with other students (Yeh & Inose, 2003).

From this brief literature overview, it can be seen that academic and social integration of overseas students is an important point of discussion. Problems such as foreign language levels, school and learning environments, cultural and social differences, learning difficulties and individual education backgrounds need to be considered by universities and educators for supplying continuing support and appropriate academic and social resources, programs, and activities for overseas students. What students feel about their learning processes and the aforementioned problems should be addressed in detail, for these are important for universities and overseas students themselves.

Understanding of the problems overseas students face, their failures, and lack of interaction and understanding, as well as their successful academic and social integrations is the beginning point for the improvement needed.

4   Data and Method

The survey, from May to September 2012, consisted of undergraduate and graduate Chinese students in 6 Italian universities in the cities of Rome, Firenze, Milan, Bologna, and Verona. Table 1 presents the sample of students based on their major, age, gender, academic degree, and scholarships. Twenty students from the 80 respondents were selected for interviews. One hundred survey questionnaires were sent out and 80 responses were received. Five professors from sample 1, 2, 5, 6 were also interviewed. The most survey participants were from Mainland China, with only one student from Macao. This survey was made up of 28 questions and adopted the Likert scale (5 answers: Very good, good, average, not good, very bad).

Table 1 shows demographic data such as age, gender, scholarship, and degree. Most of the participants in the survey were in their early 20s and study in B. A. or M.A. degree programs. Student mostly majors in humanities and social sciences such as architecture, law, philosophy, media, and economics. Among the 80 students, 74 receive scholarships from the local Italian government[3] which cover living fees and others. Easily obtained scholarships and free tuition fees are very important. This decreased financial pressure compared to countries such as the USA, Canada, the UK, and many others, attracts Chinese students. Most Chinese students go to Italy through the Marco Polo program, three years for BA degree, followed directly by MA program in Italian public universities.

The research questions for the survey and interviews are as follows:
- How are Chinese overseas students integrating academically and socially in Italian universities?
- What do Chinese overseas students say about their preparation for, recognition of, and satisfaction with their academic and social lives in school?

The survey and interviews were conducted through contact with Italian universities and Chinese student associations or unions, and all participants agreed to participate in the survey. This research is also based on recommendations by professors, students, and individual contacts. Because of the difficulty in connecting with large numbers of Chinese students abroad in Italy due to privacy regulations, the survey is therefore limited to several universities and does not cover all Chinese students in Italy.

4.1 Research Framework

Through the research design (See Table 2), this paper explains students' recognition of, satisfaction with, and attitudes toward academic and social integration.
- Analysis methods: The survey data uses SPSS Statistics 17.0 and Excel 2007 for analysis.
- Objective: To ascertain whether students' academic and social integration affect their learning performance in Italy.
- Hypothesis: Successful academic and social integration translates into better academic achievements for Chinese overseas students.

The framework focuses on common issues concerning students' interests, learning recognition and environments, social activities and academic performance from the literature and is made up of six factors (See Table 2). There are 28 survey questions in total and 3-4 questions for each factor and interviews.

Table 1 Student and University Basic Data

Italian universities	Student numbers	Major		Age			Gender		Degree			Scholarship	
		H.	S.	10s	20s	30s	M	F	BA	MA	Ph.D.	Yes	No
Sample 1, Rome	15	8	7	0	7	8	7	8	0	10	5	15	0
Sample 2, Rome	5	3	2	0	4	1	0	5	2	2	1	4	1
Sample 3, Rome	5	4	1	0	3	2	0	5	4	1	0	5	0
Sample 4, Bologna	15	4	11	2	13	0	6	9	4	11	0	14	1
Sample 5, Firenze	20	15	5	5	15	0	7	13	12	8	0	18	2
Sample 6, Milan	20	0	20	0	20	0	5	15	18	2	0	18	2
Total	80	34	46	7	62	11	25	55	40	34	6	74	6

Note: Unit: Student numbers. Major: Humanities/social sciences; Age: 10s/20s/30s; Gender: Male/Female; Degree: BA/MA/ Ph.D.; Scholarship: Yes/No.

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[3] Each city has a different name for scholarships, especially for supporting living fees which are based on family income and the ability to pass courses in Italian universities. Most Chinese students can receive the scholarship for living fees.

Table 2 The Framework of Academic and Social Integration

	Degree of Academic Integration (factor 7)	Degree of Social integration (Factor 8)
Understanding Recognition Satisfaction Attitude	Factor 1 Various learning and interest in my university	Factor 4 Satisfaction and recognition in school between you and your social life
	Factor 2 Academic environment	Factor 5 Learning support from my friends and my family
	Factor 3 Acceptance of study requirements	Factor 6 Italian Language and social interests

5 Data Analysis

5.1 Correlation between Academic and Social Integration

Based on the research framework, this study investigated the correlation between academic integration (factor 7)[4] and social integration (factor 8).[5]

Table 3 explains descriptive statistics between factor 7 and factor 8, and each factor's mean value is 2.3260 and 2.6000. Factor 7 and Factor 8 (See Table 3) show significant correlations on the 0.01 level. The table shows a positive correlation between factor 7and 8 and the correlation coefficient is 0.758. Through the correlation of academic and social integration, it can be shown that Chinese students' learning requirements, learning achievements and acceptance of their studies are strongly related to their social lives, learning support from parents and friends, and also Italian language and social interests. Based on the significant and positive correlation between academic and social factors, the following figures are analyzed in more to show what Chinese overseas students think about their academic and social integration.

5.2 Degree of Academic Integration

All figures in this article are marked 1, 2, 3, 4 or 5, which respectively indicates the answers of very good, good, average, not good, and very bad.

Figure 1 shows that Chinese students are interested in their learning and in their classrooms. 86% of Chinese overseas students are personally interested in what they are learning in school, which explains their motivations for learning. However, more than 72% of the participants selected "average" and "not good" concerning their ability to follow courses and almost 40% responded "average" to their level of achievement of learning goals. It seems that most students are making efforts to integrate into their learning environments even though they are worried that their abilities and goals are low, given their level of interest in their learning. However, when it comes to their course test scores, their responses are "average" or "not good." It can be seen that students are interested in their learning and are motivated to learn; however, their academic achievements and their expectations of their learning goals are not that high.

Figure 2 shows Chinese students are willing to devote themselves to learning in the classroom (around 65%) and consider themselves having good relationships with professors and classmates (more than 50%). Only 6.25% of the students mention negative relations with professors. Figure 2 shows three questions concerning integration in classroom learning environments and the answers are mostly "good" or "average" and also show relatively positive relationships with their professors and classmates.

This section contains the details of students' learning processes in their majors, homework, and group activities after school. Interestingly, Figure 3 shows that more than

Table 3 Correlation between Academic and Social Integration

Correlation between Factor7 and Factor8		
	Factor7	Factor8
Pearson correlation	1	.758[**]
Significant (bilateral)		.000
Square and Cross product sum	12.199	11.190
Covariance	.154	.142
N	80	80

[**] .01 level (bilateral) significant correlation.

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4 See Table 2: Factor 7 includes factors 1, 2 and 3.

5 See Table 2: Factor 8 includes factors 4, 5 and 6.
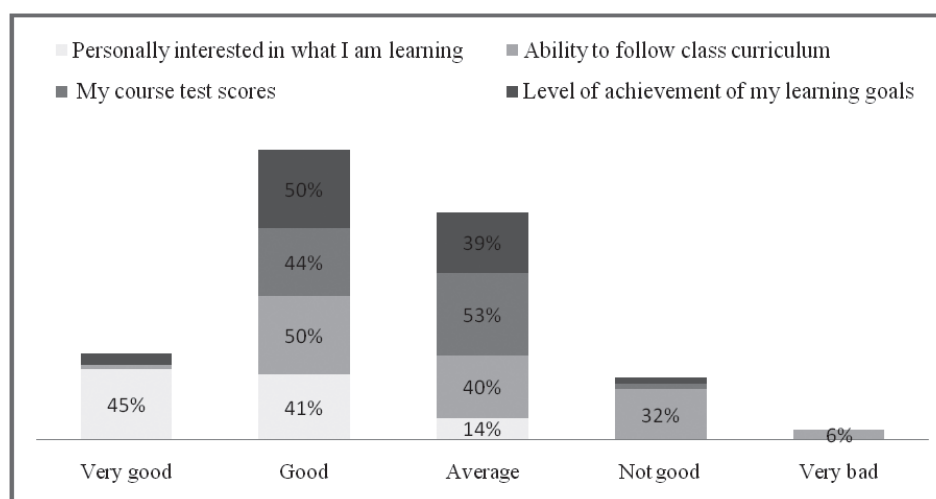
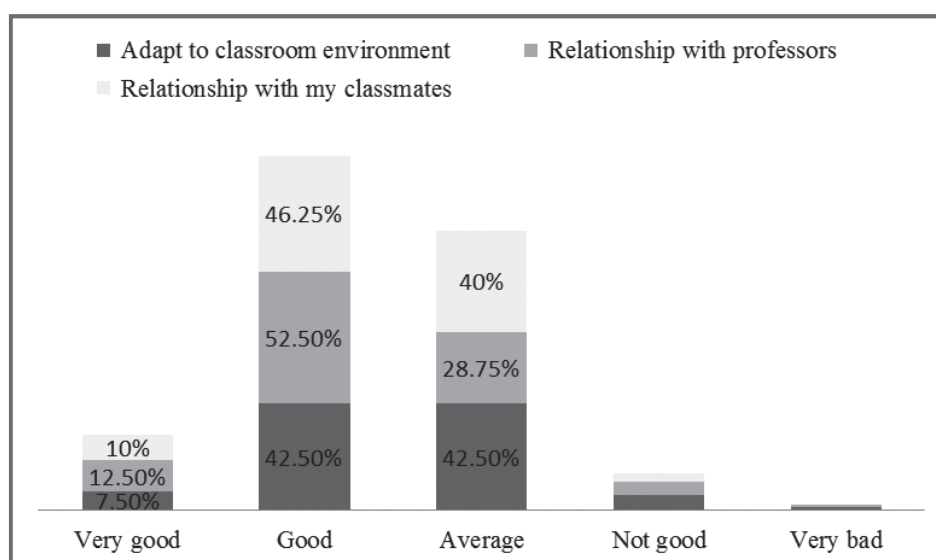Figure 1 Learning and Interest

Figure 2 Academic Environment
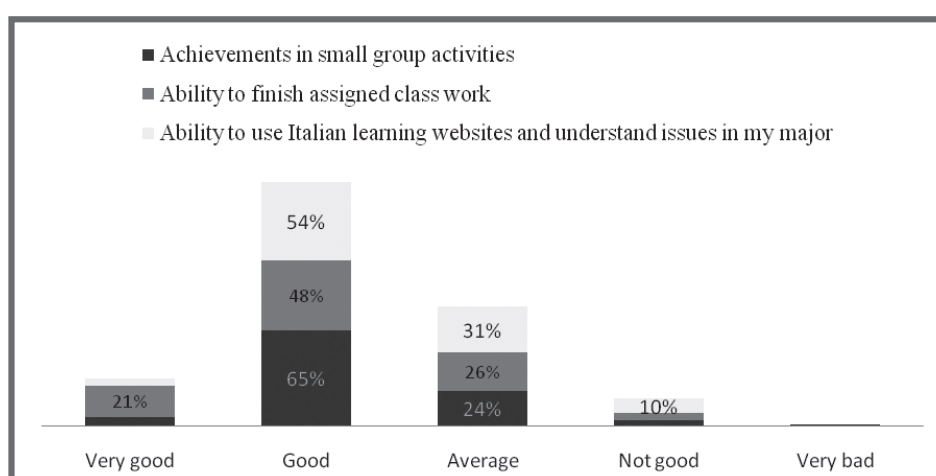

Figure 3 Acceptance of Studying Requirement: Ability of Learning

65% of the students can finish their homework and around 50%have good experiences in small group activities. But many Chinese students would like to finish work individually without participating in group academic activities. One student among the 68.75% explains this in the following way:

> …most of the time I study by myself after school. If I have difficulties doing it, I check websites, especially Chinese websites. It's much easier to find relevant materials and understand directly the point of the homework….I do not like group activities, because Italian and other international students talk too much on other issues. I just want to finish my homework as fast as I can. It saves more time if I do it on my own…. (Undergraduate student 2nd year, Male, Rome)

As we can see from the interview, most Chinese students study alone and use Chinese websites more than Italian websites. This explains that their learning is not openly cooperative and also lacks in integrating with other classmates through homework or teamwork activities. What follows are more students talking about their classroom learning process. As we can see, there is still a need to consider serious language problems, which shadow the learning process.

> …I like to go to school, but I do not always understand the professors…. There are times when I do not understand at all. When that happens, I ask professors and classmates for help…. It takes time to learn Italian language…. Professors and my classmates think I

am a very quiet person because I do not talk in the classroom…. professors ask me to talk or to raise questions in the classroom, but I could not express myself. I feel bad…my biggest problem is language, even though I learned Italian for one year, but it is not enough at all…. Entering a Italian university right after half a year of learning Italian language…. It is not possible to follow the lectures in the classroom." (Undergraduate student 2nd year, Bologna)

One of the biggest problems of integrating into academic environments is to understand Italian language -- speaking, listening, writing, feedback, homework, examinations, and communication. This ultimately results to a lack of confidence and self-esteem as students try to integrate into school environments and Italian society.

Figure 4 shows Chinese students are generally satisfied with their professors' recognition of their learning achievements, learning goals, and their decision to study in Italy. Around 77% of the Chinese students are satisfied with their decision to study in Italy and 72.5% think that they are reaching their education goals during their stay; however, one third of the students answer "average." This may express that some of the students may not have seriously considered their learning recognition and learning satisfaction. Here is one student's interview response:

> I had discussed with my parents and decided to study in Italy. I like to improve my study and get a degree.… I often visit my professors and one of them advises me to prepare for courses and exams…. I wanted to study in UK or USA but now I am here and do not regret.
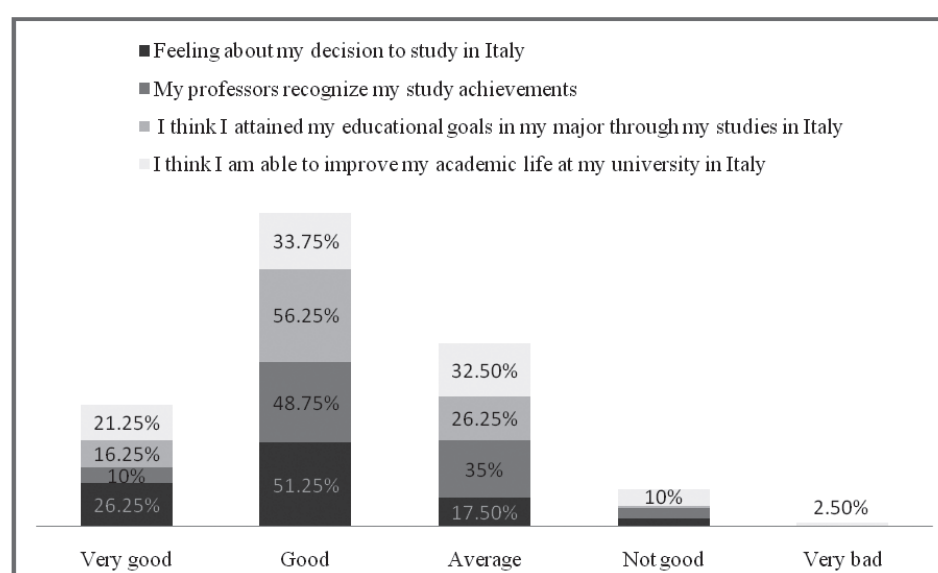

Figure 4 Learning Recognition and Satisfaction

The financial pressure is a lot less here..... I learn another foreign language… If English is the classroom instructional language, it will be great…. I do not forget English…. (Graduate student 2nd year, Firenze)

Through the survey questions and interviews, it can be seen that Chinese students would like to achieve their education goals (especially, obtaining degrees or certificates) and improve their academic life in their universities. On the other hand, Chinese students pointed out that the Italian education curriculum is given entirely in Italian. Chinese students suggested Italian and English should be used interchangeably in class, similar to what they do in Germany or France, which would be beneficial for their career development. The first foreign language most Chinese students learn is English; Chinese students who have been rejected by English-speaking countries (low scores on TOEFL, GRE tests) enter Italian universities (Average from 6 months to 1 year Italian language requirements for Italian universities) and non-English countries.

Here is another student's interview response, showing that one of the biggest challenges for academic integration is the language.

…In fact, I prepared to study in the USA but I am here in Italy. When I study in here, I realize many professors and Italian students are not good at English. My Italian is poor so it is very difficult to communicate…. I worry about how much I can improve my Italian in 2 years. Sometimes I regret for not having strengthened my English more…however I will try hard to get my degree…. (Graduate student 1st year, Milan)

The interviews with Chinese students strongly suggest and commonly emphasize that the learning period for Italian should be longer than half a year before coming to Italy. Students from the Marco Polo program emphasized that language is the biggest obstacle in their studies.

In addition to language issues, the classroom learning environment in Italian Universities also differs from that in China. Learning methods and environments are different from major to major. Many Chinese students explained in the interviews that professors and students in Italian universities seem to be on equal status and students ask questions and provide suggestions in class. This is very different from the situation in China. For the most part, Chinese students in China are quiet and listen to lectures. It is not possible to argue or give suggestions to professors over their lectures. This is clearly explained by one interviewee:

I was undergraduate student in China and decide to study in Italy. My major is Media. When I studied in China, students did not ask many questions or argue with professors. But Italian students do…. Much to my surprise, Italian professors really listen to them…. This is what happens here…. Students like to ask questions and give suggestions on their learning…. (Undergraduate student 3rd year, Male, Rome)

Concerning the issue of language of instruction, the Marco Polo Program selects 10 keystone Italian universities[6] to set up English curriculum for Chinese overseas students. In this way, Chinese students will only need to take TOEFL or IELTS tests for the upcoming 2013 school year. This may benefit some Chinese students, but does that mean Chinese students in Italy will not learn Italian? Language issues, however critical they are, should not overshadow the difficulties Chinese students encounter in culture exchange and social integration. A wholesale switch to English instruction may not be the best method and schools should look into a mix of different languages with equal emphasis on more cultural activities and social integration. At any rate, the chance does express the willingness of the Italian government to accept Chinese students and an indication that they are willing to listen to foreign students' opinions.

A lack of language skills does lead to a decrease in self-esteem and confidence in Chinese students' learning and social integration. However, as we can see from the interview responses, different learning environments and methods also help Chinese students open their eyes to new learning methods and new relationships with professors. Chinese universities can also do much more in this regard to prepare students before they go to Italy by introducing not only language, but also different types of classroom instruction, teaching methods, and more courses on Italian culture and society.

5.3 Degree of Social Integration

Chinese students' social integration is limited in the school environments. Figure 5 shows student recognition of and satisfaction with their schools. 75% of students have good or very good feelings about their university in general. 42.5% answered not much or not at all concerning managing social networks and 36.5% answered average, which shows that students are passive in creating their social networks. Concerning participating in school volunteer activities, 91.25% answered not much and not at all and less than 10% of students responded that their schools provided opportunities for them to integrate with

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[6] 10 selected universities: University of Bologna, University of Pavia, University Degli Studi di Milano, Universit Politecnico di Milano, Politecnico di Torino, Universita Degli Studi Siena.
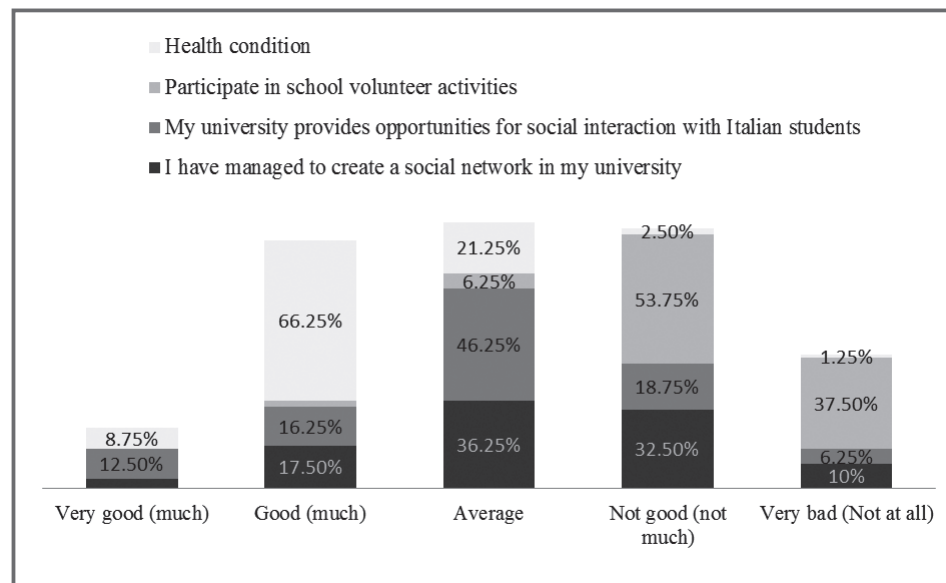
Figure 5 Students and Their Social Life

Italian students. In summary, the Chinese overseas students generally have no information about volunteer activities or creating social networks. Opportunities for communication and social interaction between Chinese students and Italian students are not often arranged by universities but rather by Italian students whose major is related to Chinese language. All interviewees explain there are no social volunteer programs provided by their university. On student describes his feelings about volunteer work:

> Since I worked here, I've never heard about volunteer work. Maybe I did not notice my university website. But None of my Italian friends or professors suggested or invite me to join this activities. Do I have to joint? I do not think my university considers International students do…. If I have the chance, I may join. Through the social volunteer activities, I can understand more Italian society and people. Most of the time I am either in University or at home…. I think I lack social activities. (Undergraduate student 3rd year, Male, Rome)

While many Chinese students seem to have a good perception of their universities, there is lack of information or recognition for oversea students' joining volunteer activities. Through more social connections, these good perceptions of the universities can be expanded to interactions with communities, groups, volunteer activities and can lead to greater understanding, mutual exchange and learning for both Chinese and Italians.

This section explains how academic and social integration were supported by Chinese students' parents and friends and also how Chinese students recognize their

career development in their learning environment. Figure 6 provides a question on how often Chinese students talked about their learning problems with their family and friends. 42.5% of Chinese students are willing to expose their various problems. But 82.5% of the students responded that their friends and family do not often visit them; instead, they communicate through the internet and phone calls. One of the main reasons is the costly expense of travel between Italy and China.

In addition, 78% of Chinese students are satisfied with their learning environments. Chinese students have strong motivation for and satisfaction with their learning environments and many have strong support from family and friends. They want to develop their careers and they think they have a good chance through studying in Italy.

> …I could not enter famous Chinese universities and my parents suggested me to study abroad. We checked many foreign universities and we found it is easier to enter good universities in Italy…. I learned Italian language for 3 months in China…and then continue in Perugia…. I enjoy learning here and I am happy to open my eyes globally. (Undergraduate student 2nd year, Female, Firenze)

On the other hand, negative reactions were also expressed in the interviews as with this student who describes her dissatisfaction in Italy;

> …I graduate from one of the top universities in China. I got full scholarship for master degree in Italy…. I do not like their education programs and lectures…. I do not think their education program is advanced as they
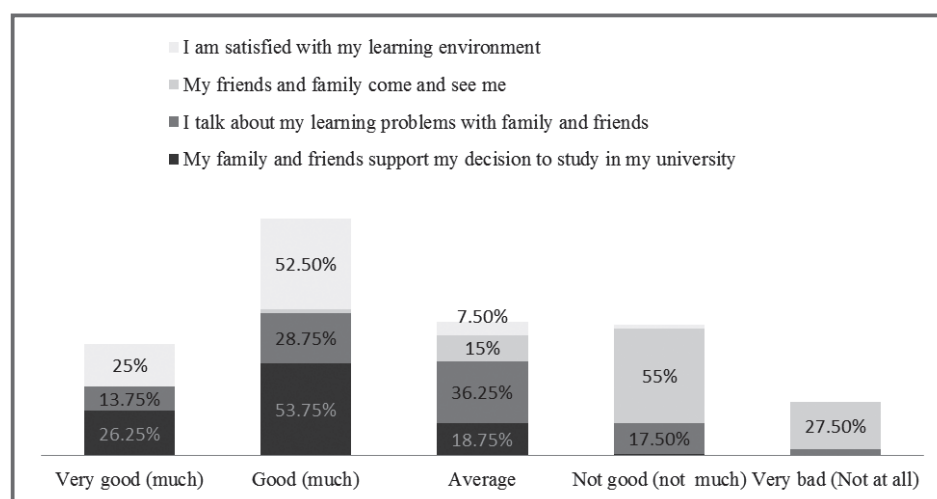
Figure 6 Learning Support from Friends and Family

used to emphasize before I leave…. I have to transfer to another university because my department was closed…Can you believe that? The university I chose is the one of the best university in Italy…but they closed a department just like that…. I regret I chose to study here. All of my friends study in the USA or UK…. Many Italian professors are not good at speaking in English. Teaching is boring because some professors just recite from the books…they are also always late for class…it is not possible in China…we have to wait for the professors more than 30 minutes or even 1 hour…. (Graduate student 2nd year, Female, Firenze)

Through the interviews it can be seen that unsatisfied students in Italy tend to have graduated from good Chinese universities and that their demands are higher than those of other Chinese students who have graduated from two-year colleges or from high school. They would prefer not to remain in Italy and would like to leave as fast as they can. If they have a chance to go to English-speaking countries, they would try. These students have not integrated themselves into Italian social activities but their average academic scores are much higher than other interviewees. The average interviewee's credit points are around middle level (70%), low credit points (10%), and high credit points (10%). It is interesting to note that the Chinese students who receive high credit points (10%) are not very much interested in making efforts at integrating into Italian society.

Figure 7 shows how Chinese students are integrating through Italian language and social communication. 55% of Chinese students enjoy reading Italian books, magazines
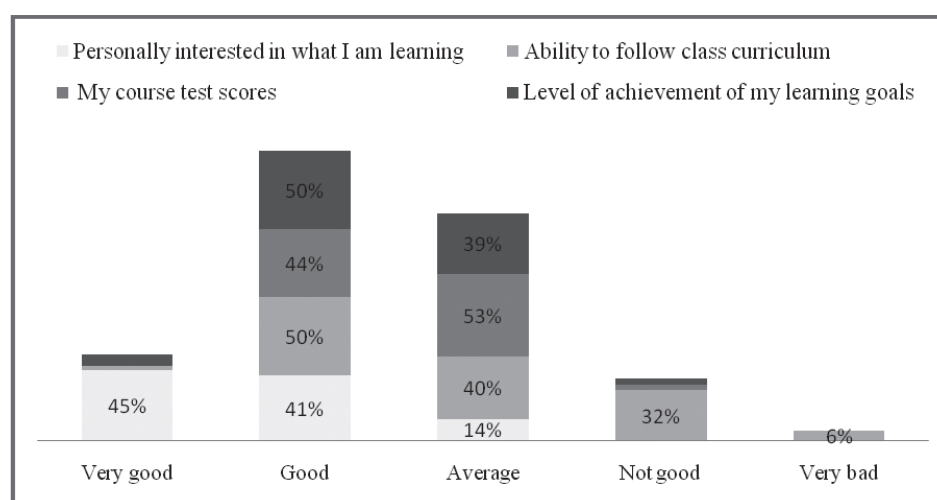

Figure 7 Italian Language and Social Interests

and academic journals and books. Students are especially interested in learning (78.75%) and communicating in the Italian language (81.25%).

Social integration is not only related to learning in school; it is also connected with residence issues and continuation of study in Italy. The visa process for international students is seen as taking too long in Italy. Chinese students explained that the visa application is too slow and sometimes they have to wait more than half a year or one year for results. No matter whether the students are there for two or three year degree programs, they have to apply for a visa every year. Here is a student's interview response:

> Visa management of the Italian government is too slow…I think all levels of Italian governments are…. Since I came here, I had to apply visa every year and to carry the paper with me wherever I go. They check my visa for traveling to other cities…. I feel like I am totally outsider and should not be here…. I could not go to other European countries without visa permission in Italy …that annoyed me…. I feel I am insulted because I am not from a well developed country…. (Graduate student 2nd year, Female, Verona)

The survey also shows that only 5% of Chinese students read a lot of Italian books and magazines and 50% of students say they like to read. Their books and magazines are mostly related to their majors or are used as homework references. Here one interviewer explains:

> …I am sure many Chinese students find it difficult to read all Italian books or journals for classes or exam… compared to Spanish or Portuguese students, we cannot catch their Italian. They learn very quickly…however, when it comes to my major, I read a lot Italian academic books or journals, but I do not have time to read other kinds of books or news…. However, it helps me learn Italian. (Graduate student 2nd year, Female, Bologna)

When chatting or surfing websites most materials the students choose are in Chinese. Students feel they have to read books and magazines to prepare for their classes and exams but not for their interest in Italian society.

Chinese students are making efforts to integrate into their learning environments and enhance their academic performance. They want to be recognized by their professors and classmates and they also have high expectations and goals for their academic studies. But there are imbalances between their learning outcomes and their real learning abilities, which are especially revealed by their relatively low performance scores and confidence in their abilities to achieve their goals. Most problems come from the low Italian language levels and communication skills; on the contrary, they enjoy learning Italian language and reading books and journals. Previous theoretical research clearly shows that international students face language problems, difficulties in interaction and dealing with different cultures, pedagogical and communicative styles. This study finds that Chinese students suffer from an imbalance between their expectations and their outcomes, socially and academically. Reducing this imbalance can increase satisfaction with and recognition of academic achievements.

6 Conclusion

Through analysis of the survey and interviews, this paper gets several interesting findings. First, Chinese students are not linguistically well prepared enough before leaving China. Through learning feedback and communication in the classroom, it can be seen that Chinese students are facing obstacles in improving their academic achievements which stem from their abilities in using Italian. However, Chinese students have motivation for studying and understand that there are good opportunities to study in Italy. This motivation can be put to good use before students step foot in Italian universities.

Second, meeting study abroad requirements is much easier compared to those of other western countries (especially, English-speaking countries), especially for Chinese students of the Marco Polo program. The same holds true for other Chinese students who individually study in Italy.

Third, most Chinese students are satisfied with their study in Italy. The main reason is free tuition and scholarships which provide quality education. Through education experiences in Italy, they can gain many international experiences at an early age, which is important for advancement of their future careers.

Through this case study of Chinese students studying in Italy, this paper comes to several conclusions. Firstly, Italian universities are facing a new challenge of integrating international students' academic outcomes and social activities. As the number of Chinese overseas students in Italy is growing rapidly, Italian universities need to take measures to reduce cultural and social gaps and strengthen mutual understanding between Chinese students and Italian students and professors. Secondly, universities also need to make efforts to support overseas students in social integration through various activities and cultural experiences. Italian universities also need to strengthen integration of learning and working environments. Related

curriculum and education programs in the selected 6 universities are all instructed in Italian but they may consider adding some English curriculum or providing various activities to attract more international students. Thirdly, at the same time, Chinese universities need to increase Italian languages courses before students leave for Italy. The Chinese government and Chinese students should be doing more to prepare for their study in Italy and for the different learning environments they may encounter.

Under the context of globalization, EU countries are facing challenges in attracting more international students. In the 21st century knowledge-based global society, increasing numbers of internationally mobile students are optimistic yet they face many negative global pressures. Italy is one member of the EU, and is a popular country in the international higher education market. Language differences, cultural differences, and differences in learning and teaching styles, however, have brought out obstacles for international students. This paper investigates how Chinese students in Italy integrate socially and academically so as to show a way to having successful academic performances, on the students' part, and to building positive learning environments, on the universities'. Only through more understanding and communication can students and teachers and administrators provide the most fruitful atmosphere for students in Italy and the world.

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The New Development of Internationalization in Japanese Higher Education

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Abstract

At present, the universities not only perform the traditional modern state's function to provide its citizens with the necessary education, but they also have taken on new roles such as assuring the quality of education and research while introducing new educational programs, all of which are based on an international university-level exchange. This article focuses on the strategic growth of "internationalization" with regard to Japanese universities, and particular attention is paid to the policies focused on international student mobility, inbound-flows such as the 300,000 International Students Plan. The article examines the policies on the admission of international students and some significant prospects of internationalization of universities in Japan, including systematic strategies for university internationalization, introducing English-taught programs, Japanese language education, dispatch of Japanese students, and introducing "gap year" system. Through these policies, the government has come to play a central role in offering subsidies for the construction of student accommodations, financial aid for government scholarship programs, support for host institutions of international students, funds for tuition reductions and exemptions, and relaxed immigration regulations.

Keywords: internationalization, university education, higher education policy, student mobility, Japan

1   Internationalization and Globalization

Generally speaking, the process of "internationalization" constitutes a leading concept in the recent reforms in higher education. Nowadays this concept is accepted and supported by virtually everyone, apart from staunch conservatives. It is not at all simple to clarify the definitions of "internationalization," "globalization" as well as their characteristics. If we attempt to sort out the meaning of "internationalization" based on the facts found in various research papers, "internationalization" implies the move to form a functional system, in which as many students as possible are free to cross Japan's borders and study abroad, while at the same time the traditional structure of a "nation-state" is being preserved. "Internationalization" holds particularly the meaning of an attempt to achieve a consensus at an international level and to regulate the university-entrance system, the development of multilingual curricula and educational programs, the quality assurance of education and research, as well as the evaluation of academic degrees and their recognition (Knight, 2006).

With regard to "globalization", on the other hand, there is the view that it leads to the standardization of a certain quality of university education and research at an international level by means of a unified system (which is mainly an American-type system). This results from a market-oriented transformation and the advance of information technology. Consequently, there is a shift towards the pursuit of a multicultural educational environment that exceeds the existing state-education system, even if a slight one, and a shift towards mobilizing a great deal of human resources. For the acquisition of such human resources, a variety of actions and strategic policies will be developed between nations.

2   Current Trends for Accepting International Students in America, Europe and Asia

In major countries and regions, throughout the world like the US, the European Union, Australia and China, strategic policies are being set forth one after another, targeting the acquisition of superior international students. By treating international students as "customers" there are multiple benefits, such as benefits for the economy of the host-country, the promotion and application of advanced research through the acquisition of superior human capital and the establishment of friendly relations between the international students' host-country and their country of origin (Altbach, Kelly, & Lulat, 1985; Ebuchi, 1997;

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Yuriko, 2010).

In 2007, around 620,000 international students were admitted into the United States, which thus became the country with the most international students in the world. Nevertheless, if we take a look at the quality of education, we cannot say for sure that this has been a success. Starting from the debate of in what way are more excellent young researchers from all academic fields, who are capable of becoming international pioneers, invited to the US, the reconsideration of the policy measures concerning the admission of international students has become in recent years a subject of controversy. On the other hand, despite the present admission policy of international students, it is hard to say that the number of American students sent abroad is high, compared to that of other developed countries. This fact attracted criticism, thus making it necessary to plan an escape from isolation in international academic exchange. A policy offering its own students the opportunity to get in touch with various languages and cultures has drawn considerable attention in recent years. "The National Security Language Initiative" proposes the plan to dispatch a million students abroad.

With regard to Higher Education in the European Union, the Erasmus program, in which Higher Education serves as a reference point, is currently being promoted as part of the Socrates program (Hotta, 2010). Moreover, since the Bologna Declaration in 1999, the cross-national exchange of researchers and students within Europe has increased. This development has expanded to areas outside Europe through the Erasmus Mundus program. Furthermore, in 1997 the European Committee in collaboration with UNESCO concluded the "Convention on the recognition of studies, diplomas and degrees concerning Higher Education in the European region" and in 2005 the OECD set the guidelines for quality assurance of Higher Education. The attempt to set out a plan for assuring the quality of universities internationally also became visible with the advancement of states' universities and the promotion of student exchange in the region.

In various Asian and Oceania countries, policies targeting the admission of international students have been put forward in recent years through a type of economic leadership, increasing the annual number of international students admitted to these nations. (Arata, 2007; Satō, 2007; Sugimoto, 2006) In Australia, where education services have become a main export industry for Singapore, the acquisition of human resources carrying high-level expertise is being targeted for the sake of economic development in Malaysia, where a base for "transit trade" of Higher Education has been founded strategic planning that corresponds the concept of admitting international students with the ideals of each country is taking place.

Furthermore, China, which has been a major contributor to sending international students abroad, is also a destination for international students from other nations based on the concept of a form of economic leadership (Sugimura, 2011). The majority of international students admitted to China are Korean, followed by Japanese and American. In 2010, the Chinese government announced a plan to increase the number of international students up to a total of 500,000 by 2020, aiming to become the country accepting the most international students in Asia. In addition, a plan to establish the Confucius Academy in 100 places around the world is being carried out, with the objective to spread the use of the Chinese language on a global scale.

It is thought that world trends in the globalization of universities also significantly influence the future of Japanese study-abroad policy. Particularly the moves to be taken by the US, which has been major host country of international students, will attract attention in the future. It is mainly English-speaking countries that American students choose for studying abroad and the status of English as an international language in the global community is strongly relevant. In contrast, those whose mother tongue is English have already acquired English competences, and many of them will probably to choose a field in an educational institution that is not related to language acquisition. Consequently, further development of study programs conducted in English will be required in the future in order to secure students from America which could have the potential to encourage an enormous amount of English-speaking students to study abroad.

3   Making Attractive Programs for International Students

International university rankings are important guides for students to decide which school to attend. When it comes to internationalization, such global rankings are so important that they raise discussion as to what Japanese universities can do in order to increase their international competitiveness and attract international students.

In the "World University Ranking" of the 2011 edition of the British education journal *Times Higher Education*, only two Japanese universities, Tokyo University and Kyoto University, are listed within the top 100 universities, with the former coming in at 30th place and the latter at 52nd. Japanese universities are criticized for being domestically "insular" towards foreign countries. The scarcity of foreign teachers in the education faculties, the low number of international students and the lack of researchers' English communicative skills are held responsible. It is also suggested that in spite of the depth of research discourses

in Japan and the intellectual capabilities of its researchers, Japanese papers are seldom cited in the international academic journals and media. In reality the percentage of international students in bachelor/master's courses remains an average of 2.9%, whereas in OECD countries the percentage reaches 6.7% and in the 19 EU countries 5.9% (Okada, 2012a).

Because the functions of universities are diverse (whether they are, for instance, a faculty of research or education, or a faculty of liberal arts or physical sciences), such a comparison may not necessarily be valid. Nevertheless, if we take into consideration the strong influence the university ranking system exerts on the higher education institutions of all countries, it seems a matter of course that the quality of academic degrees or qualifications in Japan and its domestic universities as a whole receive low evaluation, the search for the causes as well as the corresponding solutions will become urgent. On this occasion, the following counter measures are necessary: the reconsideration of education/research content, the introduction of a Grade Point Average (GPA) system, so that a proper evaluation for students' academic performance which corresponds to the international standards can be performed, the strengthening of the structure of Faculty Development (FD), which is essential for an evaluation system based on self-assessment and for the improvement of the quality of teaching personnel, and the overhaul and expansion of the employment support system for international students. Furthermore, if structural reforms of the graduate schools' organization or their curricula are not examined from the viewpoint of international students, they are unlikely to appeal to these students. A variety of programs that correspond to individual competencies or the diversity of needs must therefore be created.

4 Policies for Internationalization in Transition: Japan's Case

The policies on the admission of international students in recent Japan are outlined in the following sections.

International student policies in Japan started in the 1950s with the admission of international students at the expense of the government. This policy aimed at "educating international students as human capital" and "encouraging friendship with Japan."

According to Ebuchi (1997), there are three "ideal models" related to the significance of accepting international students. One is the "classical model" that appeared immediately after the end of the Second World War and whose main student body was limited to the elite. This model was followed by the "co-operation and mutual understanding approach," which appeared as a

trait of the popularization of studying abroad in the 1970s and 1980s. The "model based on the economic principle" is the third model and only raised at present, when the neoliberal market principles is introduced to education (Horie, 2002; Yokota & Shirado, 2004). Besides, two new approaches have emerged (Ota, 2012). One is the "skilled migration approach" under which companies are eager to employ international students after graduating from Japanese Universities ("brain gain" from overseas). The other is called the "revenue-generating approach" under which private institutions together with commission-paid agents try aggressively to recruit international students notably from China. The traditional "co-operation and mutual understanding approach" has been weakened by the new approaches which are now dominant in international education in Japan.

5 Educational Policies in Transition

The debate on the internationalization of Japanese higher education was in full swing in 1983 after the "Proposal about the 21st century international student policy" (commonly known as the "Plan to admit 100,000 international students") was approved. In addition, in the Japan-United States Conference on Cultural and Educational Interchange (CULCON), an international student exchange model based on the principle of reciprocity and mutuality was planned and statements about the international student acceptance policy in Japan continued. Since then the "Plan to admit 100,000 international students" has served as a standard framework for promoting the admission of international students, and the government as well as several authorities had launched various sorts of related policies and measures.

Internationalization and globalization policies in Japan from the 1990s and onwards can be classified in the following categories that correspond to three perspectives: (1) policies to activate international student exchange, (2) human resources training policies that correspond to globalization and (3) policies to promote international strategic development of universities (Yoshimoto, 2012). These policies are connected to each other and continuously expanding, while reflecting aspects like political and financial requests or university reforms at times. Such policies pay particular attention to training human resources capable of surviving globalization and are therefore directed towards the realization of studies that cross borders by standardizing university education at an international level and by promoting program development, including quality assurance of education; at the same time they include aspects that are not limited in this framework, such as cooperation between senior high school and universities or

ways students can connect to a career path after graduation.

In addition, the traits of policies pursued in recent years can be classified to three distinct periods (Yoshimoto, 2012).

The first period was between 2000 and 2006, during which "an international student acceptance-centred policy" was emphasized. In the 2000 report of the Universities Inquiry Commission titled "About an ideal method of higher education in times of globalization," it is mentioned with the objective to improve its international versatility and commonality. To better position itself in the international competition, Japanese higher education should focus on the improvement of the quality of human resources that conform to the era of globalization. In concrete terms, this indicated a course of actions such as the accomplishment of liberal arts education and the improvement in the qualifications of teaching personnel. It also showed the way to an education that stresses the importance of real experiences.

However, during that period, the development of concrete policies concerning the internationalization of university education was restricted and they were thought to have constantly remained at a conceptual-level. At that time the "Plan to admit 100,000 international students" introduced in the 1980s was still being carried out, and the expansion of the admittance-policy of international students was mainly a part of aid to developing countries. However, in the implementation of various government policies it was stressed that rather than increasing numbers, which was something easily achieved through an admission system based on "quantity", the "quality" of the international students admitted should also be taken into consideration. Meanwhile the internationalization of education at the level of private and public universities had already started before this policy. At the Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University (founded in 2000), the Akita International University (founded in 2004), and Waseda University (founded in 2004), courses conducted in English or the awarding of corresponding academic degrees had already began in earnest. In addition, the "University Education Internationalization Promotion Program," introduced in 2004, supports cross-national programs for international cooperation, including agreements between universities on student exchange, credit transfer and dual degrees. Nevertheless, this has been a comparatively small-scale program.

The second period is between 2007 and 2009. During this time period, Japan adopted the policy of "A switch to accept international students" aiming to acquire highly capable human resources in contrast to the previous policy of accepting international students as a type of aid to developing countries. *The Study Group Concerning the*

Management of Global Human Resources report issued by the Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry in 2007 stated that trends such as the intensification of business competition in a global scale and the appearance of Eastern Asian countries in the market have changed the environment surrounding the Japanese Economy, and it was necessary to employ foreigners possessing expertise. Therefore, the report recommended that the admission of international students be expanded. The international student acceptance policy based on the model of acquiring highly talented persons has also brought future immigration policies into focus.

In 2008, the "Plan for 300,000 international students" was announced and since then not only became the framework for the so-called "global 30" plan but formed a basis for the internationalization of universities as well (Aspinall, 2013, pp. 161-163). In view of the competition to acquire international human resources, major universities were selected in order to propel this project forward. All efforts were put into strengthening the universities' structure aiming to internationalize university education, and developing action plans, such as a radical reform of the university administration, the formulation of courses conducted in English and the establishment of international offices, to name just a few. However, in the world university rankings Japanese universities are still lagging behind in the proportion of international students and the foreign teaching personnel they employ.

The third period extends from 2010 to the present. The main objective of the political measures taken during this period lies in the "regional exchange, international partnership and education development for human capital." In 2010 Prime Minister Hatoyama advocated the "Campus Asia" concept in the trilateral summit conference between Japan, Korea and China, following the example of "Erasmus plan" of the EU, targets sustainable expansion of the exchange between universities of the three countries as well as student exchange through the involvement of the governments. This involvement includes a careful consideration of the framework for quality assurance of education plus an attempt to set up exchange guidelines and pilot programs. The 2011 budget approved a new short-term exchange program (short-stay, short-visit) for students. Moreover, the institutionalization of joint degrees is promoted.

Moreover, attention was also paid to the policy concerning the "development of an education for human capital." The background included a demand for globally oriented human capital, which is considered essential within the context of international competition, a reduction of the number of Japanese students studying abroad due to their "inland-oriented disposition," as well as the

economic recession after the Lehman-shock. Proposals asking for an education aimed at promoting global human capital were made in succession, such as in the "Sunrise report" of the Federation of Economic Organizations issued in 2010 and the summary of the "Conference for the promotion of education of global human capital" issued in 2011(Nihon keizai dantai rengoukai, 2011). The 2012 budget new projects were approved, which were related to the organization of a university system that has at its core the education of internationally-oriented human capital. These projects include at the same time the development of international strategies on the internationalization of universities while still associated with the above mentioned "global 30."

6 Crucial Issues in Japanese Universities

Many authors have already pointed out many issues related to the internationalization of Japanese universities (Kuroda, 2012; Okada, 2012b; Sato, 2010; Suzuki, 2011).

Internationalisation has become a very important and indispensable issue in education as well as in research, and is highly esteemed in Japanese higher education. As a result of long lasting economic recession, Japan's public debt has reached 200% of its GDP. Therefore, there is a great demand not only from society but also from taxpayers that universities show the added value of their internationalization and its impact on their institutes. The following section examines some significant prospects of internationalization of universities in Japan (Okada, 2012a).

6.1 Systematic Strategies for University Internationalization

First of all, every university and graduate school is asked to show a viable vision or the internationalization of education and research by means of accepting international students. Making use of its distinctive traits, each university will be forced to make a choice whether to reinforce its roles as a training institute for researchers, an education center for skilled professionals, or an exemplar of such fields as Japanese language, Japanese culture, etc. Furthermore, there are strategic agreements on academic exchange between universities and departments. The second strategy, which is related to the first, focuses on the introduction and development of systematic and distinctive programs and curricula with corresponding degrees and certificates upon completion, and that suits the needs of international students. Consequently, the international competition between universities will be likely to increase. Should the situation occur in the future, the ability to attract international students will impact

the management of universities so much that the demand for educational programs offered in multiple languages, started with English, will be proposed and such concepts as forming high-level intellectual grounds in East Asia capable of competing against those in the United States and the European Union will be raised. With the collaboration between Asian countries as a core element, it is necessary that those young people of the highest calibre who are considered the pillars of Japan's future work together with their counterparts in China and Korea to take initiatives. The construction of programs that foster students' English proficiency and get them to think in an Asian perspective is expected.

Thirdly, in order to attract international students, what is to be thought of is not only their academic needs but also the daily life problems they may encounter. In this regard, reducing frictions between different cultures, offering a safe living environment in which international students feel comfortable and thus can devote themselves to studying are the tasks universities could undertake. Collaboration between universities and communities is also essential. For example, for cultural exchange, vacant rooms in the communities can serve as "dormitories" to accommodate both Japanese and international students. Besides, regional "city development" may employ international students.

Universities too should be partly responsible for the career paths of international student. In order for outstanding international students to stay in Japan as valuable human capital, they should be given more opportunities of internships in Japanese companies, if not offered decent jobs upon graduation (Tsunematsu, 2008). Furthermore, building an alumni network and setting up information sharing systems that promote employment in international enterprises and institutions inside and outside Japan is paramount.

6.2 Introducing English-taught Programs

Fourthly, when it comes to curriculum reform, it is fair enough to say that internationalisation has been underdeveloped in Japan. The government and universities have always supported an approach in which Japan imports foreign knowledge and technology and modified them for the use of modernisation in Japan (internationalisation for modernisation). The fact that Japanese universities have followed courses of Western universities has long prevented Japanese universities from internationalising their curricula.

In some cases, international students in Japan, especially the short-term exchange students lack Japanese language competency. Many countries in the world and Japanese government as well promote "advancement of short-term exchange program (so-called short program). That is to say, increasing courses lectured in English.

Supported by these trends, Japanese national universities, since the mid-1990s, have been introducing courses that go beyond traditional frameworks, in which "International and Japanese Students (IJ) study together" (Okada, 2006). Unlike traditional classes in which international students are arranged under certain programs, "IJ co-education" is a new learning experiment through which Japanese and international students take courses delivered in English in the same classroom. This program has already been enforced in some private universities as a strategic tool for internationalisation. One striking characteristic of the classes is a teaching style which places students in the centre of the class with methods like traditional lecture, presentation, discussion, debate and so on.

However, the problems with "IJ co-education" are the inadequate English proficiency of teachers and of the Japanese students and students from non-English speaking countries, and the awkwardness the Japanese students feel in these Western style classes. Because quite a lot of international students ask classes to be taught in Japanese, problems that damage the foundation of short programs have emerged. In addition, due to the fact that clear-cut establishment of the program has not been mandated by the government at an administrative level, each university develops its own program and curriculum design is left to the teachers. Although universities have to report to the government on their program, valid evaluation reports remain rare.

As a result, the information regarding "IJ co-education" is regarded not exchange properly between national and private universities, and it follows that there is no consensus about the evaluation criteria for the program and the transfer of credits, not to mention curriculum design. At this point, supporting project for the standardization of university international classes taught in English; that is, the advancement of teachers' ability to educate international students and the opportunities for them to learn appropriate class management are vital in the short term. The practice in the Ministry of education's "program to promote internationalization of Japanese university education -- support for international advanced education in practice" in 2006 addresses the need to strengthen the mutual cooperation between universities (Monbukagakushō, 2006). In this project, we send teachers of different fields of study from eight universities, out of twenty-six with short programs on faculty development (FD), to studying tours in order for them to learn how to improve the quality of class management in English. At the same time, the classes on FD are filmed on VTR and shared through the entire network of 26 universities. From now on, the enforcement and development of such cooperative efforts between universities will be expected.

6.3 Japanese Language Education

In addition to international students, we have a great number of foreigners studying Japanese in Japanese language schools run by private companies and communities in Japan. In general, students funded by their families are required to have certain level of Japanese proficiency to be accepted by Japanese universities as international students, and they have to take Japanese proficiency tests or exams for studying in Japan. However, such exams are given only once or twice a year and mostly students cannot take the exams in their own country. Instead, they have to fly all the way to Japan for the exams, which is financially ineffective.

In 2010, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology revealed the wrap up of "discussions on Japanese Language Education for international students" and proposed concrete approaches on inclusive and systematic Education for all stages of students' life, which means providing students with education before coming to Japan, at college, after graduation, during job hunting and so on, in order for universities to acquire international students with competence. Moreover, they are examining how to keep the high quality of education at Japanese language teaching institutions before international students move on to higher education (Monbukagakushō, 2010).

Unfortunately, the Great East Japan Earthquake which hit the North-eastern parts of Japan on March 11, 2011 and the following accident at Fukushima first nuclear power plant discouraged international students from studying in Japan. According to the Japanese Institution for Students' Support, as of May 2011, the number of international students studying in Japan was 138,075, a decrease of 3,699 from the previous year. Only 7,836 visas were issued in October 2011 that meant a reduction of 4,000 visas compared with 11,725 visas issued in the same month of the previous year. This indicates the drastic decrease in the number of Korean and Chinese students, and Japanese language schools in the Tohoku region lost 80% of their students.

When we take into account that nearly 70% of international students who plan to study at Japanese Universities have studied at Japanese language schools at some point of their stay, the overall system of accepting international students will certainly be affected hereafter. For that reason, Japanese universities, government ministries and private Japanese language schools should discuss together how Japanese language education can be improved to attract more students.

6.4 Dispatch of Japanese Students

Various media have reported that recently the

number of Japanese students going abroad to study has decreased and they've had a tendency to be more and more domestically minded. According to the survey conducted by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, the number of students who went abroad to study has been decreasing for 5 consecutive years, reaching 59,923 in 2009, which is 6,910 fewer than the previous year. Compared to 2004, which boasted with the largest number of students going abroad to study, 2009 represented a decrease of about 23,000 (28%). Moreover, the number of students studying at the most prestigious universities in the world, namely Harvard University, keeps decreasing while the number of students at these schools from China, India and Singapore has doubled (Asahi Newspaper, digital 2001/01/29: http://www.asahi.com/?ref=com_gnavi).

The decrease can possibly be explained by the long lasting economic recession. Students have started job hunting earlier and there is a trend toward getting a secure job and resisting the idea of working abroad. In addition, the development of IT innovation enables students to access knowledge easily without studying at universities.

Some researchers are critical about a theory, which finds students' domestic inclination to be ingrained in their perspective. For instance, external factors, like job hunting which starts too early are depriving students from having college education and from studying abroad. Another reason could be the increase of the number of students shifting to Asian Universities from prestigious American or European Universities, at which Japanese students used to attend. Consequently we can conclude that Japanese students do not always tend to be domestic. However, as far as the sum of the Japanese students studying at universities, junior colleges and technical colleges (3,780,000 as of 2005) is concerned, we soon realize how small the number of students studying abroad, 60,000 in total, really is. The difference between sexes in the type of studying abroad will be an agenda to be discussed hereafter (Yonezawa, 2009).

Under such circumstances, governments and communities are trying to support students who are willing to study abroad. Universities are making an attempt to establish a system for Japanese students, which supports them before and after they leave Japan (Takahama & Tanaka, 2011). In 2008, the Ministry of Education Science Report stated that the Japanese government would strengthen the policies to send Japanese students abroad as one of the main pillars for the internationalization of universities. The 2014 budget plan includes a 1.6% increase in the scholarship about 3.1 billion yen for students to study abroad, and the number of eligible students increased 1.2 times. Moreover, another 5 billion yen was distributed to the improvement of university education with the purpose of developing students' ability to write theses and to

communicate in foreign languages. Other than these steps, the government has also developed a policy to increase the number of high school students studying abroad and develop a supporting fund of 120 million yen for 300 high school students. Furthermore, the Tokyo Board of Education made a plan to send about 3,000 students abroad by 2020, and they aim to send 150 students from public schools, using money partially footed by the government (about 190 million yen).

6.5 Introducing "Gap Year" System

Recently, leading newspapers have reported that Tokyo University is planning to introduce fall matriculation, which has already been an international standard adopted in most countries, notably America and Europe. This move will promote communication with international students and internationalization. Since the dates of entrance examinations held at universities will not be changed, this shift will introduce Gap Year or Gap Term which starts from the time of passing the entrance examination and ends at the time students actually begin studying at universities. Generally speaking, the Gap Year is defined as a period of time beginning at the point of the graduation from high school until the start of university term, when an individual student is free to join some kind of activity in order to establish his or her future career based on his or her interests. President Junichi Hamada stated that by introducing fall matriculation and the Gap Year he was thinking to give more opportunities for exchange between students of Tokyo university and international students, to undertake ELS in and out of Japan, to increase volunteer and welfare activities, and also to have work experiences (Embodiment Learning) like working as an intern. He is calling for the prevalence of Gap Year all over Japan. Furthermore, the Federation of Economic Organization announced a "proposal on encouraging global talents," showing attitude to appraise the introduction of Gap Year to grow students who will be able to live through in the time of globalization.

However, some people wonder if it is really effective for the internationalization of Japanese universities to introduce fall matriculation. Some have argued that universities will not be able to secure a place in international studying milieu even if classes for international students began at Japanese universities in September, since Japanese universities still have such problems as the shortage of teachers who can give lectures in English, teachers' poor levels of English proficiency, and a continued reliance on old fashioned lecturing style. In addition, other leading universities have a reluctant attitude toward the Gap Year. The reason why they are reluctant is that they are concerned about the increased financial burden

on high school graduates if they study abroad and about the emerging disparity in their activities, which depend on the socio-economic statuses of their families. Moreover, when we consider job hunting in Japan, many students are taught to think that the Gap Year, from 6 months to a year, would cause disadvantage for them as long as companies keep their traditional employment system in which they only employ new graduates. Other than this, there is a trend to find the earlier introduction of Gap Year dangerous on the grounds that students are unable to continue taking effective language education as soon as they graduate from high schools, and that local small universities will lose students to those whose term begins in spring, if all the universities do not introduce Gap Year at the same time.

According to Hata (2009), the Gap Year system has already been introduced in England. They recognize that the potential for students to gain various skills has increased, which encourages them to grow up through Gap Year. In addition, students "motivation has risen, their dropout rates have decreased, and after all Gap Year was found to promote students" likelihood to secure degrees or other qualification. Consequently, a big number of institutions support the Gap Year in England. In order to introduce fall matriculation and the Gap Year, it is necessary that not only universities but also the government, bureaucracies and companies together should make an effort to reform radically the present employment system and educational environment while taking the issues pointed out above into consideration.

7   Conclusion

In conclusion, the propensity toward market principle and internationalization caused by globalization has characterised policies of Japanese higher education these days. Policies on education for international students, in particular, have strongly conformed to those principles since the beginning of expansion policy in 1980s. Various policies which were promoted rapidly in a stream of neo-liberalistic "structural reform" accelerated the trend after 2000. Moves different from those in the past, which include the enrichment of programmes in English, the selection of universities accepting "global 30," the introduction of dual degree system, and the set-up of programmes planned by industries, universities and bureaucracies in cooperation, have emerged in the field of internationalization of universities. The introduction of the fall matriculation system and Gap Year are the by-products of such trends.

Facing the demands from the twenty-first century's global knowledge-based society, the Japanese government has to keep on supporting strategic initiatives for internationalization of universities to serve as catalysts

for the functional transformation of Japanese universities. Consequently, the government should provide competitive funds for pioneering internationalisation efforts and innovative international collaborations of institutions in education, research, and administration. In addition, the government should implement further deregulations, together with effective quality assurance programs in Japanese higher education as a whole.

In other words, the establishment of institutional strategies for internationalisation, and the international validity and competitiveness in education and research have recently been emphasised in Japanese discourse. In such an environment, it is important for every institution to re-examine the methods and goals in internationalisation, to look back the present state and to look for relevant "criteria" and "indicators" of its own (qualitative and quantitative), which are expected to lead to a great deal of improvement in academic quality.

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A Critical Reflection on Internationalization of Higher Education in Hong Kong: The Search for a Cosmopolitan Alternative

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Abstract

This paper aims to critically reflect on internationalization of higher education in Hong Kong in the light of Beck's thesis of cosmopolitization. While it argues that the existing internationalization process is largely founded on a national perspective, it proposes a cosmopolitan alternative for future development. Alternative here refers to a transnational perspective on global development of higher education. The paper begins with a literature review which exemplifies how cosmopolitanism can be used to examine and rectify the internationalization process in higher education. This is followed by a historical review of internationalization of higher education in Hong Kong. It then turns to examine the main policy initiatives related to internationalization and the corresponding tensions caused. The following section leads us to rethink the mission of internationalization. To conclude, the paper argues that cosmopolitan solution, by giving a cosmopolitan vision, is a way of bringing the educational perspective back to education.

Keywords: internationalization, cosmopolitanism, cosmopolitization, higher education, Hong Kong

1 Introduction

For the sake of talent competition, profit-making, national reputation and the like reasons, many societies have speeded up the process of internationalization of higher education. Hong Kong has joined the competition since colonial era and is keen to continue the policy after handover. In fact, we have witnessed that Hong Kong's higher education has undergone waves of massification and marketization. Meanwhile, the government has sought to develop the city into a regional education hub. These developments reflect that Hong Kong has followed the dual trends in higher education development (i.e., the pursuit of excellence with elitism and massification of higher education with egalitarianism) (Shin & Harman,

2009). As a consequence, while local universities are keen to internationalize themselves through recruiting more non-local students, instrumental approaches (e.g., talent competition and education as an industry) are widely adopted and the ideals of internationalization are rarely mentioned in designing and implementing their internationalization process (see Stier [2004, 2010] on instrumentalist and idealistic interpretations of internationalization of education).

This paper aims to critically reflect on the internationalization process in Hong Kong's higher education. On the basis of Beck's (2006, 2011) thesis of cosmopolitization, the paper primarily argues that the existing internationalization process is largely founded on national perspective, which is the main cause of the dilemma. It thus considers cosmopolitanism an alternative, which provides a "both/and" perspective on global development of higher education. The paper begins with a literature review illustrating how cosmopolitanism can be used to examine and rectify the internationalization process in higher education. This is followed by a historical review of internationalization of higher education in Hong Kong. The paper then turns to examine two main policy initiatives related to internationalization which triggers economic and political tensions. The following section leads us to rethink the mission of internationalization. Towards the end, the paper suggests that cosmopolitan solution, by bringing an awareness to global interconnectivity, is a way of bringing the educational perspective back to education.

2 A Cosmopolitan Vision for Internationalization of Higher Education

The main theoretical basis of this analysis builds on Beck's (2006, 2011) thesis of cosmopolitization. In accordance with this thesis of "new cosmopolitan vision for the social sciences," the mainstream social theory is greatly shaped by a western-centered hegemony. Such an approach formulates an "either/or" logic, which justifies universalism in the social sciences. That is to say, social scientists have

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long used their nation state as their unit of study and simply generalized their research findings to a global level. Nevertheless, this approach oversimplifies local, national, regional, ethnical, or religious cultures and traditions. Beck (2006, 2011) also suggested that globalization has given rise to risks which cannot be managed by adopting a national outlook irrespective of research design, institutional design or policy making. To handle the many risks in the global age, we should adopt a 'both/and' logic that involves a cosmopolitan empathy in the sense that we should view global risks as both an opportunity and a threat, recognize local/national differences, acknowledge the impossibility of living in a world without borders and insist on a mélange principle interpenetrating local, national, ethnic, religious and cosmopolitan cultures and traditions (Beck, 2006, p. 7). Under these principles, hence, there should be a fundamental transformation from a national outlook to a cosmopolitan vision, which emphasizes a global sense or a sense of borderlessness in analyzing and countering social problems (Beck, 2011, pp. 28-30). Although cosmopolitanism is revitalized in recent years, it has never come in handy in social sciences. This is because the concept is seen as a philosophical denial, which is more like "a task, a conscious and voluntary choice, clearly the affair of an elite, a top-down issue" (Beck, 2011, pp. 18-19). Nevertheless, Beck (2011) argued that the contemporary global interconnectivity uncovers "really existing cosmopolitization" (p. 18). He noted that as we are witnessing the disappearance of borders in different aspects of human life and activities that unfolds the reality of cosmopolitization, this new cosmopolitanism is not a utopian ideal but a reflexive practice to deal with global risks (pp. 19-25).

This thesis leads us to critically reflect on the current internationalization process in higher education, which can be seen as a response to the risks caused by globalization. Indeed, internationalization of higher education is aimed to cope with the globalized academic environment by altering higher education policies and adopting new practices in universities (Altbach & Knight, 2007). As a consequence, policy makers, university administrators, and academics have to place their focus of work on national, inter-/trans-national and global issues so as to prove their international standing and even to pursue a world leading position. For instance, internationalization of higher education is interpreted as a response to the rise of the knowledge economy in the global era. Therefore, we have witnessed that while the pursuit of excellence is frequently used as an agenda for internationalizing higher education, commodification and consumerism have simultaneously become the predominant discourse of internationalization of higher education in East Asia (Chan & Lo, 2008). However,

borrowing Beck's ideas of a cosmopolitan vision and his call for a cosmopolitan turn in social sciences, we argue that the internationalization process in Hong Kong's higher education is a task without a vision. The characteristics of the current process of internationalization show that it is somewhat an economic instrument for neoliberalization and a political instrument for mainland-Hong Kong integration rather than a practice for an cosmopolitan end highlighting the development of diversity consciousness, planetary citizenship and the enhancement of intercultural competence that enable both local and non-local students to engage with cultural diversity (Bucher, 2011; Haigh, 2008; Stier, 2006). This instrumentalist approach has sparked off some tensions between locals and non-locals. It is apparent that the global risks have not been properly managed by the internationalization initiatives, turning into threats as opposed to opportunities. In the following discussion, we will further use cosmopolitanism to help us reflect on the current mission of internationalization in Hong Kong's higher education. Meanwhile, cosmopolitanism also serves as a normative concept to rectify internationalization of higher education in the city-state. But, before that, let us sketch the historical background of internationalization of higher education in Hong Kong.

3   The Context for Internationalization of Higher Education in Hong Kong

Turning to the context of internationalization, we should not overleap the colonial influence on Hong Kong's education system on the ground that the development of higher education is greatly influenced by its colonial history. For instance, English is taken as the medium of instruction in universities. Meanwhile, the majority of faculty members earned their qualifications from English-speaking countries. These can be seen as the competitive edge of the higher education sector in Hong Kong when responding to the call for internationalization. In 1993, the University and Polytechnic Grants Committee (UPGC) (1993) published an interim report titled "Higher Education 1991-2001," in which the committee put emphasis on the investment in world-class higher education institutions (HEIs) and the recruitment of overseas students. Although the UPGC did not define the term "internationalization" in the document, this publication marked the beginning of internationalization in Hong Kong's higher education (Lee, 2010). Later, the UPGC was renamed to the University Grants Committee (UGC) and published another report "Higher Education in Hong Kong" in 1996. The report notes that universities should recruit more international academics, increase the ratio of non-local undergraduate and postgraduate students, and strengthen the cooperation

with other HEIs both in mainland China and foreign countries (University Grants Committee [UGC], 1996). All these can be seen as steps toward internationalization. At the meantime, Hong Kong higher education underwent a wave of expansion during the period of transition in the 1990s. Several postsecondary institutions were upgraded to universities.[1] In turn, eights HEIs have been funded by UGC and the participation rate for undergraduates aged between 17 and 20 hence surged from 2% in the 1970s to 18% in government-funded programs in the late 1990s (UGC, 1996).

As for the reforms in the post-1997 era, higher education, on the one hand, has been further expanded through marketization and privatization. Indeed, the former Chief Executive Tung Chee-hwa (2000) set a target of increasing the participation rate of tertiary education to 60% by the 2010/2011 academic year. However, as this policy goal has been reached by market-led providers rather than UGC-funded ones, we have witnessed commodification of higher education in Hong Kong. We will elaborate on this point further below. On the other, the number of non-local students has been increasing after 1997. Tung (1997) in his maiden policy address kept pushing the internationalization process by reinforcing cross-cultural learning, doubling the proportion of non-local undergraduates to 4%, increasing the percentage of non-local research students from one-fifth to one-third and recruiting outstanding mainland Chinese students. Later in 2004, Tung has promulgated the notion of developing Hong Kong as a regional education hub. He explicitly pointed out that "apart from catering for local needs, they (Hong Kong's education, medical and health care services, added by the authors) can be further developed into industries to serve people in the Mainland and elsewhere in Asia. We will study how our immigration and related policies may support such development" (Tung, 2004, para. 32). This policy goal was echoed by the UGC (2004) in the report "Hong Kong Higher Education: To Make a Difference, To Move with the Times" which indicated that the population of non-local students would continue to grow. Tung's successor Tsang Yam-kuen (2009) continued the policy by taking educational services as one of the six pillar industries serving the goal of "enhancing Hong Kong's status as a regional education hub, boosting Hong Kong's competitiveness and complementing the

future development of the Mainland" (Tsang, 2009, para. 26). More importantly, he further noted that "the self-financing higher education sector has room for further expansion and is an important component of education services," and "developing our education services will bolster the pluralistic, international and professional outlook of Hong Kong, and make the best use of social resources in the non-government sector to provide more opportunities for local students to pursue degree education" (Tsang, 2009, para. 28). The government believed that Hong Kong had a competitive advantage in higher education, which could attract students across the region, especially those from mainland China (Task Force on Economic Challenge [TFEC], 2009a, 2009b; Tsang, 2011). Again, the government's goal was echoed by the UGC (2010) in its report "Aspirations for the Higher Education System in Hong Kong," in which the strategies for internationalization were discussed and emphasized. As for the recruitment of non-local students, it recommended that universities enroll 20% in undergraduate programs in its subsidized institutions. It also defined the education hub strategy as "a policy of investment in the competitive knowledge economy by providing educational services to a population that is non-local with a strong emphasis on inward pull" (UGC, 2010, p. 54). According to UGC's (2010) interpretation of the education hub strategy, while the income generating potential of building an education hub was addressed, emphasis was put on promoting an integration of international students with local students at the campus level and maintenance of an international mix of the faculty in universities, thereby enhancing the international reputations and visibility of Hong Kong's universities.

4   The Internationalization Initiatives

The above contextual section briefly illustrates how Hong Kong has experienced a transformation under the tide of internationalization of higher education. This transformation is highly associated with commodification and the notion of positioning Hong Kong as a regional education hub. These two reforms are considered the causes of tensions in the implementation process of internationalization. In this section, we turn to look at these two policy initiatives.

4.1 Commodification of Higher Education

As mentioned, the government intended to increase the participation rate of secondary school leavers in tertiary education to 60%. Since then, there was a dramatic increase in postsecondary enrollment rates. In the 2005/06 academic year, the figure doubled from merely 33% in 2000/01 to

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[1] The Hong Kong Polytechnic, City Polytechnic of Hong Kong and Hong Kong Baptist College were turned into The Hong Kong Polytechnic University (PolyU), City University of Hong Kong (CityU) and Hong Kong Baptist University (HKBU) respectively in 1994. Additionally, the government provided funding for two tertiary institutions. The former Lingnan College, re-named Lingnan University (LU) in 1999, came under the remit of UGC in 1991 and the Hong Kong Institute of Education (HKIEd) was also granted by public funding in 1996.

66% (Education and Manpower Bureau [EMB], 2006). This means that the policy goal has been reached five years earlier than expected.

Nevertheless, this massificaition is not ascribed to increasing government-funded programs but to following the neoliberal trend by diversifying the provision through marketization. Indeed, the rapid expansion of self-funded professional higher diploma courses and associate degrees are the main cause for the massification of higher education. We hence have witnessed that a number of community colleges have been established to provide these programs over the past few years (Yung, 2002). Until now, 27 accredited institutions have offered self-financing post-secondary courses (Information Portal for Accredited Self-financing Post-secondary Programmes [iPASS], 2013a). It is noteworthy that all the UGC-funded institutions have joined this new market via establishing their community colleges or continuing education units.

Due to the expansion of the sub-degree sector, the supply of post-secondary programs has gone up considerably. In the 2001/02 academic year, there were 38 full-time accredited self-financing higher diploma and associate degree courses. In the following years, the figure saw an eight-fold upward trend, reaching 315 programs in 2012/13 (iPASS, 2013b). Apart from the supply side, the government has simultaneously stimulated the demand of the programs by stressing the importance of higher education in knowledge-based economy and recognizing the qualification of self-financing post-secondary programs (iPASS, 2013c). It also provided a package of financial assistance schemes, including means-tested grants, non-means-tested/low interest loans and travel allowance (Student Financial Assistance Agency [SFAA], 2013). As a consequence, the number of associate degree students and higher diploma students has rocketed from 3,132 and 5,163 in 2001/02 to 27,822 and 23,974 in 2011/12 (see Figure 1).

On top of self-funded professional diploma courses and associate degrees, certain UGC-funded institutions have joined the market by offering degree programs on a self-financing basis. Most self-financing students in these institutions were graduated from community colleges because there have been scarce UGC-funded spaces for enrolling sub-degree or higher diploma graduates. This causes an articulation problem and these students could only study on a self-financing basis (Kemper, 2010). This means that they have to pay a higher tuition fee than those
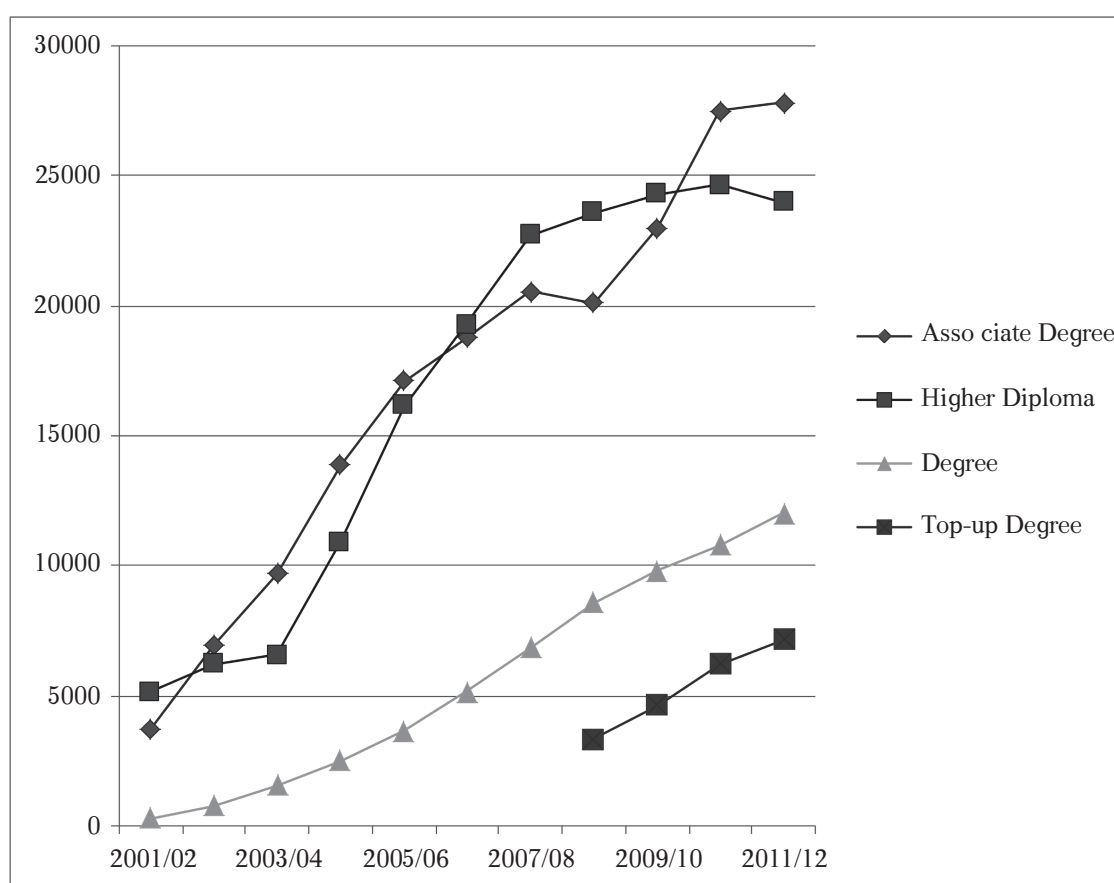

Figure 1 Number of Full-Time Accredited Self-Financing Post-Secondary Students

Source: iPASS (2013d).
Note: The number of Top-up Degree contains enrolment of degree programs with senior year intakes and is available since the year 2008/09.

in the public-funded programs. In other words, higher education as a commodity is more affordable for those who are wealthier, thus institutionalizing economic inequality and deepening the tensions between the rich and the poor.

Meanwhile, given that different universities have their own policies on deciding the tuition fee of self-financing students, UGC-funded institutions have also widened the tuition gap between local and non-local students in recent years. Though the government allowed increasing the enrollment rate of non-local students to 20%, non-local students have to pay a higher tuition fee. As depicted in Table 1, the level of tuition fee that non-local students pay varies from HK$135,000 per academic year to HK$100,000 annually, while there is a standardized tuition fee of HK$42,100 for local students. Though higher education is internationalizing, a local boundary has seemingly been set up by tuition fee.[2]

4.2 Expanding the Population of Non-local Students

As said, the Hong Kong government announced the policy of developing the city into a regional education hub in 2004. Since then, there has been a significant upward trend in the number of non-local students in UGC-funded programs from 1,239 persons to 10,770 between 1996/97 and 2011/12 (see Figure 2). And, the ratio of non-local students also grew up from 1% to 14% during the period. Though there is no systemic census conducted by iPASS or Education Bureau, the Education Commission Working Group reported that the number of non-local students has reached to about 7,772 at 7% (see Table 2). It is also noteworthy that that nearly one-fifth of students in postgraduate courses are non-locals. These are the most

popular type of course in self-financed programs. Based on these figures, it seems that the government and universities are successful to attract more international students in Hong Kong.

However, the origin of non-local students has to be taken into consideration. As illustrated in Figure 2, most of the inbound students are mainland Chinese students. The number increased remarkably from barely 791 in 1996/97 to 8,936 in 2011/12. From 2000/01 onwards, the ratio of mainland Chinese students has accounted for over 80%. In fact, the UGC (2004) considered Hong Kong's strong links with mainland China the strong competitive edge of Hong Kong over its regional competitors, and tapping into the Chinese market is seen as a way of developing the city into an education hub (also see Lai & Maclean, 2011). As a result, mainland Chinese students have dominated the inflow of non-local students. Nevertheless, even though mainland Chinese students are seen as non-local students in Hong Kong, there are commentaries saying that expanding the recruitment of students from the mainland is a policy against the goal of internationalizing Hong Kong's higher education. In accordance with these commentaries, this strategy of education hub would only contribute to "mainlandization" of local universities (Lai & Maclean, 2011).

We argue that Hong Kong is facing a dilemma in the expansion of the admission of non-local students. On the one hand, mainland China is at the top of the major home countries international students. According to the latest statistics, there were 562,889 Chinese students studying abroad in 2010 (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization [UNESCO], 2012). It is anticipated

Table 1 Annual Tuition Fee for Local and Non-Local Students in UGC-Funded Programs

Name of UGC-funded institutions	Annual tuition Fee for non-local students (2012/13)	Annual tuition fee for local students (2012/13)
The University of Hong Kong	HK$135,000	HK$42,100
The Chinese University of Hong Kong	HK$120,000	HK$42,100
City University of Hong Kong	HK$120,000	HK$42,100
Hong Kong Baptist University	HK$110,000	HK$42,100
Lingnan University	HK$110,000	HK$42,100
The Hong Kong Institute of Education	HK$100,000	HK$42,100
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University	HK$100,000	HK$42,100
The University of Science and Technology	HK$100,000	HK$42,100

Sources: City University of Hong Kong [CityU] (2013); Hong Kong Baptist University [HKBU] (2013); Lingnan University [LU] (2013); The Chinese University of Hong Kong [CUHK] (2013); The Hong Kong Institute of Education [HKIE] (2013); The Hong Kong Polytechnic University [PolyU] (2013); The Hong Kong University of Science and Technology [HKUST] (2013); The University of Hong Kong [HKU] (2013).
Note: Inapplicable to double degrees.

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[2] Nonetheless, of many mainland Chinese students, most consider that financing cross-border was not a major concern (Bodycott & Lai, 2012).
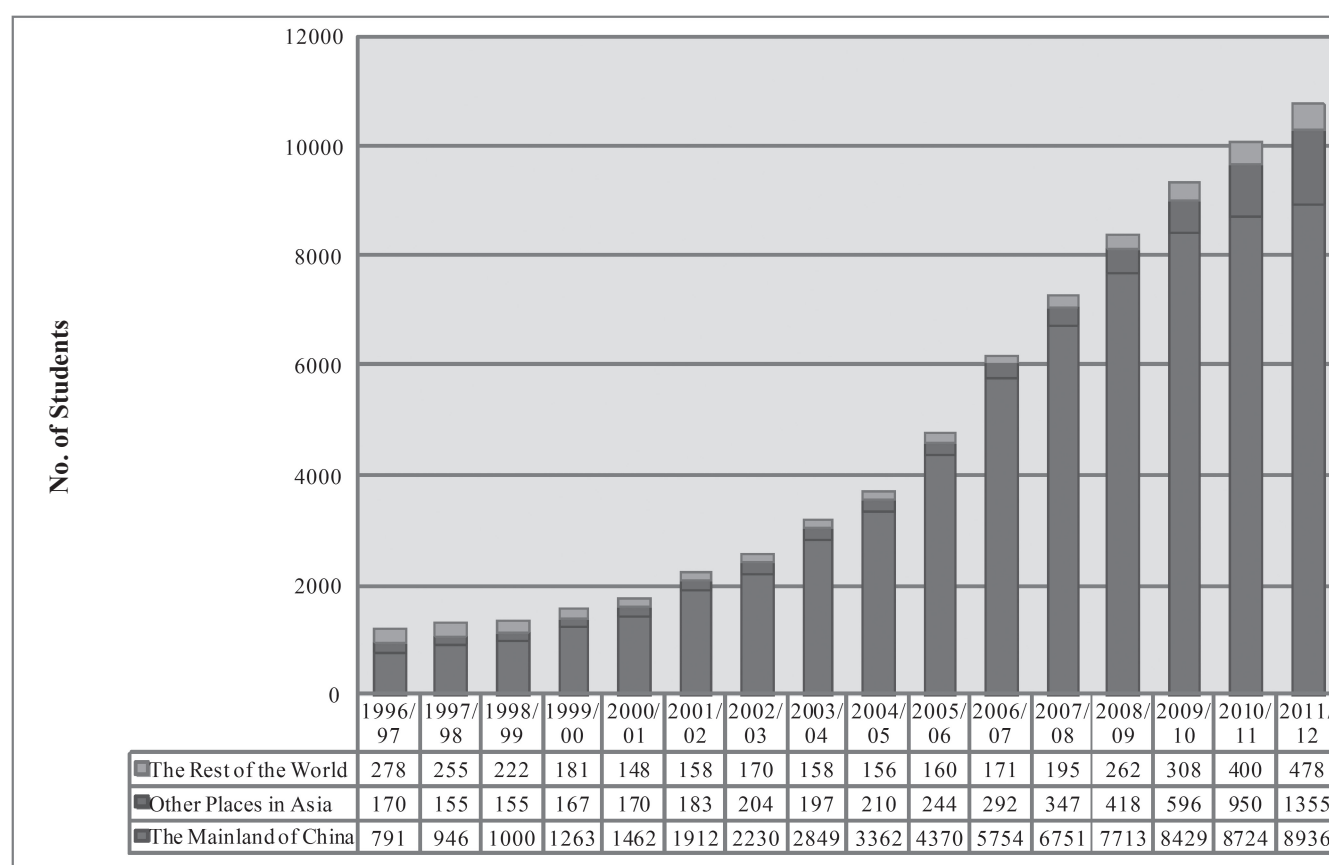
Figure 2 Number of Non-Local Enrolments in UGC-Funded Institutions by Source of Origin

Source: UGC (2013).

Note: Both full-time and part-time students studying undergraduate, postgraduate and sub-degree levels are included.

Table 2 The Number of Non-Local Student for Self-Financing Post-Secondary Program for the 2010/11 Academic Year

Level of study	No. of non-local students	Total student population	% of non-local students
Sub-degree (full-time)	510	52,154	1%
Undergraduate (full-time)	501	17,019	3%
Taught postgraduate (full-time and part-time)	6,761	35,351	19%
Total	7,772	104,524	7%

Source: Education Commission Working Group (2011).

that the country will remain the major source country for the next decade (Banks, Olsen, & Pearce, 2007). This implies that mainland China is a market that Hong Kong's higher education sector cannot afford to abandon. In fact, Hong Kong is an attractive option for mainland Chinese students on account of having a geographical proximity, permanent residents, high quality of competitively priced education and shared Confusion cultural heritage (Bodycott, 2009). We have thus witnessed that the higher education sectors in the two societies have developed a closer relationship in recent years. For instance, in 2004,

the Memorandum of Understanding between the Mainland and Hong Kong on Mutual Recognition of Academic Degrees in Higher Education was signed. This marks that the border between the higher education systems in the two societies has been blurred. In 2005, universities in Hong Kong began to enroll mainland Chinese students through the "national university and college admission system." All these developments possibly reflect a process of "market integration" (Li, 2011).

On the other hand, we recognize that there is a growing anti-mainland Chinese sentiment in Hong Kong

in recent years. Despite the fact that Hong Kong has been intensifying its connections and integration with the Chinese mainland after 1997, its anxiety over threats and competitions from mainland China gets deeper. This paradoxical situation can be explained by the historical and political context in which Hong Kong is culturally and politically distinct from the Chinese mainland. Also importantly, some people in Hong Kong believe that the increasing inflow of mainland Chinese visitors and immigrants would impose burden on social welfare system and unfair competition for goods and services.[3] The recent shortages of hospital beds for local pregnant women and of formulae for local babies caused by mainlanders' demand somewhat exemplify and spread the anxiety. This perception of Hong Kong's continuous integration into the mainland explains the critics on mainlandization of Hong Kong's higher education. As a consequence, the internationalization policy is widely perceived as a factor undermining the opportunity for local students to study in universities, due to the substantial growth in the number of non-local students, especially those from the mainland China, under the policy. Particularly, this notion is strengthened by the recent statistics of research postgraduate in UGC-funded programs. That is, since the year 2007/08, mainland Chinese postgraduate students have outnumbered the local ones. In fact, in the year 2011/12, the proportion of these mainland Chinese students made up over 65%, compared to around 27% of local students (UGC, 2013). The large proportion of mainland Chinese students in turn deepen the tensions and conflict between Hong Kong and mainland China, as there is a perception among local students that non-local students are a drain on Hong Kong's education service.

5 Rethinking the Mission of Internationalization of Higher Education

The concept of internationalization has been widely discussed in higher education in recent years. According to Knight (2003), internationalization is "the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education" (p. 3). This broadly cited definition indicated that "cultural diversity" and "the sense of worldwide scope" should be adopted as the core ideas driving the internationalization process and practices at academic systems and institutions (Knight, 2003, 2004).

Haigh (2008) considered that the aim of internationalization of higher education should be to produce "citizens that feel at home," so it is imperative to promote "planetary citizenship." Ng (2011) further added that it represented a commitment to the development of an internationalized curriculum stressing the pursuit of global citizenship, human harmony and a climate of global peace. Coate and Rathnayake (2013) offered a philosophical approach based on care, responsibility and cosmopolitanism. These normative analyses are helpful in illustrating an idealist account of internationalization of higher education (Stier, 2004, 2010).

However, despite the awareness of these idealist goals of internationalization of higher education, we should admit that, higher education governance at both levels of national policy-making and institutional management is in reality inevitably affected or even determined by instrumentalist motivations, including political and economic ones. Hence, when we look at internationalization in Hong Kong's higher education, we should not overlook the importance of the two key factors, namely education as an industry and mainland-Hong Kong integration. The idea of education as an industry can be seen as a response to the global trend of neoliberalization and reflects that exporting education is taken as a way of increasing the income of governments and universities. Yet, following this instrumentalistic interpretation of internationalization, the idealistic process of internationalization "is impeded by management systems that take commerce as their model" and internationalization is adjusted to be merely "about income generation for cash-strapped higher education institutes" (Haigh, 2008, p. 427). Indeed, this form of internationalization blindly comes after the hegemonic definition associating with neoliberalism and global capitalism which is far from a practice for a cosmopolitan end. The notion of mainland-Hong Kong integration rationalizes the phenomenon of mainlandization by recognizing the rapid pace of integration between Hong Kong and mainland China after the handover. This however has led to query about how a homogenized, mainlandized Hong Kong's higher education sector can achieve "cultural diversity" and "the sense of worldwide scope." In the meantime, this form of internationalization deepens the tension between Hongkongers and mainland Chinese, which ends up walking into an opposite road to a cosmopolitan direction.

Nevertheless, Beck's (2011) thesis of cosmopolitization reminds us the importance of a cosmopolitan vision in achieving these idealist goals of internationalization of higher education. Obviously, the political and economic imperatives of internationalization illustrated are founded on a national outlook emphasizing an "either/or" logic. Thus, following this methodological nationalism

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[3] Under the implementation of Individual Visit Scheme since 2003, mainland travelers could visit Hong Kong on an individual base. This further facilities mainland-Hong Kong integration and provides an opportunity for parallel goods traders to snap up daily necessities.

mechanically, we inevitably come to an analysis of the tension between "us" and "them." However, Beck's emphasis on a "both/and" logic, referring to a translocal/transnational perspective, and suggestion of methodological cosmopolitanism shed light on the possibilities of formulating a cosmopolitan agenda for internationalization of higher education. That is, an agenda recognizes national differences and acknowledges the impossibility of living in a global society without walls, but simultaneously develops a cosmopolitan vision which stresses sense of boundarylessness, engaging with cultural diversity and interconnectness of national societies in higher education sector.

Importantly, we recognize that Hong Kong, as a city-state but a special administrative region of China, provides a special example of imagining "national community" and of the implementation of cosmopolitization. On the one hand, Hong Kong's territorial, social, cultural, and political borders exist and distinguish it as a city-state from the rest of China. This feature highlights the relevance of the concepts of "borders" and "national outlook" in examining the cross-border student flow and the policy of exporting higher education services in Hong Kong. On the other hand, Hong Kong is in fact part of China. This circumstance alters the cause of tension from "nationalism versus transnationalism" to "localism and nationalism." Nevertheless, we believe that this special feature would not undermine the feasibility of cosmopolitization. The reasons are twofold. For one thing, Beck's methodological cosmopolitanism indeed incorporates local, translocal, national, and transnational focuses. For another, nation-state is still a container model in the transition from national to transnational analyses. Admittedly, Hong Kong and mainland China share many common interests. So, this would not undermine the value of the process of cosmopolitization. By contrast, by pointing out the tensions and risks induced by the current internationalization process of higher education, it is believed that it would enhance the probability of this reflexive practice.

6   Conclusion

We began this study with a commitment to the transnational perspective on the development of higher education. In this regard, although we recognize that internationalization of higher education in Hong Kong involves many political and economic interests (including profit-making, talent competition as well as welfare competition), we do not consider cosmopolitan approach an ideal but an innovative alternative in analyzing and implementing internationalization. Indeed, the issues revealed in our analysis show the tensions between Hong

Kong and the Chinese mainland, which are sharpened and formed on the basis of the concepts of "border" and "national community." However, it is obvious that it is impossible for us to abandon "national perspective" and "national sphere" in a short period of time. Yet, we feel obligated to investigate and promote this cosmopolitan vision for internationalization of higher educationr, because , cosmopolitization in our view is not a paradigm shift in research only, but also a multidimensional process which could be applied in the higher education sector. Beck put forward a cosmopolitan vision in doing research in social sciences, aiming at avoiding the overgeneralization of social theories simply constructed by some research findings from western societies and in turn enhancing the quality of social scientific research in this global age. Likewise, facing many global risks in the higher education sector, the internationalization reforms were primitively expected to manage these global risks. Adopting a national perspective is by no means a proper way to manage these risks, but right to the contrary turns them into some threats and tensions instead of opportunities for developing diversity consciousness, enhancing intercultural competence, recognizing planetary citizenship and formulating a cosmopolitan curriculum. We believe that through critically reflecting the internationalization of higher education, we could figure out the root of current threats and tensions, highlight the importance of a cosmopolitan vision, accelerate the process of cosmopolitization, actualize the reflexive practice and eventually bring the educational perspective back to education.

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The Role of Information on Overseas Higher Education in East Asia: The Views of Mainland Chinese High School Students

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Abstract

Since late 1990s, more and more mainland Chinese high school students go and study abroad. Based on a questionnaire survey of 12,961 high school students in mainland China in 2007, the study investigates students' demand for overseas higher education in East Asia as well as their evaluation of relevant information on and information channels for overseas higher education. It is found that high school students have demands for overseas higher education in East Asia, and they tend to choose popular majors in either home country or host countries/regions. Students tend to focus on the important information on overseas higher education such as the quality and cost, and they evaluate internet, family and relatives, educational administration departments as helpful channels in the search of information.

Keywords: overseas study, mainland China, East Asia, information

1 Introduction

China has become the largest sending countries of overseas students all over the world (Organisation for Economic Co-Operation and Development [OECD], 2011; United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization [UNESCO], 2009). In 2007, 421,148 overseas students at tertiary education worldwide are from China, and the number is still growing. From 2000 to 2011, it grew from 38,989 to 339,700, with mean annual growth rate of over 23% (National Bureau of Statistics of People's Republic of China, 2012, p. 753), and the top five host countries are USA, Japan, Australia, United Kingdom and Germany (UNESCO, 2009, p. 143).

Besides a rapid growth rate, the pattern of demand for overseas higher education in mainland China has also been changing from elite to mass education since the early 21st century (Wang, Miao, & Cheng, 2009). Before the 21st century, especially in the 1980s and early 1990s, students who were able to study abroad were intellectual elites or/and wealthy elites. Intellectual elites were excellent in

academic so they could obtain state-sponsored scholarship or scholarship offered by overseas universities. Wealthy elites were those from a small number of wealthy families. In the 1980s and 1990s, only several thousand students annually were able to study abroad with financial support from the state. Most of them finished their domestic undergraduate study before going abroad for postgraduate degrees. Since the end of the 20th century, more and more students have studied abroad self-financedly and many of them came from ordinary middle and lower social classes. In 2011, 314,800 mainland Chinese studied abroad at their own expense, covering 92.67% of the total population of overseas mainland students at the same year (Ministry of Education, People's Republich of China, 2012). Age cohort is also changing; more and more high school graduates go abroad directly for undergraduate education. In 2009, about 26,000 students from mainland China went to USA for undergraduate study; the number is about twice more than that in 2008 (Wang & Guo, 2012).

In higher education market, there is a world trend of marketization and internationalization. In East Asian region, national leaders, education ministers and university presidents call for the building of world-class universities and they also use higher education to open and cross borders. Border-crossing, including flow of international students, becomes part of the strategy to offset demographic effects, strengthen statehood, and deepen international alliance (Chapman, Cummings, & Postiglione, 2010, p. 3; Mok, 2000; Yonezawa, 2002).

Facing an international higher education market, students need to search for and select useful information for their rational choice. This paper attempts to investigate the demand for overseas higher education in East Asia by high school students in mainland China, especially how they perceive various kinds of information and different channels of obtaining related information during their search for overseas higher education. There are six sessions in this paper. Following the introduction, the second session discusses theoretical framework of relationship between information and choice of higher education. The third session describes some public channels for people in mainland China to search and obtain information on

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overseas education. After describing data and method in the fourth, findings and discussion are presented in the fifth session. Finally conclusions and implications are drawn.

2   Theoretical Framework: Information and Choice of Higher Education

2.1 Information Failure in Higher Education Market

Information is costly; it takes time, energy and money to acquire information. The uncertainty of information leads to the incompleteness and failure of information market (Stiglitz, 2001). In higher education, there are two kinds of information market failures. The first one is embedded within the nature of higher education. Individuals are willing to invest in higher education when they assume that education may bring them better monetary and non-monetary benefits (Becker, 1993). However, it is impossible for individuals to accurately predict their learning experience in higher education institutions and future labor market they are going to enter. In a segmented labor markets, it is even harder to predict private return of education (DeFreitas, 1995; Rosen, 1995). Such information failure is embedded within individual choice of higher education since individual has to make a decision on whether to pursue higher education before they have exact information on their personal experience of higher education learning and future labor market.

However, students may predict indirectly their higher education experience and their future competitiveness in labor market according to reputation and quality of higher education institutions they intend to enroll in. A study (Ding, 2004) on employment status of university graduates of 45 universities in seven provinces of mainland China finds that universities with better reputation/quality (for example key universities) may bring individuals more and better human capital and social networks, and thus better acquisition of labor market information and competiveness than their counterparts in ordinary/non-key universities and colleges.

The other kind of information failure comes from ignorance of important information by both suppliers and demanders. From supplier side, some higher education institutions may not realize the importance of information dissemination, or not be able to do information dissemination for cost consideration, or try to hide some information or even provide false information for profit-making purpose. On the other hand, demanders, or students, may not realize the importance of information searching and cannot obtain accurate information from market. Studies in Cyprus and Greece (Menon, 2004; Menon & Saiti, 2007) investigate student's information searching activities before they make choice of private higher education. Both studies find that only half of students can be considered

as "information searcher," and the other half may not do any effective information search beforehand. Factors of social economic status and student's consideration of the importance of higher education decision have significant effects on their activities of information searching. Another study (Zhan & Chung, 2006) in mainland China also finds that high school students in general do not acquire accurate information of *mianban*/private colleges in mainland China though they intend to apply for *mianban*/private higher education after graduation. Family and individual characteristics, such as family income, parent educational levels, and student's academic levels, are found to have significant effects on student's acquisition of relevant information. A survey study on student's choice of overseas higher education in mainland China in 2007 (Zhan & Hung, 2010) finds that students' main concerns lie on the quality and cost, and student's acquisition of relevant information can significantly affect their demand for overseas higher education.

2.2 "Deterministic" or "Noisy" Information

In knowledge-based economy, besides the creation of knowledge, its diffusion and use is also of great importance for the success of enterprises and institutions. Nowadays, as access to information becomes easier and less expensive, selection and efficient use of information becomes more and more essential (Organisation for Economic Co-Operation and Development [OECD], 1996, p.13). Thus, what kind of information may help individuals to make a rational decision? It may be related to the purpose of individual choice. Individuals may make decision according to information signals. Some information may have a deterministic function, and thus is called "deterministic" or "noiseless information." Other information may not have such a function, but quite to the contrary disturb the decision-making process and therefore is called "noisy information" (McGuire, 1972). With different roles and purposes, individuals may have different choices and usages of various kinds of information.

2.3 Information Channel and Individual Choice in Education

Information searching is costly; individuals from various backgrounds may use different channels to search for information. In the field of education, Schneider (2001) investigates the relationship between information channels and parents' school choice for their children in four school districts in New York City and New Jersey State in USA. She classifies three main channels for parents' information searching. They are personal channels such as relatives and friends, intermediate channels like school teachers, school administration and community centers, and internet

channels. Schneider finds that parents with high educational levels are more likely to use personal information channels which are relatively cheap and accurate, while parents with low educational levels, for example black and some other ethnic minority families, may have to search for information through intermediate and public channels which may be more expensive and inaccurate. Especially for the use of internet in information searching, Schneider concludes that it may lead to social inequality and "digital segregation." Borrowing Schneider's research method, Zhan (2004) studies relationship between information and high school students' choice of *minban* higher education in mainland China. With factor analysis, she classifies student's information channels into two main types, namely 1) personal channel with information from family members and relatives, friends and classmates, schools and school teachers, and 2) institutional channel with information from public media, internet, university promotion activities and educational administration departments. It is also found that mainland students take into account information from institutional channels more than that from personal channels, and the more students consider the importance of the two channels, the more accurate information on *minban* higher education they may obtain. Therefore, it may be concluded that information channels are essential for individual choice in education; channels of information searching may have great impact on the costs and accuracy of information obtained.

In sum, information is important for individual's decision making, including people's choice of higher education. In higher education market, some information failure results from uncertainty embedded in the nature of information market, while some information failure may be overcome by student's searching for and obtaining "deterministic information." Information is costly. Facing an international higher education market, it is important yet challenging for students to become active information searchers so as to make rational choices. Besides student's demand for overseas higher education in East Asia, this study focuses on student's perceptions about various kinds of information and information channels relevant to overseas higher education.

3 Formal/Public Channels of Information Searching for Overseas Higher Education in Mainland China

Information channels are important for individual information searching and decision-making (Schneider, 2001; Zhan, 2004). In addition to some informal and personal channels such as family members, relatives, friends and alumni, there are various formal and public channels that students in mainland China may use for their search of information on overseas higher education. Three kinds of public channels are to be described, including websites of host higher education institutions, intermediate agencies for overseas study, and education exhibitions organized by Chinese Service Center for Scholarly Exchange.

3.1 Websites of Host Higher Education Institutions

With development of internet technology, university website is one of the best ways for international universities and colleges to expose their information to potential students and their families. The university websites provide various kinds of information, especially on admission policies. The paper focuses on mainland Chinese students' choice of overseas higher education in East Asian region, and four key universities are chosen (see Table 1). All four universities provide admission information on their websites.

Language of the website is also important for potential students. Language of instruction has already been considered one of the key factors that may affect student's choice of overseas higher education. In many cases, English is assumed to be the most international language for higher education instruction, and many institutions in some non-English speaking countries also offer some, if

Table 1 Information Provided on Websites of Some Key Universities in East Asia

Universities	Admission Information for International Students	Languages of the Websites			
		English	Chinese	Native Language[a]	Other Language(s)
National University of Singapore	Yes	Yes	Yes	-	No
Seoul National University	Yes	Yes	No	Yes (Korean)	No
Tokyo University	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes (Japanese)	Yes (Korean)
University of Hong Kong	Yes	Yes	Yes	-	No

Source: Websites of universities listed in the table.
Note: [a] If native language is other than English or Chinese.

not all, programs for international students (OECD, 2011, pp. 321-323). As shown in Table 1, all listed universities have English version websites. What is worth noting is that some universities also have Chinese version website even if Chinese is not their mother tongue (as the case of Tokyo University). In this case it is convenient for Chinese students and their families to learn and get relevant information on overseas universities they are interested in.

3.2 Intermediate Agencies for Overseas Study

For many mainland high school students and their families, intermediate agencies for overseas study may help them obtain useful information, not only on major choices, admission requirements, application procedure or more generally, life in receiving universities and host countries/regions, but also on visa application and many others. In particular, with more and more students studying abroad on their own within the past two decades, the number of intermediate agencies grows very fast. It is estimated that in 2004 about 60% of self-financed students went abroad for further studies through services provided by those intermediate agencies (Ministry of Education, People's Republic of China, 2004).

The size and quality of those agencies are different. In order to protect rights of students and their families, in August 1999, central government issued two regulations, including *Administrative Regulation of Intermediate Agencies for Self-financed Overseas Study* and *Implementation Rules for Administrative Regulation of Intermediate Agencies for Self-financed Overseas Study (Trial)*. Based on these two documents, intermediate agencies for self-financed overseas study should be approved by national authorities. By August 17, 2012, there are 448 legal intermediate agencies in mainland China, most of which are located in eastern and coastal regions (Regulating Information on Overseas Education, Ministry of Education, People's Republic of China, 2013).

However, despite government regulation, some intermediate agencies are still run without legal registration. Some of them may provide false information on overseas education and/or application procedure. As a consequence, a revised regulation titled "*Administrative Regulation of Intermediate Agencies for Self-financed Overseas Study (For Comments)*" has been released to the public for comments and feedbacks in October 2012 (Zhao, 2013).

Intermediate agencies provide detailed and individualized information service for students and their families who are interested in overseas higher education. However, some of them are also "noisy" or even false information providers. That said, how to regulate those intermediate agencies for a healthy information market becomes an emerging issue.

3.3 Education Exhibitions Organized by Chinese Service Center for Scholarly Exchange

Student mobility has become a global trend. Chinese government has been promoting overseas study since the 1980s. In the 1980s and 1990s governments directly support and send academic elites to study abroad. Since late 1990s, when family becomes a major supporter for individual overseas study, government becomes a platform provider of information exchange. In 1999, China International Education Exhibition Tour (CIEET) was firstly organized by Chinese Service Center for Scholarly Exchange (CSCSE), a direct subsidiary of the Ministry of Education, People's Republic of China. It is a platform for host higher education institutions and students (and their parents) to meet in person so that the latter may ask and get information needed directly from the former.

For the past 13 years, 16 CIEETs have been held in over 30 cities in mainland China and over 1,300 overseas education institutions, mostly higher education institutions, participated. In March 2013 CIEET were held in seven cities, including Beijing, Shenyang, Xi'an, Shanghai, Hefei, Fuzhou and Guangzhou (see CIEET website: http://www.cieet.com/en/zh.asp). Among all the participants, there were many institutions from East Asia, including Japan, Singapore, South Korea, Hong Kong-China, Macao-China, Malaysia, and Thailand.

In sum, there are various channels students and their families use to access information on overseas higher education. These channels are either private intermediate agencies/companies, government-organized exhibitions, and host universities, or individual and personal networks. This research attempts to study how students who intend to study in other East Asian countries and regions evaluate various information channels, and on the basis of the findings provide a basic insight for regulating and improving information market of overseas higher education in mainland China, host universities and host countries and regions.

4   Data and Method

4.1 Data

The study is based on a quantitative survey. Data come from a project titled "Seeking Higher Education Abroad: Student's Choice and Reasons in Mainland China" (Hung, Lo, & Chung, 2007).

A stratified sampling method was used to select representative cases at city, school and class levels. First, three cities of Beijing, Shanghai and Shenzhen were selected for their rapid economic growth and large number of students who study abroad. Then the project selected representative cities from east, central and west

regions of mainland China, including Nanjing (capital city of an eastern province), Wuhan (capital city of a central province) and Xi'an (capital city of a western province). All the above six cities are either relatively economically and/or educationally well-developed within mainland China. Therefore, another western and poorer city, Guiyang (Capital city of a western province), was chosen for comparison. At school level, 15 schools were selected in each city, including six public key general high schools, five public non-key general high school, one (public) vocational school (there are few private vocational schools in mainland China), and three *minban*/private general high schools. 105 schools in total were selected for questionnaire survey. Finally three classes were selected within each school. All students in selected classes were asked to do the questionnaire survey. Curriculum tracking, class as well as school sizes in the aforementioned regions are quite different. The project tried to cover various types of classes; however, the final selections were subjects to negotiations between project team member and each participant school. Finally, the project conducted a student questionnaire survey to 12,961 senior high school students in 105 schools during March and April 2007. The student questionnaire survey was conducted within classroom under the supervision of class teachers and research project team members; all questionnaires filled out by participant students in the survey were effective for data analysis. If

all students in each class attended the questionnaire survey, the valid response rate can be considered as 100%.[1] Sample characteristics are shown in Table 2.

4.2 Method: Research Questions and Measures

Based on the data, the study uses descriptive statistics to answer research questions.

For the first research question on student's demand for overseas higher education, there is an item in student questionnaire, asking students "what is your priority choice of a host country or region if you have chance to go and study abroad for higher education," followed by a list of 16 countries and regions, together with a choice of "others" for students to choose form (see Table 3). Choices of study majors also matter, so there is another item asking students to select one favorite study major among 13 majors, together with a choice of "others" (see Table 4).

For the second research question on how students perceive the importance of various kinds of related information to overseas higher education, students were asked to rate a six-point scale (1 = very unimportant, 2 = unimportant, 3 = a little unimportant, 4 = a little important, 5 = important, 6 = very important) on various kinds of information (totally ten items are listed, see Table 5). A similar method is used for the third research question on student's evaluation of information channels (totally 11 items are listed, see Table 6).

Table 2 Sample Characteristics

Characteristic	% of Students	Characteristic	% of Students
City		School Type	
Beijing	14.0	Public, key and general[a]	53.8
Shanghai	13.6	Public, non-key and general	22.7
Shenzhen	14.5	Public and vocational	7.4
Nanjing	14.8	*Minban* and general	16.2
Wuhan	16.0	Class type	
Xi'an	14.1	Science	49.9
Guiyang	13.0	Liberal arts	38.8
Gender		Comprehensive/experimental	5.0
Male	46.7	Vocational/technical	5.3
Female	52.8	Missing	1.0
Missing	0.4	Total	100.0

Source: Hung et al. (2007).
Note: Total case number: 12,961.
    [a] Public key general high schools include key schools at provincial, city, and district levels.

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[1] The project team did not have total student number of each participant class. In some cases, if some students were not present during questionnaire survey, the actual response rate of the whole sample should be lower than 100%.

5   Findings and Discussion

5.1 Student's Intention for Overseas Higher Education in East Asia: Choice of Host Country/Region and Study Major

As shown in Table 3, countries and regions in North America and Western Europe are still the most popular host places of studying abroad for mainland students. USA is listed on the top; 17.7% students of the whole sample show their intention to pursue higher education in USA. Student's intention for studying in France, United Kingdom, Canada and Australia are also high, with respective percentages of 12.4%, 11.2%, 8.6% and 8.0%. As stated in the introduction of the paper, according to UNESCO statistics, the actual top five host countries for mainland overseas students in 2007 were USA, Japan, Australia, United Kingdom and Germany (UNESCO, 2009, p. 143). The findings of this research bear similarities in this regard. It implies a convergence trend of Chinese students' school choices when it comes to overseas study. But since not all high school students are able to go and study abroad, the ranking list may be a little different from the actual list. But still, with more families in mainland China capable of affording overseas study, a future trend for international higher education market for mainland students is to be seen.

Compared to those western and developed countries, student's intention for studying in East Asia is relatively small, but still quite a few of them choose countries and regions in this area. More than 6.0% of students choose Japan (6.7%), Singapore (6.7%) and Korea (6.3%) as their potential host countries. Also 3.8%, 0.5% and 0.2% of high school students in mainland China intend to study in Hong Kong-China, Malaysia and Macao-China, respectively. Though the percentage seems low, it is yet a large market concerning the large population of high school students in mainland China.

For its close geographical and historical connection with mainland China, Japan has been a popular host country for mainland Chinese students to pursue their degrees since late 19th century. As UNESCO statistics shows (UNESCO, 2009, p. 143), Japan is the second largest host country, following USA. From 2005 to 2011, the number stays relatively stable with around 80,000 annually. Chinese students are also the main source for international students in Japan, covering about 60% (OECD, 2011, p. 335; Wang & Guo, 2012, p. 81). It is not surprising that most students in the sample choose Japan in comparison to some other countries and regions in East Asia.

The number of mainland students who study in Singapore is growing since the early 21st century. In 2008, about 39,000 mainland Chinese studied in Singapore, and about half of them were at the ages of 21 to 25 (Wang & Guo, 2012, p. 89). Chinese culture environment, high degree of internationalization, relaxing visa and employment policies may be important reasons for mainland students to choose Singapore. It is for these same reasons that some students choose Hong Kong-China as their host region. Working opportunities for overseas graduates and charming overseas scholarships also attract international students to study in Singapore and Hong Kong (Wang & Guo, 2012; Zhan & Hung, 2010).

Since the early 21st century, Korea has been trying to bring in more international students with diverse strategies, such as lower costs, more scholarships, relaxing working visa policy and so on. The popularity of "Korea fashion" in mainland China is also one of the attractiveness (Tang, 2010). In 2009, international students from mainland China covered 78.6% of all international students in Korean higher education system (OECD, 2011, p. 335).

Only a very few students intend to study in Malaysia

Table 3 First Choice of Host Country/Region by High School Students in Mainland China

Host Country/Region	% of Students	Host Country/Region	% of Students
USA	17.7%	**HK SAR[a] (China)**	**3.8%**
France	12.4%	New Zealand	3.2%
UK	11.2%	Netherland	2.0%
Canada	8.6%	Finland	1.5%
Australia	8.0%	**Malaysia**	**0.5%**
Japan	**6.7%**	Russia	0.4%
Singapore	**6.7%**	**Macao SAR[a] (China)**	**0.2%**
Korea	**6.3%**	Others	5.1%
Germany	5.8%	Total	100.0%

Source: Hung et al. (2007).
Note: N = 12,961.
    [a] SAR refers to "Special Administrative Region;" HK SAR (China) will be HK-China in the following tables, for space saving.

(0.5%) and Macao (0.2%), so the following sessions of data analysis will not include them and will focus only on Japan, Singapore, Hong Kong-China and Korea.

As shown in Table 4, the study also investigates student's choices of study majors. It is found for all students who choose Japan, Singapore, Korea and HK-China, "Economics and Administration" comes to the first most popular study major. "Computer science and software engineering" is popular too; it is in fact either the second or the third popular study major with more than 10% of students considering it their first choice. In the 1980s, many Chinese students chose to major in science and technology; however, since late 1990s, with economic growth and social change, graduates in the fields of economics, administration and computer sciences were in great demand in mainland China, and "overseas returnees" (*Haigui*) in them enjoy relatively high salary and social reputation (Zhang, 2009). In 2009, more than half "overseas returnees" in mainland China majored in economics (33.4%) and administration (20.2%). However, with too many graduates in those majors from overseas and local universities and colleges in labor market, some returnees encountered salary reduction, if not unemployment, for a certain period of time (Li & Cheng, 2012; Zweig & Han, 2009).

Art and design are also popular among students who intend to study in Japan (13.9%) and Korea (16.4%), and social sciences are among students in favor of Singapore (13.1%) while medical science the first choice of many students who prefer to study in HK-China (9.1%). It seems that high school students in the sample consider majoring in the field with high reputation in host countries and regions. According to the information released by media or/ and intermediate agencies, art/design are competitive study

majors in both Japan and Korea, while in Japan animation and clothing design stand out (Xu, 2013) and in Korea interior design and arts are related to movies and TV shows (Tang, 2010). In HK-China, medical science enjoys a high reputation because of its high competitiveness and good career future guarantee.

In sum, concerning major choice, mainland students are more likely to choose hot fields in their home country or in their intended host country or region in the hope of better salary and promising career future after graduation.

5.2 Student's Consideration of Information on Overseas Higher Education in East Asia

In the student questionnaire, students were asked to rate the importance degree of 11 items concerning quality, teaching and learning, costs, qualifications, and employments and life in host countries and regions (see Table 5). Students' high ratings (with all mean values of over 4.0) imply that the above listed information is important for their choices of overseas higher education.

There are also some differences among students' consideration of various kinds of information. With factor analysis, all 11 items of the whole sample (12,961 students) are run into two factors, with Factor One of "information on quality and cost of overseas higher education" and Factor Two of "information on life and work in host place." Student's ratings of items in Factor One are relatively higher than those of Factor Two. Students ratings of seven items in Factor One are mostly over 5.00 and some nearly 5.00, while those of two items in Factor Two are around 4.50. It implies that for mainland high school students, information on quality and cost of overseas higher education comes before that on daily life or future

Table 4 Major Choices of High School Students in Mainland China

	Japan	Singapore	Korea	HK-China
Most popular	economics and administration (16.5%) [a]	economics and administration (27.3%)	economics and administration (19.0%)	economics and administration (32.0%)
Second popular	computer science and software engineering (16.3%)	social sciences (13.1%)	art and design (16.4%)	computer science and software engineering (10.9%)
Third popular	art and design (13.9%)	computer science and software engineering (10.0%)	computer science and software engineering (11.7%)	medical science (9.1%)
N	606	633	609	375

Source: Hung et al. (2007).

Note: Fourteen choices of study majors in the questionnaire are: Fundamental Sciences (such as mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology), Engineering, Computer Science and Software Engineering, Social Sciences (such as sociology, psychology, anthropology), Economics and Administration (such as economics, accounting, marketing), Humanities (such as literature, history, philosophy), Foreign Languages, Education, Medical Science, Law, Art and Design, Architecture, Journalism and Mass Communication, Others.

[a] number in the parentheses refers to percentage of students who share the same host country/region and same major choices.

Table 5 Importance Degree[a] of Related Information on Overseas Higher Education

Factors[b]	Information on: … of the host country/region	Japan	Singapore	Korea	HK-China
Factor One: Quality and cost of overseas higher education (52.20%)	(1) Educational quality	**5.13**	**5.18**	**5.18**	**5.32**
	(2) Educational characteristics/particularity	5.08	5.16	5.20	5.20
	(3) Admission requirement	4.92	4.99	5.04	5.04
	(4) Teaching methods	5.04	5.11	5.12	5.15
	(5) Tuition and other fees	4.97	5.17	5.17	5.10
	(6) Basic life expenditure	4.99	5.18	5.16	5.18
	(7) If qualification/degree obtained will be recognized equally with local students by host place	**5.18**	**5.35**	**5.37**	**5.39**
	(8) If qualification/degree obtained will be recognized by home country	**5.20**	**5.36**	**5.39**	**5.40**
Factor Two: Life and work in host place (10.50%)	(9) The possibility of employment in the host place	4.55	4.40	4.59	4.43
	(10) Life habits in host place	4.65	4.61	4.75	4.41
	N	713	695	669	405

Source: Hung et al. (2007).

Note: [a] The importance degree is based on student's self report. A six-point scale is used to rate the importance degree: 1 = very unimportant, 2 = unimportant, 3 = a little unimportant, 4 = a little important, 5 = important, 6 = very important.

[b] The result is based on factor analysis of the whole sample of 12,961 students. Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis; Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Number in the parentheses refers to percentage of variance of each factor.

employment opportunities. Within Factor One, all students consider the information on the recognition of overseas qualifications by home country and host country most important. Recognition of qualifications is also a significant indicator of quality of overseas higher education.

As a whole, data analysis results suggest that high school students in mainland China consider information on quality of overseas higher education most important, then cost, and followed by life and future employment. During marketization and internationalization of higher education in East Asian countries and regions, quality assurance is always a key issue (Chapman et al., 2010; Mok, 2000; Yonezawa, 2002). For individuals and their families, educational costs and future benefits are important factors in their choice of further education (Becker, 1993). Reputation and quality of higher education institutions, to most extent, may guarantee students a higher salary and good social status in the near future (Ding, 2004). In international higher education market, "quality of programs" and "tuition fees and cost of living" are two important underlying factors in students' choice of a host country of study (OECD, 2011, p. 323). It may be concluded that high school students in mainland China seem quite rational concerning their consideration of information related to overseas higher education.

5.3 Information Channels for Overseas Higher Education

Information channel is also important for students to obtain accurate and "deterministic" information. In the student questionnaire survey, they were asked to rate the importance of listed 11 channels for them to obtain information on overseas higher education. Similar to Zhan's study on information channels on *minban* higher education information (Zhan, 2004), with factor analysis, all 11 items are run into two factors. Factor One is named as "formal/public channels," including student's school, media, intermediate agency/company, internet, educational administration department, promotion advertisement by overseas higher education institutions and education exhibition, and Factor Two "informal/personal channels," with family and relatives, friends and classmates, school teachers, and overseas relatives included.

As shown in Table 6, students in general think both two factors help for their research of information on overseas study. Among all 11 channels, all students agree that internet is very important. As stated in session III, almost all universities and colleges with international students build their websites to expose information about themselves and also on admission policies to potential students. Some government agencies construct websites to upload policies related to overseas study and/or to regulate information market of international higher education (such as Website of Regulating Information on Overseas Education, Ministry of Education, People's Republic of China: http://www.jsj.edu.cn). Students also consider family and relatives and media good channels for information. Students intend to study in Singapore and Korea also think of educational

Table 6 Importance Degree[a] of Various Information Channels

Factors[b]	Information on: … of the host country/region	Japan	Singapore	Korea	HK-China
Factor One: formal/ public channels (48.50%)	(1) Introduction by student's secondary school	4.08	4.33	4.46	4.31
	(2) Media (broadcast/newspaper/TV)	4.35	4.33	4.56	4.56
	(3) Intermediate agency/company	3.76	3.85	4.00	3.72
	(4) Internet	4.53	4.48	4.69	4.61
	(5) Educational administration departments	4.33	4.68	4.75	4.43
	(6) Promotion advertisement by overseas higher education institutions	4.21	4.27	4.51	4.26
	(7) Education exhibition	4.15	4.35	4.50	4.12
Factor Two: informal/personal channels (11.61%)	(8) Family and relatives	4.40	4.33	4.49	4.48
	(9) Friends and classmates	4.27	4.30	4.47	4.40
	(10) School teachers	3.81	3.97	4.05	3.93
	(11) Overseas relatives	4.34	4.27	4.40	4.11
	N	642	648	608	362

Source: Hung et al. (2007).
Note: [a] The importance degree is based on student's self report. A six-point scale is used to rate the importance degree: 1 = very unimportant, 2 = unimportant, 3 = a little unimportant, 4 = a little important, 5 = important, 6 = very important.
[b] The result is based on factor analysis of the whole sample of 12,961 students. Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis; Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Number in the parentheses refers to percentage of variance of each factor.

administration departments to be very important information channels. It is also interesting to note that students think intermediate agencies/companies are not that important for them to get information on overseas higher education. It may partly result from the bad reputation of some intermediate agencies (Zhao, 2013).

Among all the 11 channels for the search of information on overseas higher education, internet, media, family and relatives are considered important by all students. Students who intend to study in Singapore and Korea seem to look up upon information channel of educational administration departments. Is it because from student's experience and perception, governments in Singapore and Korea play a more important role in dissemination of information on overseas higher education than those in Japan and HK-China? More research need doing for further discussions and conclusions.

6 Conclusions and Implications

With massificaiton and internationalization of higher education, students may have more choices but meanwhile they are also faced with a "noisy" information market. The search of and the acquisition of deterministic information on overseas higher education are important for student's rational choice of studying abroad. With previous analysis, the following conclusions and implication are secured.

First, there is a slow-growth of demand for overseas higher education in East Asia by high school students in mainland China. Though universities in North America and West Europe are still favorite choices of many students, universities in some East Asian countries and regions, such as Japan, Singapore, Korea and Hong Kong-China, are becoming more popular. Especially since early 21st century, many countries in East Asia implemented various policies to attract international students, including scholarship provision, relaxing visa application, and opening of employment market to overseas students (Wang & Guo, 2012; Wang et al., 2009). Information exposure of universities to potential students is also an important strategy to attract potential students. With growing demand of overseas study in mainland China, various public information channels exist in the overseas study market to provide information and service to interested students. As shown in the study, internet, family and relatives, educational administration departments and education exhibitions are considered important information channels in their pursuit of overseas higher education. Besides providing quality teaching and good service to their international students, universities in East Asia may use those public channels to disseminate information as one of their internationalization strategies.

It is also found that students tend to choose study majors which are popular in local and foreign labor market. Information on higher education and labor market is uncertain in nature (DeFreitas, 1995; Rosen, 1995). Some students may have to adjust their expectation on future benefit of overseas study owing to labor market fluctuation

(Li & Chen, 2012; Zweig & Han, 2009). Students also need to keep balance between instrumentalism and personal interest on their choices of study major.

Third, students in mainland China intend to make rational school choice concerning their perception of "deterministic" information on overseas higher education. Quality and cost are important and deterministic information (Ding, 2004; OECD, 2011; Stiglitz, 2001). Students in the study in general consider quality information most important for their overseas study and then that on cost, especially on accreditation of degrees and qualifications by both home country and host countries. However, it should be noted that the study is based on self report of high school students who have not actually experienced overseas higher education. Information searching is costly (Schneider, 2001; Stiglitz, 2001; Zhan & Hung, 2010). In spite of their ambitious intention, students may not afford or forget to do information search finally. As shown in studies in Cyprus and Greece (Menon, 2004; Menon & Saiti 2007), only half of students are actual information searchers for their choice of private colleges. Meanwhile owing to complexity of quality criteria and unregulated information market, students may obtain "noisy" or false information (for example, Zhan & Chung, 2006). Further research is needed to study on student's actual acquisition of information on overseas study.

Some well-designed regulations are needed for healthy development of information market on overseas higher education in mainland China. Intermediate agencies are found to share a large market for providing service and information to students for their overseas study (Ministry of Education, People's Republic of China, 2004). However, students do not evaluate it as an important channel, partly owing to bad reputation of some agencies. Though Chinese government has tried to regulate them by issuing several administration regulations, more well-designed policies are needed.

It is also worth noting that governments of both host and home countries and regions play an important role in promoting flow of international students. According to data analysis, students consider information on recognition and accreditation of degrees and qualifications by home and host country most important for their overseas study. Recognition of degrees and qualifications is not only an indicator of higher education quality, but also a mutual understanding between home and host countries and regions. From 1983 to 2009, mainland China has signed contracts with more than 50 countries and regions with mutual recognition of degrees and certificates (Wang et al., 2009, pp. 460-463). It greatly promotes mobility of international students between mainland China and other countries and regions.

Acknowledgement

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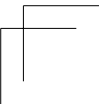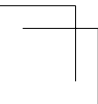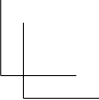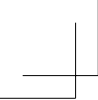
Earning while Learning: Part-Time Work during Term-Time

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Abstract

The increase of tuition costs and the decrease of governmental and family supports, combined with the changes in student's lifestyle and consumption preferences have forced many full-time students not only to take part-time jobs, but also to work longer hours. Today, working while enrolled has become a fundamental responsibility for many undergraduate students, and it is thus important for higher education institutions to ensure that students work safely and meaningfully and to help them to benefit academically, financially, and socially. This research thus endeavored to determine the major determinant perceived by students for term-time employment selection, to calculate the relative importance of each determinant, and to examine the benefits and detriments of different types of term-time employments. A self-developed questionnaire was administered to 250 college students. The results were utilized as a guide for students' career selection and for educational policy development.

Keywords: part-time work, higher education, education finance

1 Introduction

The increase of tuition costs, the decrease of governmental and family supports, and the changes in students' lifestyle and consumption preferences have forced many full-time students to take part-time jobs (Beerkens, Magi, & Lill, 2011; Christou & Haliassos, 2006; Little, 2002; Moreau & Leathwood, 2006). Having quoted from National Center for Education Statistics, Perna (2010) lamented that 45% of the U.S. traditional undergraduates had full-time work while enrolled, and 85% of undergraduates engaged in paid work. In addition, compared to earlier decades, not only are there more students are engaged in term-time jobs, but they also work longer hours (Beerkens et al., 2011; Hall, 2010). Today, working seems to be a fundamental responsibility for many undergraduates, and therefore, it is of great importance for higher educational institutions to ensure that students work

safely and meaningfully and to help them to gain greatly from their working experiences (Richardson, Evans, & Gbadamosi, 2009; Smith, Clegg, Lawrence, & Todd, 2007).

Although Beerkens et al. (2011) suggest that term-time employment seem to have only a marginal negative effect on students' academic progress, most scholars hold nearly opposite opinions. Hakkinen (2006) asserts that working while enrolled in a university often impairs students' academic achievement, which in turn, leads to longer times to get degree. This finding is consistent with Salamonson, Everett, Koch, Andrew and Davidson's (2012) research results that the duration of term-time paid work engagement has a negative impact on students' academic outcomes. The research results of Callender (2008) and Richardson et al. (2009) also reveal that term-time employment had a detrimental effect on students' academic grades.

Cheng and Alcantara (2007) further assert that doing paid work when enrolled not only damages students' academic achievements, but also their free time, sleep and socialization with peers. Laberge et al. (2011) examine the work-related fatigue in students with school-year employment. The results indicate that higher exposure to physical work is associated with higher levels of acute fatigue, and holding multiple jobs with higher levels of chronic fatigue, which in turn damages students' school achievements. The interview results of Moreau and Leathwood (2006) also show that in order to work longer hours, students curtailed their social life at many stages, and thus, they do not get to know other students easily.

Moreover, Smith, Gorski, Hagmann, and Qakley (2002) lament that although part-time employment can have some benefits for the development of students, the potential for serious injury and illness must be recognized. Miller, Handelman, and Lewis (2007) argue that young workers are often exposed to the same occupational risks as adult workers. Since they are new to the work environment, and often have less cognitive abilities, physical coordination and maturity, they are at greater risk of injury than their adult counterparts. McCloskey (2008) and Schulte, Carol, Okun, Palassis, and Biddle (2005) confirm that young workers experience the highest rates of occupational injuries and fatality, especially for those who are currently

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studying at schools. Therefore, it is important for schools to incorporate occupational safety and health information into their curriculum to raise students' safety awareness, and by doing this, provide a mechanism for reducing occupational injuries among term-time workers.

However, some scholars believe that term-time employment is not all that detrimental. Derous and Ryan (2008) and Hodgson and Spours (2001) both point out that although out-of-school employment in general has negative impacts on undergraduates' academic outcomes, it may be beneficial to students' academic outcomes if the job is relevant for their academic study and if it is performed in a balanced, autonomous way. Light (2001) and Molitor and Leigh (2005) further suggest that work-study experiences are positively related to post school earnings. Their suggestions are consistent with Hakkinen's (2006) findings that term-time work experience increases earning greatly one year after graduation, but this effect becomes smaller in later years.

In addition to the aforementioned fiscal advantages, students may also gain higher self-confidence and understanding of the business world by engaging in paid works, and most importantly, they may learn practical skills from their hands-on working experiences (Salamonson et al., 2012).

Benefits and detriments of term-time employment vary depending on the hours of work they do. The more hours they work, the greater the negative effect (Callender, 2008). Moreover, it is not only the number of hours but also the type of work that matters. Students who take off-campus jobs seem to be affected more negatively when compared to those taking on-campus jobs. On-campus employment may allow students to have more contacts with faculty and peers so as to enhance their integration into college life, while off-campus employment removes students physically from campus, and thus lead to negative impacts (Beerkens et al., 2011; Cheng & Alcantara, 2007; Ehrenberg, 1987). Economic returns to term-time work also vary by type of schools students go. Molitor and Leigh (2005) found that school and work are more complementary for two-year community colleges than for four-year colleges. Finally, although McKechnie, Hobbs, Simpson, Anderson, Howieson, and Semple (2010) claim that students can learn employable and marketable skills from term-time employment, Howieson, McKenchnie, and Semple (2012) and Shepherd (1998) bear a contradictory opinion by arguing that most work experience is still largely about work, and that many working students do not have the opportunity to reflect on their acquisition of skills unless the work is autonomous and academic related. Hence, it is important to ensure that students select the "right" jobs.

Why do students work? Most students work mainly to cover the costs of college, while some use employment as a way to explore career options (Hall, 2012; Little, 2002), and the others perceive work as a part of their identity (Perna, 2010). Cheng and Alcantara (2007) further suggest that students are motivated to work because they are provided with greater opportunities to interact and network with people in the workplace, which in turn enhance their opportunity to gain insights into the job market, and thus are more employable upon graduation. Wang, Kong, Shan, and Vong (2010) argue that the five most common incentives for term-time employment are financial necessity, peer influence, acquiring working experience, boredom, and sustaining a lifestyle, and their research results further suggest that incentives to work have the most significant effects on students' academic performance.

Building on the existing studies on college student term-time employment, this research was designed to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the major determinants perceived by students for term-time employment selection?
2. What are the relative degrees of importance of each determinant?
3. What are the major benefits and detriments of different types of term-time employment?

2   Methodology

2.1   The Analytic Hierarchy Process

The Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP) was adopted in this research as the main instrument for measuring the relative importance of the determinants of term-time job selection. The fundamental mechanism of AHP is to break down a big problem into several smaller ones. These smaller problems are more easily solved, and also elucidate the subordinate relationships between each of the attributes being examined. The attributes are organized into a hierarchical structure with the primary goal at the highest level. The second level consists of all the secondary goals that together contribute to accomplishing the primary goal. In turn, each secondary goal is fabricated by the attributes on the next lower level, and so forth. The AHP permits several benefits: it helps to elicit opinions from experts; it allocates weights to each element; it validates the consistency of the ratings; and it can easily be combined with other techniques to perform further analysis (Saaty & Vargas, 1994). We selected AHP as the main research tool because it is the best method for calculating the relative weight (importance) of the determinants being studied in this research.

Thereafter, the relative weights of the attributes are obtained by comparing them in pairs of verbal judgments. A positive reciprocal matrix is utilized to calculate the relative

weights of each attribute. The formula used in this research was as follows: where a_{ij} represents the element located in row i and column j of the positive reciprocal matrix, and a_{kj} represents the element located in row k of any normalized column j.

$$A = [a_{ij}] \begin{bmatrix} 1 & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1m} \\ a_{21} & 1 & & a_{2m} \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & w_1/w_2 & \cdots & w_1/w_n \\ w_2/w_1 & 1 & & w_2/w_n \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\ w_n/w_2 & w_n/w_2 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The weight is: $Wi = 1/m \sum_{j=1}^{m} \frac{a_{ij}}{\sum_{k=1}^{m} a_{kj}}$

Next, an eigenvector λ_{max} is used to assess the consistency of the structure. A CR < .1 indicates consistency of the AHP answers. The formula used in this research was as follows:

$$A \times K = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1m} \\ a_{21} & 1 & & a_{2m} \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ \vdots \\ w_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} w'_1 \\ w'_2 \\ \vdots \\ w'_m \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_{max} = \left(\frac{1}{m}\right) \times \left(\frac{w'_1}{w_1} + \frac{w'_2}{w_2} + \frac{w'_m}{w_m}\right)$$

$$CI = \frac{\lambda_{max} - m}{m - 1} \qquad CR = \frac{CI}{RI}$$

Then, we categorize determinant factors into two broad categories: Benefits Pursuit and Detriment Avoidance. These two categories formed the basis of the questionnaire for this study. In Figure 1, the main *goal*, located at the topmost level (on the far left), is to select the best term-time job; the second level of the hierarchy consists of the two major dimensions: Benefit Pursuit and Detriment Avoidance; and the third level consists of the eight determinants of term-time employment selection.

2.2 Correspondence Analysis

Correspondence analysis (CA) is a highly useful descriptive statistical technique to visualize categorical data which displays relationships among the attributes of variables. CA technique commonly transforms a table of numerical information into a two-dimensional graphical display or perceptual map, in which each roll and each column is shown as a point. The use of correspondence analysis and perceptual mapping techniques can identify patterns of results and can reveal possible options for policy decisions (Allen, Thom, & Buckner, 2010; Greenacire & Blasius, 1994). Chi-square statistic is a measure of the discrepancy between the observed and expected frequencies. CA uses the chi-square statistic to measure
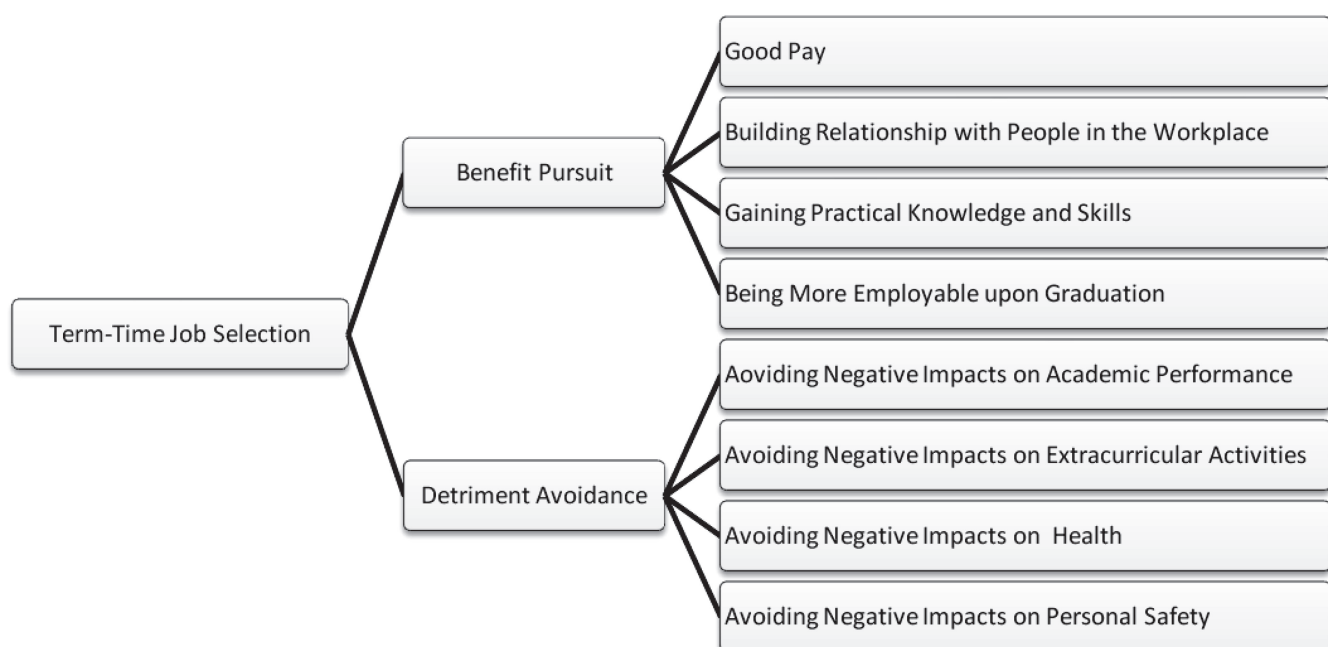
Figure 1 hierarchy structure

the distance between points on the perceptual map, and a *p*-value smaller than .05 indicates that the total inertia is significantly different from zero, and thus the hypothesis is plausible (Habib, Etesam, Ghoddusifar, & Mohajeri, 2012). To perform the correspondence analysis in this research, we created a cross-table with row corresponds to the eight determinants of term-time employment selection, and the column corresponds to the 7 types of term-time employment.

2.3 Design of the Questionnaire

A self-developed questionnaire was used to explore college students' motivations for term-time employment, perceptions regarding relative importance of determinants of job selection, and benefits and detriments of different job types. The questionnaire contained four parts. The first part consisted of questions about the participant's demographical information; the second 13 pairs of questions for AHP analysis; the third 8 questions with answers on a five-point Likert scale, and was designed to measure the impacts of term-time jobs. The fourth part consisted of a cross table of the eight types of employment and the eight determinant factors. The participants were asked to place a check mark next to each type of employment.

2.4 Research Participants

College students were targeted as the research participants for this study. The sampling method employed was mainly purposive. As suggested by Tudd, Smith and Kidder (1991), probability sampling may be more representative, but the advantages of non-probability sampling, convenience and economy, may outweigh those of probability sampling due to practical constrains. Hence, purposive sampling was adopted in this research because of the expected low return rate and the similarity of student bodies among different universities. Moreover, the purposive sampling can identify students with ideal characteristics for this study. A self-administered questionnaire was sent to 250 college students at National Chiayi University in Taiwan. A total of 246 questionnaires were returned. Of which, 159 (64.6%) reported to have term-time work experiences. We decided to use only those with term-time work experiences for the forthcoming analyses. Of the 159 questionnaires, 137 were valid and hence used to carry out the AHP and Correspondence Analyses.

3 Research Results

3.1 Participants' Demographic Characteristics

The sample consisted of 137 students, 56 (41%) male and 81 (59%) female. 54 (39%) students came from social science field, 25 (18%) engineering, 47 (34%) agricultural, and 11 (8%) business. 24 (19%) students came from financially disadvantaged families, 103 (74%) moderate prosperity families, and 10 (6%) richer families.

About 70% of students with working experiences engaged in off-campus laboring jobs (30%), followed by private tutoring or serving as cram school teachers (26%), on-campus laborers (14%), on-campus administrative workers (13%), and the rest 13% students worked for off-campus community services, off-campus administrative jobs, as on-campus teaching assistants and/or professors' research assistants.

Most students worked less than 10 hours per week: 47 (34%) 1-5 hours, 45 (33%) 6-10 hours, 7 (5%) 11-15 hours, and 38 (28%) more than 16 hours. The average monthly income earned was NT$8,545 (US$285), slightly higher than their monthly expenditure of NT$5,815 (US$194). The biggest amount of their income went to basic living expenditures (36.9%), followed by savings and investments (24.1%), and entertainment activities (23.0%).

3.2 The Relative Weight of the Factors

AHP was adopted as the main method for calculating relative weights of each determinant of job selection. The results for the second level of the AHP analysis (Table 1) showed that the participants deemed the dimension of Benefits Pursuit (.638) to be more important than the dimension of Risk Avoidance (.362).

The results for the third level (Table 2) showed that Gaining Practical Knowledge and Skills (.222) was considered to be the most important factor. It was followed by, in descending order, Beneficial to Future Employment (.178); Avoiding Health Detriment (.139); Earning Money (.130); Building Good Relationships (.109); Avoiding Safety Detriment (.095); Avoiding Academic Outcome Detriment (.086); and Avoiding Leisure Time Detriment (.041).

3.3 Students' Perceptions of the Effects of Term-Time Employment

What do students think about their employment

Table 1 Weights of the Two Dimensions

Major Goal	Dimension	Weight	Order
Choice of Employment	Benefits Pursuit	.638	(1)
	Detriment Avoidance	.362	(2)

Table 2 Weights of the Eight Determinant Factors

Major Goal	Dim.	CR	Determinant Factor	Weight	Order
Choice of Employment	Benefit Pursuit	.003	Good Pay	.130	(4)
			Building Relationships	.109	(5)
			Gain Practical Knowledge and Skills	.222	(1)
			Beneficial to Future Employment	.178	(2)
	Risk Avoiding	.005	Avoiding Academic Outcome Detriment	.086	(7)
			Avoiding extracurricular Activity Detriment	.041	(8)
			Avoiding Health Detriment	.139	(3)
			Avoiding Safety Detriment	.095	(6)

experiences? Students revealed that they learned a great deal of practical knowledge and skills (4.04), and they also believed that their working experience was beneficial to future employment (3.55), and by engaging in term-time works, they successfully expanded their relationships with people in the workplace(3.49). Moreover, while they admitted that their term-time work was detrimental to their extracurricular activities (3.01), they tended to ignore or paid less attention to the other possible detriments being examined in this study, and this was especially true for their work-related safety concerns (1.99). see Table 3.

3.4 Results of the Correspondence Analysis

The next step was to use correspondence analysis (CA) to produce a perceptual map displaying the relative positioning of each of the employment type. The data obtained from the fourth part of the questionnaire was used to calculate each employment's total score for each determinant (each check counts for one point). Then CA was applied to these scores to create the perceptual map (Figure 2).

The x^2 of 415.332 and the p value of .000 indicated that the perceptual map created by CA was feasible. In the perceptual map it can be seen that the determinant factors

and employment types roughly form into four groups. The map shows that On-campus RA and TA, On-campus Administrative Job, Cooperative Educational Work, and Off-campus Tutoring had the highest rating on Employment Preparation and Learning Practical Skills. The Off-campus Labor had the most bearing on Health Detriment, Safety Detriment, and Academic Detriment. Off-campus Administrative Job, On-Campus Labor were closer to Activity Detriment. Community Service was very different from all the other jobs, and was highly rated for Expanding Relationships with People in the Workplace. Finally, On-Campus Laboring Jobs, and Off-Campus Administrative Jobs did not show strong relationships with any of the eight determinants.

4   Conclusion

This research endeavored to determine the major determinants perceived by students for term-time employment selection, to calculate the relative importance of each determinant, and to investigate the benefits and detriments of different types of term-time employments.

The demographic results of this research indicated that approximately 64% of college students engaged in

Table 3 Term-Time Work Related Benefits and Detriment Perceived by Students

| Benefits or Detriment	Average	STD
1. Good Pay	3.05	.84
2. Expand Relationships with People in Workplace	3.49	.78
3. Gain Practical Knowledge and Skills	4.04	.62
4. Beneficial to Future Employment	3.55	.83
5. Negative Impacts on Academic Outcomes	2.38	.96
6. Negative Impacts on Extracurricular Activities	3.01	.95
7. Negative Impacts on Health	2.35	.86
8. Negative Impacts on Occupational Safety	1.99	.84
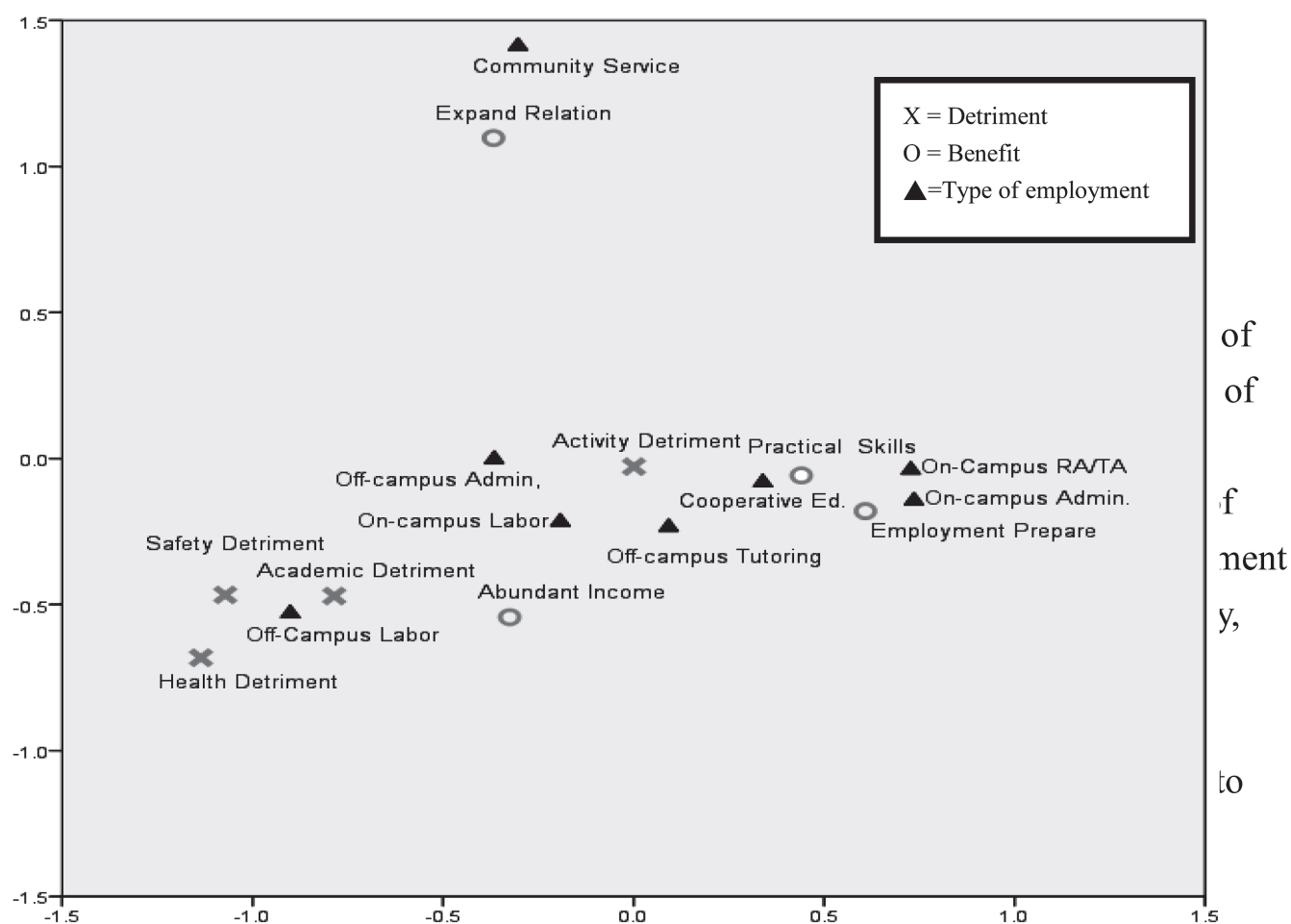
Figure 2 Positioning Map of Determinant Factors and Employment Types

term-time employments. Although term-time employment may inhibit detriments, they can be beneficial to students financially, academically, and socially if performed adequately. Since more students than ever engage in term-time employment, higher education institutions should consider term-time employment an educational purposeful activity, and to develop adequate policies to help students benefit from their working experiences.

The AHP results of this research revealed that students, when selecting jobs,

Thought mainly of gaining more benefits while they often failed to pay a commensurate consideration to the possible detriments. This is especially true for the occupation safety issues. However, the common young worker fatalities in diverse employments show that there are obvious risks and dangers, and students should thus recognize that safety is of utmost importance when performing their works. Since students are often unaware whether a job is dangerous or not, higher education institutions have to take the lead in protecting their student from work-related injuries and fatalities. Schools should try their best to remind students of their personal safety

issues, and they may also co-operate with off-campus employers to create a safer working environments to protect their students from occupational accidents. Moreover, incorporating occupational safety and health information into their curriculum may thus help to raise safety awareness among the students of job selection.

Another important result drawn from the AHP analyses was that students, when selecting their term-time jobs, paid highest attention to Learning Practical Knowledge and Skills, with less to Avoiding Academic Achievement Detriments. Some might blame students for not studying hard or ignoring their academic responsibilities, and make a prompt conclusion that higher education institutions should have strict regulations in place to force students to study harder. Nevertheless, it is much more important that we reflect this problem in the curriculum. The absence of practical courses could be the main factors pushing individual students to make the decision to gain skills off-campus. To address this problem, universities are required to add hands-on skills to their curriculum.

Finally, the perceptual map generated by the results of CA provides students with specific research-based

guidelines for choosing a term-time job in a timely manner and can be used by universities to develop a sound term-time employment policy. According to the perceptual map, students perceived the On-campus Administrative Jobs, On-campus RA/TA Jobs, School Directed Cooperative Educational Jobs, and Off-Campus Tutoring Jobs to be strongly associated with the benefits of Learning Practical Skills and Future Employment Prospects, while Off-campus Laboring Jobs was relatively closer to Academic Detriment, Safety Detriment, and Health Detriment. Given the aforementioned results, it is obvious that the four former term-time jobs are strongly related with a variety of benefits and are much more preferred than Off-Campus Laboring Jobs. Unfortunately, the demographic characteristics results of this study showed that the majority of the students were engaged in less preferred off-campus laboring jobs, while only a few students employed in on-campus jobs.

This miserable reality may be attributed to the severe shortages of on-campus job opportunities across most of the universities in Taiwan, which have forced students to take off-campus work with low levels of skills. Hence, universities may consider creating more on-campus work opportunities to accommodate more students. In addition, strengthening university's career counseling platform not only can help establish links between prospective employers and students who seek term-time works, but ensure students working in an employment that makes use of their education and skills.

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      Gregory claims:

      Coefficient alpha is an index of the internal consistency of the items, that is, their tendency to correlate with one another. Insofar as a test or scale with high internal consistency will also tend to show stability of scores in a test-retest approach, coefficient alpha is therefore a useful estimate of reliability. (Manning & Munro, 2006, p. 25)

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